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PREFACE

In two respects, changes have been introduced in the usual arrangement of the *I.L.O. Year-Book*, which is now issued for the fifth time.

In the first place, it has no longer been found possible to keep the material for this publication strictly within the limits of a calendar year. In previous issues, it was in fact necessary on occasion, so as not to break the thread of an account, to give particulars of events of the beginning of the following year in the form of footnotes. Rather than have recourse to this expedient again, the Office has preferred deliberately to encroach on 1935 when able to do so or when such action appeared to be justified by the importance of the events to be described.

The present edition is therefore entitled *The I.L.O. Year-Book 1934-35.*

As this is the first time the experiment has been made, it has not always been possible to carry the various sections of the *Year-Book* into 1935 equally far. Thus the information on the ratification of Conventions and in a general way all the statistics refer only to 1934. Further, in view of the time it takes to print a publication of this kind, the account of events seldom goes beyond the first quarter of 1935.

Secondly, the statistical tables which have always accompanied the *Year-Book*, and which in the issue for 1933 were grouped in a special appendix, have year by year increased in number and detail. This was so marked in the case of the present issue that it was decided to publish them in the form of a separate volume. Volume II of the *I.L.O. Year-Book 1934-35* is entitled " Labour Statistics " and includes, in addition to a special introduction, statistical tables grouped under six principal heads, and detailed notes on the sources of the statistics.

As regards the *Year-Book* proper—namely, Volume I of the *I.L.O. Year Book 1934-35*—the arrangement is the same as for previous editions, but the contents have grown considerably as

compared with the 1933 issue. Although the Office has tried as usual to compress the material, it could not avoid giving an account of the principal events that made 1934 an outstanding year in all branches of social policy.

To mention only the most salient, there is first the unbroken series of measures taken nearly everywhere to diminish unemployment and overcome the economic depression: direct relief for the unemployed, comprehensive public works policies, spreading of available employment by a reduction of hours of work. Next, in the field of social insurance, there have been, in addition to proposals for new legislation, a number of measures to consolidate existing systems and adapt them to present conditions; social insurance schemes have now succeeded in overcoming the difficulties of the depression, and, after the alarms of the last few years, in resuming their due place in the general economy. Finally, in several countries new ideas have sprung up for the organisation of modern society, and attempts are being made to establish the economic, the social, and even the political structure of the State on a new foundation.

CONTENTS

	Page
PREFACE	III
GENERAL INTRODUCTION	1
Relations	10
Workers' Organisations	10
International Federation of Trade Unions	10
Christian Trade Unions	14
Trade Unions in the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics	17
Fascist Trade Unions	17
Trade Unionism in Extra-European Countries	18
Employers' Organisations	21
Important Private Associations	28
The Churches	29
The Catholic Church	29
Churches belonging to the Stockholm Movement	31
International Christian Organisations	34
Education	35
The Press and Public Opinion	35
CHAPTER I: *Economic Developments*	39
Production	39
Price Movements	44
International Trade	46
Currencies and Interest Rates	48
Organisation of Production	52
Commercial Policy	57
Monetary and Financial Policy	62
CHAPTER II: *Conditions of Work*	73
Hours of Work	73
Hours of Work in Industry	73
Hours of Work in Coal Mines	106
Methods of Providing Rests and Alternation of Shifts in Automatic Sheet-Glass Works	109
Hours of Work of Salaried Employees	111
Weekly Rest	120
Weekly Rest in Industrial Undertakings	120
Weekly Rest in Commercial Undertakings	124
Night Work in Bakeries	129
Shop Closing	131
Annual Holidays with Pay	133
Public Holidays	137
Industrial Medicine	138
Industrial Physiology	139
Industrial Pathology	143
Medical Assistance	151
Hygiene	152
Compensation for Industrial Diseases	157
Statistics	161
Medical Inspection	163
Education and Publicity	165

Page

Prevention of Industrial Accidents 166
National Regulations 166
The Progress of Safety Movements and Institutions 170
International Activities 171
International Regulation 171
Women's Work 173
Employment and Unemployment 173
Place of Women's Work in the Economic System 175
General Protection of Women Workers 182
Night Work of Women 184
Employment of Women before and after Childbirth 187
Economic Protection of Women Workers 191
The Protection of Children and Young Persons 196
Factory Inspection 201

CHAPTER III: *Social Insurance* 203
National Schemes 203
Bilateral Treaties 259
International Collaboration 260
International Regulation 265
Conclusions 269

CHAPTER IV: *Remuneration of Labour* 274
The Movement of Wages 274
Wages Policy 278
International Minimum Wage Regulations 290
Family Allowances 290

CHAPTER V: *Unemployment, Placing, Migration* 294
Unemployment 294
Insurance and Relief Measures 296
Public Works 307
Other Forms of Occupation for the Unemployed 316
Other Unemployment Measures 323
Employment Exchanges 326
Migration 332
Organisation and Control of Emigration 334
Organisation and Control of Immigration 334
International Action 337
International Regulation 338

CHAPTER VI: *Workers' Living Conditions* 343
Vocational Training 343
Utilisation of Workers' Spare Time 352
Housing 357

CHAPTER VII: *Workers' General Rights* 361
Right of Combination in Trade Unions 361
Profit-Sharing and Workers' Participation in Management . . . 381
Profit-Sharing and Shareholding by the Workers 381
Works Councils 381
Collective Agreements 384
Conciliation and Arbitration 393
The Individual Contract of Service 402
Administration of Labour Law 415
Rationalisation and Industrial Relations 418
Participation of Workers in National Economic Life 419
National Economic Councils 419
Co-operation 424

Page

CHAPTER VIII: *Special Problems of Certain Categories of Workers* . . 429

Salaried Employees 429
Professional Workers 432
Home Work 438
Agricultural Workers 442
General Remarks: Economic Position of Agriculture 442
Structure of the Industry: Land Settlement, Employment and Population 447
Conditions of Employment in Agriculture 452
International Regulation 455
Seamen 456
National Developments 456
General Measures affecting Seamen's Conditions of Service . . 456
Hours of Work, Manning and Holidays with Pay 461
Wages 466
International Developments 467
Hygiene and Welfare. 467
Arrangements for the next Maritime Session of the Conference . 468
Ratification and Approval of Conventions and Recommendations 470
Native Labour 471
National Developments 471
The International Situation 502
Prison Labour 505

APPENDIX 509

I. List of States Members of the International Labour Organisation. 511
II. List of Permanent Delegates accredited to the International Labour Office and to the League of Nations 511
III. Distribution of the Fifty-eight Ratifications Registered in 1934 512
IV. Commissions of Enquiry 513
V. Representation at the Conference and Composition of Delegations 513
VI. Committees 514
VII. Statistics of International and National Federations of Trade Unions 523

INDEX 542

GENERAL INTRODUCTION

The additions to the membership of the International Labour Organisation [1] and the changes in the composition of the Governing Body of the International Labour Office which took place during 1934 will give that year an outstanding place in the annals of the Organisation.

The *I.L.O. Year-Book 1933* expressed the hope that—as was foreshadowed by the report of the delegation of observers sent by the Government of the United States to the 1933 Session of the Conference—closer contact between the United States and the Organisation would follow in the near future. This hope has been realised.

On 22 June 1934 the Conference then in Session was officially informed of the adoption of a joint Resolution by both Houses of Congress authorising the President to acquire membership of the Organisation on the condition that no assumption of obligations under the Covenant of the League of Nations was implied. This notification was accompanied by an intimation that the President would welcome an invitation to the United States, and on the same day a Resolution was unanimously adopted by the Conference extending such an invitation. On 20 August the President informed the Director of his acceptance, and the United States became a full Member of the Organisation.

It is hardly necessary to stress here the importance of this event. The rôle which the United States plays in the economic and industrial life of the world, the astonishing rapidity with which it has developed its natural resources and the social standards of its people, and the bold and comprehensive measures of reconstruction which are now being carried through under the inspiration of President Roosevelt, necessarily make American co-operation of exceptional value to the International Labour Organisation.

Scarcely a month later, three other States became Members of the Organisation through entering the League of Nations, namely Afghanistan, Ecuador and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics. In the case of the Soviet Union, the Government has not yet decided what kind of collaboration it intends to give; but it appointed a representative to attend the January 1935 Session of the Governing Body in the capacity of an observer, and thus took a first

[1] See Appendix (I) for a list of the 62 States Members of the Organisation at the end of 1934.

official step towards getting into touch with the work of the Office. Here again, it is hardly necessary to emphasise the importance of the co-operation of the U.S.S.R., either from the point of view of the size of its territory and population, the remarkable expansion of its industry in recent years, or of the importance of the social experiments which have been carried out under the existing regime.

Is is gratifying to note that there have been no signs of any diminution of interest on the side of Japan. Questions arising out of the considerable extension of Japanese commerce occupied an important place in the discussions at the 1934 Session of the Conference. There is every reason to hope that the association of so important an industrial country with the Organisation will be actively continued.

On the other hand, no change has taken place in the abstentionist attitude of Germany. The German Government has preserved no contact with the Organisation and has ceased to furnish statistical or other information to the Office except in fulfilment of the obligations assumed under the Conventions which it has ratified. It only remains to repeat the hope that Germany will resume her place in the Organisation before her notice of withdrawal from the League becomes finally operative.

The general upshot of the expansion of its membership has been further to accentuate the universal character of the Organisation. Its scope is now practically worldwide for the first time, from which it follows that its centre of gravity is likely to be less European than in the past. This tendency had already been making itself felt since the earliest years of the Organisation. As has been repeatedly pointed out, the war had the effect of spreading industry far more widely over the globe than in the nineteenth century, when industrial production was largely concentrated in a few Western European countries, and latterly in the United States. During recent years, and particularly since the onset of the crisis, this geographical extension of industrial activity has proceeded still further.

This transformation of the industrial map was very opportunely reflected in the enlargement of the Governing Body. After a delay of twelve years the amendment to Article 7 of the Constitution of the Organisation (Article 393 of the Treaty of Versailles) was finally brought into operation in time for the elections at the 1934 Session of the Conference. As a result, there were seven extra-European countries among the sixteen Governments represented, while corresponding increases in extra-European representation took place in both the Employers' and Workers' groups. It is hardly too much to say that the new Governing Body marked a new chapter in the history of the Organisation.

* * *

Thus at the beginning of 1935, there were 62 States Members. This makes it fruitless to attempt to give a general view of their participation in the work of the Organisation, or even to indicate briefly, as was done in previous editions of the *Year-Book*, a few characteristic national measures.

All that can be done here is to record the changes that took place in 1934 in the relations between the International Labour Office and the States Members, as regards, on the one hand, the permanent delegations accredited to the Office, and, on the other, the branch offices and national correspondents appointed by the Office in certain countries.

In Geneva [1], a permanent delegate for Chile was accredited to the Office in the person of Mr. Garcia Oldini, Minister at Berne and former Minister of Labour. Regular relations were established with the Iraq delegation to the League of Nations, to which all the official correspondence of the Office is communicated. A few changes were made, or are about to be made, in the leadership of the delegations of Colombia, Hungary and Persia, the holders of this office being appointed to other duties.

There were also certain changes in the network of branch offices and national correspondents of the International Labour Office.

Owing to the withdrawal of Germany, the Berlin Branch Office was replaced by a National Correspondent's post, held by Mr. W. Claussen, former official of the old Branch Office. Mrs. F. Sokal, widow of the former Minister of Labour and member of the Governing Body, was appointed Warsaw Correspondent in place of Mr. A. Rose (resigned). Mr. F. Wlcek, Chief of Division in the Austrian Ministry of Social Administration, was appointed Vienna Correspondent in place of the late Mr. F. Hawelka. Mr. K. Strimaitis, economist, and Mr. Gustavson, Vice-President of the Estonian Federation of Trade Unions—both of them collaborators of Mr. Seržans, Correspondent for the Baltic States at Riga—were appointed Correspondents at Kaunas and Tallinn respectively.

The number of States still outside the Organisation is thus very small. The participation of Egypt may confidently be expected in view of the sentiments it has displayed with regard to the Organisation, its friendly and unbroken relations with the Office, and the faithful attendance of Egyptian observers at the Conference for several years past. It may be added that Egypt is continuing to carry out the programme of social legislation which was drawn up after consultation with the Office.

* * *

The accession of new Members was not the only cause of satisfaction for the Organisation in 1934. Although no great improve-

[1] See Appendix (II) for a complete list of permanent delegations accredited to the Office.

ment took place in the economic situation as a whole, there was a further advance in the number of ratifications, which reached 58, bringing the total number of ratifications to 636 on 31 December 1934. The contribution of Latin America was characteristic: 44 ratifications, 30 of them from Nicaragua. In addition, it is important to record that Brazil with four, and Mexico with nine ratifications are included in the total for the first time.

It should be added that a striking departure has been taken by the Canadian Government on the initiative of the Prime Minister in laying before the Federal Parliament resolutions in favour of the ratification of five Conventions—Hours of Work (Industry), Weekly Rest (Industry), Seamen's Articles of Agreement, Marking of Weight (Packages Transported by Vessels) and Protection against Accidents (Dockers) (Revised). Three of these Conventions are stated to be already covered by legislation, and Bills have been introduced to give effect to the Hours of Work and Weekly Rest (Industry) Conventions. The resolutions gave rise to an important debate on the constitutional issue, concluding by the adoption of the resolutions by both Houses of Parliament. Hitherto, the view has prevailed in Canada that the Federal authorities could or should not legislate in labour matters which fell within the provincial jurisdiction. The change of procedure inaugurated by the Prime Minister and accepted by Parliament opens up the prospect of further Canadian ratifications for the future, having regard to the high social standards prevailing generally in the Dominion.

As might be expected, owing to the large number of previous ratifications, Europe occupies a comparatively modest place. Nevertheless, one or two important ratifications may be noted. The adoption of the Forced Labour Convention by Italy, following that of Great Britain, Japan, the Netherlands and Spain, means that this Convention has now gone far towards fulfilling its purpose. There are some ninety colonial or mandated territories in the world to which the Convention is applicable, and of these about sixty are now subject to its provisions.

Again, the ratification of the Protection against Accidents (Dockers) Convention (Revised) by Great Britain opens the way to progress along this line, since other countries were awaiting the action of the British Government, which initiated the revision of this Convention, before taking steps themselves.

Finally, the ratification by Switzerland of the Weekly Rest (Industry) Convention is the successful culmination of long and persevering efforts made by the Government to overcome the legal and practical difficulties which had previously stood in the way.

* * *

The system that has been evolved, in pursuance of Article 408 of the Treaty of Versailles, for mutual supervision in respect of the

application of the ratified Conventions has continued to yield satisfactory results. In 1934 the Conference was due to receive 522 annual reports from 40 Governments on the application of the various Conventions ratified by them. Of these reports, 436 were received in time to be examined by the Committee of Experts at the end of March, and 17 further reports had been received by the time that the Conference met, whilst in addition two Governments which did not furnish reports in the prescribed form supplied the Conference with written information on the steps taken to apply the Conventions. Only three countries—of relatively minor industrial importance—failed entirely to supply the Conference with a written report under Article 408. The Committee of Experts and the Committee set up by the Conference to examine the annual reports both made a certain number of observations on points in respect of which the information supplied in the reports, or the degree of application revealed by them, seemed incomplete. At the same time they were able to note that the Governments concerned had already taken the required action on a large proportion of similar observations made in previous years.

In January 1934 the Governing Body nominated an additional member of the Committee of Experts, in the person of Mr. Cesar Charlone, ex-Minister of Labour, Uruguay. Apart from Mr. Charlone's evident personal qualifications, this appointment may be regarded as a practical recognition of the numerous ratifications notified by Latin American countries in the last few years. At the same Session, the Governing Body also nominated Mr. Waclaw Makowski, Professor of Penal Law at the University of Warsaw and ex-Minister of Justice, to succeed Mr. de Koschembahr-Lyskowski (resigned).

The *International Labour Conference* held its Eighteenth Session in 1934 (Geneva, 4-23 June). Forty-nine States sent delegations, numbering 142 delegates and 205 advisers [1].

Of the delegations which took part in the Eighteenth Session [2], 27 were complete in accordance with the provisions of Aritcle 3 of the Constitution (Article 389 of the Treaty of Versailles), i.e. they comprised, in addition to two Government delegates, one Employers' delegate and one Workers' delegate (in 1933 there were 33 complete delegations out of 49, and in 1932, 30 complete delegations out of 49); the delegations included 15 women as delegates or advisers [3].

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[1] These figures, totalling 347, also include substitute delegates.

[2] To these should be added the representatives of two States not Members of the Organisation who attended the Conference as observers (Egypt and the United States of America). The composition of the delegation from the United States of America corresponded with the tripartite composition of the Conference.

[3] See Appendix (V) for the usual table showing the number and composition of delegations in successive years.

The following subjects appeared on the Agenda of the Eighteenth Session [1]:

(1) Reduction of hours of work.
(2) Unemployment insurance and various forms of relief for the unemployed.
(3) Methods of providing rest and alternation of shifts in automatic sheet-glass works.
(4) Maintenance of acquired rights and rights in course of acquisition under invalidity, old-age, and widows' and orphans' insurance on behalf of workers who transfer their residence from one country to another.
(5) Partial revision of the Convention concerning workmen's compensation for occupational diseases.
(6) Employment of women on underground work in mines of all kinds.
(7) Partial revision of the Convention concerning the employment of women during the night.

On the first three questions the Conference held a second discussion. In respect of the question of the reduction of hours of work it was unable to arrive at a final decision in the form of two Draft Conventions covering respectively industry and commerce as a whole, but adopted a resolution definitely inviting the Governing Body to place the question again on the Agenda of the Conference at its Nineteenth Session with a view to the adoption of one or more Draft Conventions. The discussion on the second and third questions resulted in the adoption of two Draft Conventions, a Recommendation and several Resolutions.

The fourth and fifth questions came before the Conference for a first discussion with a view to fixing the points on which Governments were to be consulted in preparation for the second stage of the double-discussion procedure at the Nineteenth Session.

The fifth and seventh items, relating to the revision of Draft Conventions already adopted by the Conference, were dealt with by a single discussion, on the basis of draft amendments to the Conventions prepared by the Office.

Other matters before the Conference were: the Report of the Director of the International Labour Office; annual reports on the application of Conventions furnished by Governments in compliance with Article 22 of the Constitution (Article 408 of the Treaty of Peace); certain proposals by the Governing Body relating to the Standing Orders and the procedure of the Conference and its Committees; and a number of resolutions submitted in accordance with the Standing Orders. In addition, a study on " Public Works Policy " was submitted to the Conference by the Office in pursuance of a Resolution adopted by the Seventeenth Session of the Conference. Lastly, the Conference had to elect the members of the Governing Body to hold office for the ensuing three years.[2]

[1] For more detailed information on the work of the Conference on each of the questions on its Agenda, see under the corresponding headings in the separate chapters of this volume. The above is only a bare general summary.

[2] For a detailed account of the work of the Eighteenth Session of the Conference, cf. *International Labour Review*, Sept. 1934, Vol. XXX, No. 3, pp. 277-320.

As stated above, important changes were made in the composition of the *Governing Body* of the International Labour Office in 1934 and the beginning of 1935.

The Governing Body of the Office is constituted in accordance with the provisions of Article 7 of the Constitution of the International Labour Organisation (Article 393 of the Treaty of Peace). Under the original form of this Article, the Governing Body was composed of twenty-four persons: twelve represented the Governments (of these twelve Government representatives, eight were appointed by the States of chief industrial importance), six were elected by the Employers' delegates at the Conference and six by the Workers' delegates.

Already in the early years of the existence of the Organisation, it became apparent that it was desirable to enlarge the composition of the Governing Body in order to enable a greater number of States to take part in its work. This led the Conference, in 1922, to adopt an amendment to Article 7 of the Constitution whereby the number of Government representatives on the Governing Body was increased from twelve to sixteen, and the number of representatives of the Employers' and Workers' groups from six to eight each. The amendment also provided that six of the sixteen seats in the Government Group and two of the eight seats in each of the non-Government groups were to be allotted to the representatives of extra-European States.

This amendment came into force on 4 June 1934, when the last ratification required had been registered, that is to say, on the eve of the reconstitution of the Governing Body at the Conference, since the term of office of the Governing Body, elected in 1931, expired in 1934. At the Eighteenth Session of the Conference, the election of the members of the Governing Body thus took place on the basis of the amended text of Article 7 of the Constitution. As a result of that election, the Governing Body was composed as follows:

Government Group:

Governments of the eight States of chief industrial importance:

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

Governments of the eight States elected by the Government delegates at the Conference, excluding the delegates of the Members mentioned above:

Spain, China, Poland, Finland, Argentine Republic, Czechoslovakia, Brazil, Mexico.

The Governments with seats on the Governing Body appointed the following persons to represent them:

Belgium: Mr. E. Mahaim. — *Canada:* Mr. W. A. Riddell. — *France:* Mr. C. Picquenard. — *Germany:* Mr. J. Krohn. — *Great Britain:* Mr. F. W. Leggett. — *India:* Sir Bhupendra Nath Mitra. — *Italy:* Mr. G. de Michelis. — *Japan:* Mr. S. Yoshisaka. — *Spain:* Mr. Ruiz Manent. — *China:* Mr. Li Ping-Heng. — *Poland:* Mr. St. Jurkiewicz. — *Finland:*

Mr. N. Mannio. — *Argentine:* Mr. E. Ruiz Guiñazú. — *Czechoslovakia:* Mr. L. Winter. — *Brazil:* Mr. A. Bandeiro de Mello. — *Mexico:* Mr. P. de Alba [1].

In accordance with Paragraph 1 of Article 3 of the Standing Orders of the Governing Body, a certain number of Governments have appointed for their regular member a deputy member of a different nationality.

These deputy members are:

Denmark: Mr. C. V. Bramsnaes (deputy for the Spanish representative). — *Estonia:* Mr. J. Sonin (deputy for the Polish representative). — *Luxemburg:* Mr. A. Kayser (deputy for the Belgian representative). — *Norway:* Mr. G. Störvold (deputy for the Finnish representative). — *Yugoslavia:* Mr. D. Yeremitch (deputy for the Czechoslovak representative).

Employers' Group:

Regular members:

Mr. Gemmill (South Africa). — Mr. Olivetti (Italy). — Mr. Lambert-Ribot (France). — Mr. Forbes-Watson (Great Britain). — Mr. Oersted (Denmark). — Mr. Erulkar (India). — Mr. Tzaut (Switzerland). — Mr. Ćurčin (Yugoslavia).

Deputy members.

Under Paragraph 2 of Article 3 of the Standing Orders of the Governing Body, amended as a result of the coming into force of the amendment to Article 7 of the Constitution, eight deputy members' seats are allotted to the employers' and workers' groups of the Governing Body respectively.

The Employers' Group decided to provide for the appointment of ten deputy members, but only nominated nine provisionally, on the understanding that not more than eight of the deputy members appointed would ever sit at the same time. In order to provide for a larger representation of the extra-European countries, the Group appointed two regular members and one deputy member from those countries. For the period 1934-1935, it appointed Mr. Gemmill and Mr. Erulkar as regular members and Mr. Asano as deputy member. The other deputy members' seats will be occupied by seven of the following persons:

Mr. Camuzzi (Austria). — Mr. Cort van der Linden [2] (Netherlands). — Mr. Gérard (Belgium). — Mr. Junoy Rabat (Spain). — Mr. Knob (Hungary). — Mr. Mircea (Rumania). — Mr. Szydlowski (Poland). — Mr. Vaněk (Czechoslovakia).

Workers' Group:

Regular members:

Mr. Caballero (Spain). — Mr. Hayday (Great Britain). — Mr. Johanson (Sweden). — Mr. Joshi (India). — Mr. Jouhaux (France). — Mr. Mertens (Belgium). — Mr. Moore (Canada). — Mr. Yonekubo (Japan).

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[1] Subsequently replaced by Mr. Tello.

[2] Mr. Cort van der Linden, who resigned, was subsequently replaced by Mr. Molenaar.

Deputy members.

The Workers' group nominated the following deputy members:

Mr. Crofts (Australia). — Mr. Jensen (Denmark). — Mr. Kupers (Netherlands). — Mr. Negri (Argentina). — Mr. Němeček (Czechoslovakia). — Mr. Schürch (Switzerland). — Mr. Serrarens (Netherlands). — Mr. Zulawski (Poland).

Since the reconstitution of the membership of the Governing Body at the Eighteenth Session of the Conference, the composition of the Government Group has undergone important changes. As a result of the entry into the International Labour Organisation of two States [1] which were unquestionably States of chief industrial importance, the United States of America and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, the Governing Body considered that it was necessary to revise the list of the eight States of chief industrial importance.

On the basis of a report submitted to it by its officers on this question, the Governing Body decided at its Sixty-ninth Session (29 January-2 February 1935) that the eight States of chief industrial importance were (in the alphabetical order of the names in French) Germany, United States of America, France, Great Britain, India, Italy, Japan, Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, and that consequently it was the representatives of the Governments of those States who would sit on the Governing Body from the beginning of the Seventieth Session (April 1935) as representatives of the eight Members of chief industrial importance.

Furthermore, considering that it was just and expedient to enable the States which would no longer figure on that list and which had hitherto sat on the Governing Body to be associated with its work until the next elections, the Governing Body decided to apply to them by analogy Article 3 of the Standing Orders of the Governing Body, and to regard them as Government deputy members.

At the same Session the Workers' Group took the necessary steps to give a seat to Mr. William Green, President of the American Federation of Labour, and the Employers' Group took the necessary steps for the admission of a representative of United States employers.

During the year, the Governing Body had to mourn the death of Mr. Enrico Marchesi, who for many years had participated in the work of the Governing Body and its Committees, as substitute for Mr. Olivetti. The members of the Governing Body deeply regretted the loss of a colleague whose courtesy, judgment and humanitarian qualities were appreciated by all. In him, the Organisation has lost one of its oldest and most faithful friends.

In accordance with its Standing Orders, the Governing Body, at its Sixty-eighth Session (October 1934), re-elected its Officers. In the place of the outgoing Chairman, Mr. C. V. Bramsnaes, the

[1] See above, p. 1.

Governing Body elected Mr. G. de Michelis, Italian Government representative. It also elected as Government Vice-chairman Mr. Riddell, Canadian Government representative, and as Employers' and Workers' Vice-Chairmen Mr. Oersted (Denmark) and Mr. Mertens (Belgium) respectively.

In 1934, the Governing Body held the following Sessions: the Sixty-fifth Session from 22 to 24 January; the Sixty-sixth Session from 26 to 28 April; the Sixty-seventh Session on 1 and 11 June; the Sixty-eighth Session from 26 to 28 September. All the Sessions were held in Geneva.

* * *

During 1934, the Governing Body set up a new *Committee* to consider the possible continuation by the Office of the work of the International Management Institute.

At its Autumn Session in 1934, that is to say at the first meeting which it held after its composition had been renewed at the Conference, the Governing Body reconstituted its various Committees [1].

Relations

Workers' Organisations [2]

Owing to changes of regime in certain countries, the structure of the trade union movement underwent a fundamental change in 1934. This was so in Austria, Latvia and Lithuania, where the former national federations of trade unions were disbanded, their place being taken by workers' organisations formed under Government supervision [3]. In consequence, the organic relations of the trade union movement in these countries with international workers' organisations has been severed.

International Federation of Trade Unions

Despite the losses of membership sustained in recent years as a result of political events in certain European countries, the Federation has maintained its foremost position in the international

[1] See Appendix (VI) for the full list of the Committees of the Organisation as at present constituted, and of the representatives of the Governing Body on various outside bodies. As indicated in previous editions of the *I.L.O. Year-Book*, the full list is only published every three years, after the reconstitution of the Governing Body; the two editions of the *Year-Book* which appear in the interval between the elections of the Governing Body merely give the changes made during the year in the composition of the Committees.

[2] Full particulars of trade union membership will be found in the Appendix (VII).

[3] See Chapter VII: " The Workers' General Rights " for an account of recent developments in the above-mentioned countries and in Germany.

sphere. A significant addition to its ranks in 1934 was the entry of the National Trade Union Federation of British India.

At the General Council meeting held at Weymouth in August 1934, satisfaction was expressed with the entry of the United States into the International Labour Organisation and the hope was voiced that this relationship would be extended by participation of the American Federation of Labour in the work of the International Federation of Trade Unions. A response to this gesture was made at the Convention of the American Federation of Labour held in San Francisco in October 1934, when the Executive Council was requested to report to the Convention in 1935 on the possibility of affiliation to the International Federation of Trade Unions.

Largely as a direct consequence of political developments within the labour movement of France, attention was again given to the question of united action with Communist elements. The General Council of the International Federation at its meeting in Weymouth declared, however, that the overtures of the Communists for a united front and for unity of action could not be seriously considered, and reiterated its well-known standpoint that the Red International of Labour Unions at Moscow must bear the responsibility for the division and weakening of the trade union movement.

Once again the question of the relationship of the International Federation to the *Norwegian* Confederation of Trade Unions came to the fore. As was recorded in the *Year-Book* for 1931 [1], this organisation for many years has hesitated to seek re-affiliation with the International Federation of Trade Unions, largely owing to a desire for "trade union unity", that is, for the consolidation of the trade union forces represented by the International Federation of Trade Unions and the Red International of Labour Unions respectively. An invitation was addressed by the Norwegian Confederation to the International Federation of Trade Unions to be represented at the Norwegian Trade Union Congress held in November 1934, and was accepted. The Congress decided, however, to maintain the *status quo* and not to join the International Federation pending the result of a referendum of its members to be held early in 1935. It should be added that the Congress rejected a motion to invite the attendance of a representative of the Red International of Labour Unions.

Among the outstanding activities of affiliated national federations, mention should be made of the continued efforts to secure the introduction of the forty-hour working week. Whilst deploring the absence of an international Convention concerning shorter working hours, the Federation continued to press its demand for international measures. Attention was also given to the acute problem of unemployment among young persons.

The question of the united front was once again discussed in *France*. Lengthy negotiations between the General Confederation

[1] Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1931*, pp. 46-47.

of Labour and the "Unitarian" Communist Confederation of Labour with regard to the establishment of a reunited trade union movement in France took place, but the General Confederation of Labour maintained its point of view that trade union unity could be realised only by the complete reconstitution of the former Confederation of Labour (the General Confederation of Labour which existed before the scission in 1921), and provided that the affiliation to the International Federation of Trade Unions was not called into question.

It is hardly possible here to give an account of the vicissitudes through which the *Spanish* trade union movement has recently passed. One outcome of the upheaval in that country has been the formation of a national labour front, which has endeavoured to embrace anti-Marxist elements. The General Federation of Workers which had always been recognised as the most representative workers' organisation in Spain and had remained affiliated to the International Federation of Trade Unions since its resuscitation in 1919, has discontinued, at any rate for the time being, its functions as a federation of trade unions, and certain of its leaders have been imprisoned. Its affiliated unions, however, have resumed their activities, although admittedly under precarious conditions.

As regards extra-European organisations affiliated to the International Federation, it may be mentioned that the Convention of the Trades and Labour Congress of *Canada* impressed upon the Canadian Government the desirability, when framing legislation to regulate industry, of providing for the co-operation and consultation of *bona-fide* trade unions. In the opinion of the Convention, it was only by the full recognition of trade union agreements that established industrial conditions could be maintained. Any legislation which ignored the fundamental principle of collective agreements would be vigorously opposed by organised labour.

The National Trade Union Federation of *British India*, which, as stated above, became affiliated to the International Federation of Trade Unions in the latter part of 1934, again voiced the desire for the convocation of a tripartite Asiatic labour conference, and expressed its deep regret that it had not yet been found possible for the International Labour Organisation to hold such a conference under its auspices (as was envisaged by the International Labour Conference in 1931).

The Federation took an active part in the Asiatic Workers' Conference which was held in Colombo in May 1934 (see below, under "Trade Unionism in Extra-European Countries").

* * *

International Workers' Federations of Crafts and Industries. — The efforts made during the past few years to secure the organic incorporation of the International Workers' Federations of Crafts and Industries (International Trade Secretariats) within the

International Federation of Trade Unions have not led to definite results. Close and friendly collaboration of these Federations, however, continues to be maintained.

The movement towards the amalgamation of kindred and allied federations is becoming stronger, as evidenced by the amalgamation in 1934 of the International Union of Wood Workers and the International Federation of Building Operatives under the title of the International Federation of Building and Wood Workers.

Congresses of the International Federation of Clothing Workers, the International Union of Federations of Workers in the Food and Drink Trades, the International Federation of Hatters, the International Metal Workers' Federation, the Miners' International Federation, the International Painters' Federation, the International Federation of Pottery Workers, and the International Federation of Textile Workers' Associations, were held during 1934, at which mainly internal questions were discussed.

The Congress of the *International Miners' Federation* (Lille, August 1934) decided to continue to press for the ratification of the Convention adopted by the Conference in 1931 dealing with hours of work in coal-mines " as a first step towards an international, uniform and controlled working day in mines ". It emphasised, however, that its object was the introduction of a working day of six hours, including winding time, for all mine workers.

The Congress also expressed " great disappointment at the failure of those charged with the conduct of the coal-mining industry in the different countries to make any material progress towards an international agreement on output, prices and markets ". It urged the League of Nations to continue its study of this problem, and to formulate at an early date definite proposals for a comprehensive economic agreement between the coal-producing countries of Europe.

The co-operation of the International Labour Office was requested with a view to securing uniform regulations throughout the mining industry to deal with occupational diseases among miners. The Congress desired that steps should be taken to combat silicosis, nystagmus, cancer caused by pitch and similar substances, ankylosis, ankylostomiasis, and rheumatism.

The *International Textile Workers' Congress* (Lucerne, May 1934), expressed regret that the enquiry into textile workers' conditions, which had been recommended by the International Labour Conference in 1928, had not yet been carried out. The affiliated organisations of the International Federation of Textile Workers' Associations were called upon to make representations to the Governments concerned in order to ensure their co-operation in carrying out this enquiry. The Congress was of the opinion that the enquiry was particularly necessary, and declared its willingness to co-operate in ensuring its success.

The Congress also invited the International Labour Office to conduct an enquiry into the shift system in the textile industry. It called attention to the harmful effects of shift working, and

the Congress hoped that, as a result of such an enquiry, an international Convention might be drafted for the abolition of the system.

Christian Trade Unions

During 1934 the Christian trade union movement fortified its internal organisation, and, especially in view of events in Austria, consolidated its philosophical outlook. After the withdrawal of the Christian trade unions of Germany from the International Federation of Christian Trade Unions and the various international Christian federations of crafts and industries, a step which became definite after the total dissolution of the Christian trade unions in Germany in June 1933, the year 1934 began with the menace of a new breakaway from the International Federation, that of the National Federation of Christian Trade Unions in *Austria*. Although at first the Austrian Christian unions did not entirely disappear, by the end of 1934 the winding up of these organisations had become a *fait accompli*.

The free or Social Democratic trade unions of Austria were in fact dissolved by the Government in February 1934. The Christian trade unions, on the other hand, were allowed to continue their separate existence until 30 June 1934; it was only after that date that the Christian organisations of workers and salaried employees in private industry were amalgamated with the new Confederation of Austrian Workers and Salaried Employees, which had been formed under official auspices as the sole organisation of the kind. The organisations of civil servants, of salaried employees, and of workers employed in public services remained autonomous and were allowed to continue to belong to the Christian international trade union movement, either through the Central Committee of Christian Trade Unions in Austria or by their affiliation to the international Christian federations of crafts and industries.

Owing to the fact that in many cases the leaders of these separate organisations were called upon to assume important offices in the new Official Confederation of Austrian Workers and Salaried Employees, a certain confusion arose in the relations between the Austrian Christian unions and the International Federation of Christian Trade Unions. The Executive Committee of the latter body decided accordingly to enquire into the situation on the spot, and the resulting report was submitted to a special international Congress which was held on 1 and 2 June 1934 at Montreux.

After a discussion in which representatives of the Christian trade union movement in Austria took part, a resolution to the following effect was unanimously adopted:

After considering the question of freedom of association from the Christian point of view, the Congress declared that the right of the workers to organise in trade unions for the defence of their occupational, cultural and social interests must be fully maintained; that the occupational association was an institution based on " natural rights " and resulting from the free will of the workers; that its practical value had been shown in the improvement of

conditions of work through collective agreements, the institution and development of social legislation, the organisation of provident systems and mutual aid, the vocational training of apprentices and the education of the working class; that trade unionism was based on a particular conception of the human being in his individual, family, economic and social aspects, and that for Christian trade unionism this conception was prescribed by the doctrine of Christianity itself. The resolution further declared that the Christian trade union movement acknowledged the solidarity of all factors in production and the consequent necessity of co-operation, and that it accordingly rejected the class war; that the movement also recognised national solidarity and the legitimate measures of discipline resulting therefrom; that it desired to bring about economic and occupational organisation under the corporative system, but with full respect for individual freedom and legitimate rights; that it was consequently opposed to any system of socialisation; that it would defend the principle of democracy and oppose any dictatorship, whether of the proletariat or of a Fascist or National-Socialist character, and that it would resist any attempt at State control of the trade union movement.

For these reasons the Congress demanded freedom for the workers to organise according to their convictions, including the right of Christian workers to establish Christian trade unions in order to bring about, in accordance with their principles, a reform of social and economic life in a Christian spirit. The Congress rejected the claims of any trade union movement which sought a monopoly of the representation of the workers, and proposed to combat the system of exclusion applied to the Christian trade union movement within the International Labour Organisation.

On the basis of the pledges given in Part XIII of the Treaty of Versailles, the Congress required all States to recognise and defend the freedom of association of any trade union body which sought to achieve its ideal and to put its principles into effect by legitimate democratic means. In this connection the Congress considered it necessary that the International Labour Organisation should lay down general rules in regard to trade union legislation.

As to the new organisation of the economic system, the Congress confirmed the principles laid down in its 1922 programme. The trade union movement, it declared, must not only prepare the way for such new organisation, but must itself form an element thereof. In the new economic system the trade union movement would have an important task to fulfil in connection, among other matters, with the appointment of workers' representatives in the economic groups and the supervision and criticism of their activities.

Finally, the resolution called upon all Christian workers to engage in vigorous defence of freedom of association as defined in the resolution, and to strengthen the Christian trade union movement for this purpose.

The resolution, which defined completely the attitude of the Christian trade union movement, supplemented a decision taken by the Executive Committee of the International Federation at its meeting at Basle on 24 February 1934, when the Committee stated:

1. That the right of association should be respected and guaranteed, providing its exercise prejudices neither public order nor property;

2. That a normal view of the rights of property bars the seizure, by any agency, of funds accumulated for legitimate purposes by trade union organisations as a result of the economies and contributions of their members, and obliges any persons to whom such funds may be handed over to regard them as a trust, to administer them as trustees and to keep them at the disposal of their legal owners.

Although this resolution was adopted in view of events in Austria, it was stated in general terms covering a wider field. The practical effect of these decisions is primarily that the Confederation of Austrian Workers and Salaried Employees, despite certain provisions

of its constitution which might be held to give it the character of a trade union organisation of Christian orientation, is not considered by the International Federation of Christian Trade Unions as an organisation eligible for admission to its ranks. Although an official application for affiliation had not been submitted on the part of the Austrian organisation, the Congress at Montreux thought it necessary to make a clear pronouncement on this point.

With regard to those Christian organisations in Austria which are not a part of the new Confederation, namely the organisation of public servants, it will suffice to quote a declaration made by the General Secretary of the International Federation, Mr. Serrarens, during the discussion on this question at the Montreux Congress:

> . . . The fact that there still exist Christian trade unions which have not yet been absorbed by the State does not modify in any way the affirmation that the Christian trade union movement as such is to be dissolved.
>
> If in reality a group of certain trade unions continues to exist, it is evident that consideration might be given, either by the Central Committee or otherwise, to the question of how far such unions might form part of the International Federation of Christian Trade Unions. Needless to say, the Christian trade union movement would be very glad to see the number of such trade unions as high as possible.

On 1 December 1934, the Act setting up the Austrian National Corporation of Public Servants came into force, which deprived the Christian trade unions still existing of the major part of their functions. Although the International Federation of Christian Trade Unions has not yet been able to define its attitude in view of this new situation, the International Federation of Christian Workers in Public Services at its meeting held at Vienna on 19 and 20 November 1934 formulated its point of view as follows:

> After having carefully examined the report of the Austrian organisation, the Conference is of the opinion that the law regarding the constitution of a Corporation of Public Servants, which will come into force on 1 December, entails a regrettable limitation of the scope of the Austrian organisation, without however affecting relations between that organisation and the Christian International Federation.

It is probable that there will be a further discussion of this situation by the International Federation.

As regards the relations of the Christian trade union movement with the International Labour Organisation, the year 1934 witnessed the realisation of a desire dating back to the inception of the Organisation, namely, the representation of the Christian trade union movement on the Governing Body of the International Labour Office. When the elections of the Governing Body took place during the Eighteenth Session of the Conference, the General Secretary of the International Federation of Christian Trade Unions, Mr. Serrarens (Netherlands) was elected by the Workers' group as deputy member of the Governing Body. This will promote even more frequent contact and closer collaboration than in the past between the International Labour Office and the International Federation—a collaboration which the Christian trade unions have

always declared themselves prepared to foster, as was confirmed at the Montreux Congress.

The International Federation of Christian Trade Unions has in fact consistently endeavoured to support the work of the Conference at every Session. A large part of the proceedings of the Montreux Congress was devoted to problems figuring on the Agenda of the Eighteenth Session of the International Labour Conference.

Towards the end of the year the Federation decided to organise a mass petition of young unemployed workers in all countries in view of the forthcoming discussion of the problem of unemployment among young workers at the Nineteenth Session of the Conference in 1935.

Trade Unions in the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics

A further reorganisation of the trade unions in the Soviet Union took place in 1934. By a decision of the Communist Party, and with the approval of a plenary session of the General Council of Trade Unions (Moscow, 6-8 September), the 47 existing trade union federations were split up into 154 smaller organisations, a number which had been increased to 163 by the end of 1934. The subdivision was effected by breaking up the federations for certain industries hitherto covered by only one organisation (mechanical engineering, textile industry, mining, teaching, etc.), and in particular by a regional reclassification of certain occupations (railwaymen, building operatives, teachers, public health workers, agricultural workers in State undertakings, coal miners, metal workers, workers engaged in oil production, commercial employees, etc.).

The ground given for the reorganisation was the necessity for effecting closer contact between the trade unions and the workers and industries affected in order that greater attention might be given to the needs of production and of the wage earners. On the other hand, the reorganisation gives greater flexibility to the unions from an administrative standpoint, and serves to check the passive resistance of certain members to Government policy. According to the General Secretary of the General Council of Trade Unions, the subdivision of the trade unions, the reorganisation of their work, the closer contact between them and the needs of production, and the better utilisation of the unions in every industry and occupation were intended to increase still further their importance both as schools of Communism and as the link between the Communist Party and the masses.

On 1 April 1934, the Soviet trade unions had a membership of 18,218,000, or 78 per cent. of the total number of wage earners (including seasonal workers).

Fascist Trade Unions

As was foreshadowed in the last edition of the *Year-Book*[1] the Italian trade unions were reorganised in 1934. This became

[1] Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1933*, pp. 18-19.

necessary as a result of the promulgation of the Corporations Act of 5 February 1934, setting up corporations for the main branches of production, which provides in section 7 that the associations grouped in a corporation shall become self-governing in matters regarding the association.

The reorganisation was carried out by a number of Decrees dated 16 August. Its object was to simplify the system by reducing the number of confederations from thirteen to nine (those for inland communications, shipping and air transport being attached to the confederations of industrial employers and industrial workers); the number of federations for the main branches of production was similarly reduced. These federations are now the main feature of the system, since they can conclude collective agreements without obtaining the previous authorisation or subsequent ratification of the confederations, and the direct representatives sit in the corporations. The confederations still exist; their function is that of co-ordination and their importance is mainly political. Under the new rules, the leaders of the federations are elected by the meetings of the trade associations, and only the presidents of the confederations are still nominated by the Government.

Another important change is that legal recognition is in general to be confined to the confederations and national federations, the main object being to facilitate the working of the local trade associations, which were sometimes hampered by the formalities and responsibilities resulting from their incorporation. The number of legally recognised trade associations accordingly fell from 1,805 to 1,209, a reduction that appears much more considerable if no account is taken of the 1,052 associations affiliated to the Confederation for the Liberal and Artistic Professions, the number of which has not changed.

Trade Unionism in Extra-European Countries

At the outset, it should be placed on record that, with the entry of the *United States of America* into the International Labour Organisation, the relations of the American Federation of Labour with the International Labour Office have become very close and cordial. Proof of this is to be seen in the public invitation extended to the Director of the Office at the Eighteenth Session of the Conference to attend the Fifty-fourth Convention of the American Federation of Labour, held at San Francisco in October 1934, and the hearty reception accorded to him on this occasion.

Proof also of the growing tendency of the American trade union movement to co-operate with workers' organisations in Europe is to be found in the presence and welcome extended to the President of the International Federation of Trade Unions at the same Convention, and in the decision of that assembly to reopen consideration of the question of the affiliation of the American Federation of Labour to the International Federation of Trade Unions.

The holding of this Convention afforded a possibility of judging

the extent of the advance made by trade unionism in the United States since the passing of the National Industrial Recovery Act. In addition to a noteworthy increase in membership, the American Federation of Labour was able to point to progress in the sphere of collective bargaining and in the determination of working conditions under the codes of fair competition which have been framed under the auspices of the National Recovery Administration.

The Federation continued its efforts for the introduction of the five-day working week, and claimed that the number of its members working under this regime had increased 100 per cent. during the year. With regard to wages, the trade union movement in the United States supports the policy of increasing minimum wages, eliminating groups of workers now below the minimum rates, and protecting wages of higher paid groups of employees.

The American Federation of Labour gave careful consideration to the problem of reorganising the National Recovery Administration, and recommended that:

1. The N.R.A. should be reorganised from the point of view of a longer period than to 16 June 1935. It becomes increasingly evident that some action will be necessary for perhaps a long time to come. Policies should therefore be considered from a long-time rather than a purely emergency point of view.

2. Codes should be reopened for such changes as will bring about the original purpose of the Act—re-employment and increased wages.

3. Codes should be reopened upon petition by labour as well as upon the initiative of industry or the Administration.

4. Compliance machinery should be divorced more completely from the N.R.A. administration. An independent compliance board, answerable directly to the President, would be better able to assure unbiased and prompt action.

5. Every resource of the Government should be used for the enforcement of the Code provisions and the decisions of the labour relations boards.

6. Collective bargaining between *bona-fide* trade unions and employers must be assured through enforcement of section 7 (*a*) and the destruction of company unions.

7. Adequate information, reporting and planning agencies must be created by the Government.

8. Labour must be made an active partner in the supposed partnership of Government, industry and labour.

9. Service industries should be included under codes. The distinction between intra-State and inter-State commerce is not a legitimate basis for the extension of protection to some workers and the denial of protection to others.

10. The entire agricultural labour population has so far been left without protection in regard to wages, hours, organisation, or in dealing with employers. Some extension of the National Recovery Act to the field of agricultural labour should be made, either through a broadening of the Act now in existence or a supplementary Act pertaining to agricultural labour.

It was realised that in many of the industries employing thousands of workers new conditions obtained and that trade union organisation on industrial lines as distinct from craft unionism had become essential. To meet this new situation the Executive Council of the American Federation of Labour was directed to issue charters for national or international unions in the " automotive, cement,

aluminium, and other such mass-production and miscellaneous industries " as in the judgment of the Executive Council may be necessary.

The *South African Trades and Labour Council* sought to obtain amendments to existing workmen's compensation legislation. The Council continued to oppose the elimination of the principle of a State fund to guarantee compensation payments.

The affiliated organisations were also asked to co-operate in the effort to secure the immediate introduction of the forty-hour working week, and in the work for its subsequent reduction to thirty hours without wage deductions.

Both the Council and the Cape Federation of Labour Unions tried to secure amendments to the Wage and Industrial Conciliation Acts.

The *Australasian Council of Trade Unions* had under review the question of repudiating compulsory arbitration and withdrawing the trade unions from participation in the work of the Australian industrial arbitration courts. Although opinion was divided as to the advantages of compulsory arbitration, the policy of repudiation was not accepted by the majority of Australian workers' organisations.

Action is to be taken by the Australasian Council to secure the recovery of the 10 per cent. wage cut which was imposed by the Australian courts in 1931.

The *Japanese Trade Union Congress* gave consideration to the problem of dumping, and defined its attitude in a statement pointing out that the depreciation of the national currency, low wages and long working hours in Japan were the chief factors responsible for complaints on the subject of Japanese goods in foreign countries. In the opinion of the Congress, currency depreciation had been of little benefit to Japan, which imports large quantities of raw materials from abroad. Hours and wages, on the other hand, were not the only factor which had contributed to the low cost of production: rationalisation of industry, progress in the technique of production, and good workmanship had also played a part.

It was also pointed out that the existence of inferior labour conditions in Japan as compared with European and American countries constituted one of the most important reasons for the rapid development of Japanese trade.

The inaugural meeting of the *Asiatic Labour Congress* was held at Colombo (Ceylon) in May 1934, and was attended by representatives of trade union organisations in Japan, Ceylon and India. The Constitution adopted by the Congress defined the aims of the new organisation as follows:

1. To bring about unity among the working classes of Asia by developing closer relations between the trade unions in the affiliated countries;
2. To promote the interests and activities of the trade union movement in Asia, national and international;
3. To carry on activities of general interest to the trade unions in Asia;

4. To remove the disabilities of a discriminatory character imposed upon Asiatic workers and bring about equality of treatment in working conditions, irrespective of race, nationality or colour;
5. To remove the exploitation of workers in Asiatic countries under foreign domination;
6. To improve the conditions of life and work of the workers in Asiatic countries so as to remove the existing disparities and bring them on a level with those obtaining in countries where social legislation is sufficiently advanced;
7. To promote the development of international social legislation.

In a resolution, the International Labour Organisation was requested to take steps to secure the direct representation of the colonies and dependencies of States Members at the Sessions of the International Labour Conference. Another resolution requested the Organisation to take such steps as would make it obligatory on States Members to apply the Conventions ratified by them to their colonies and dependencies. The International Labour Office was urged to take measures to expedite the holding of a Tripartite Asiatic Labour Conference. The Congress further demanded the allocation of at least two seats in the Workers' group of the Governing Body of the International Labour Office to representatives of Asiatic countries.

The Congress also assured the International Federation of Trade Unions of full co-operation in all matters of common interest.

Employers' Organisations

International Organisations

The *International Organisation of Industrial Employers* held its usual meeting in 1934. The annual meeting of the General Council took place at Geneva immediately prior to the International Labour Conference. In accordance with the rules of the Organisation, the General Council considered all those aspects of the work of the International Labour Organisation affecting employers' associations.

The *International Cotton Committee* held meetings in London and Berlin in May and October 1934 respectively. The matters discussed at these meetings included the question of Japanese competition, the measures of price control adopted in various countries, and the effects of the price of silver on the world cotton industry.

The *Fourth International Congress of Master Printers* was held on 25 and 26 October 1934 at Utrecht. Among the items on the agenda of this Congress were the questions of vocational training for printing workers and the international exchange of apprentices.

The Tenth *International Wool Conference* (Rome, 19 and 20 June 1934), convened by the International Wool Textile Organisation,

appointed a sub-committee to investigate the competition of the Asiatic countries and recorded its determination to protect the standard of living of workers in the wool textile industry, which is one of the basic factors in western civilisation. This question was also considered in detail at a session of the Managing Committee of the International Wool Textile Organisation held in Paris on 23 and 24 October 1934.

The *International Silk Federation*, at its Congress at Lyons on 1 June 1934, also dealt with the question of Asiatic competition and adopted a resolution declaring that the deterioration of economic conditions calls for closer solidarity between the countries in which conditions of employment are substantially the same.

No session of the *International Conference of Catholic Employers' Associations* was held during 1934. As regards the activities of its affiliated associations, the French Confederation of Professions, at its General Meeting held in Paris on 21 June 1934, adopted new rules widening the scope of its activities and giving it further means of action. The Belgian National Federation of Catholic Employers' Associations, which covers two associations having their headquarters at Antwerp and Brussels respectively, organised " social days " for Catholic employers in Brussels on 14 and 15 April 1934, at which the main questions of current interest to Catholic employers were discussed.

National Organisations

Australia. — The Annual Conference of the *Central Council of Employers of Australia* (Sydney, 14-15 November 1934), recorded its opposition to any statutory reduction in hours of work liable to increase costs of production and called for a restriction of the powers of the Commonwealth Arbitration Court.

Austria. — In accordance with the provisions of the Austrian Constitution of 1 May 1934 concerning the new corporative order, the Act of 17 October 1934 set up an *Austrian Manufacturers' Federation* to take the place of the old Federation of Austrian Industries, though with somewhat wider scope. The rules of this new body were approved by a Decree of the Minister of Commerce issued on 31 December 1934, their main provisions being as follows: the Federation is a public body; it is subdivided into regional and occupational groups; employers are free not to join it; the Federation has a monopoly of collective agreements, which are binding on non-members, and it may raise certain contributions from all employers, whether members or not; it may refuse membership to any person who is regarded as a public enemy, and no appeal may be made against such action; lastly, in the spirit of the Act of 17 October 1934, the Federation and groups are required to consult the General Confederation of Austrian Workers and Salaried Employees whenever workers' interests are at stake.

By a Decree of the same date, the Minister of Commerce appointed the officers of the new Federation. They comprise the President of the Federation, in the person of the former President of the Federation of Austrian Industries, the chairmen of the nine provincial groups (one for each State and one for the City of Vienna), the chairmen of the nine occupational groups, and nine other prominent industrial personalities.

Belgium. — At its ordinary General Meeting held in Brussels on 28 February, the *Belgian Central Industrial Committee* emphasised the difficulties of Belgian employers. Although they had hitherto remained faithful to the principle of free trade, they were now being compelled to defend themselves against the increasing protective measures of other States and against the monetary policy of certain countries. The Committee once more deplored the load of taxation which weighed on Belgian industries, called for a fair distribution of its incidence, and protested vigorously against the extravagant expenditure of the provinces and local authorities. It also stressed the efforts of Belgian employers to arrest the growth of unemployment.

Canada. — The *Canadian Manufacturers' Association* held its Sixty-third Annual Meeting at Montreal on 7 and 8 June 1934. The report of the Executive Council stated that the Industrial Relations Committee of the Association had been specially concerned during the past year with unemployment insurance, minimum wage legislation, workmen's compensation, collective bargaining, and old-age pensions. The meeting gave special consideration to the proposed extension of minimum wage legislation to cover male workers, and declared itself opposed to this policy until a careful investigation had been conducted in order to determine the proper limits of such legislation. A special discussion was held on unemployment insurance and the possibility of its organised establishment in Canada.

Czechoslovakia. — At its Sixteenth General Meeting (Prague, 27 June 1934) the *Czechoslovak Employers' Federation* strongly criticised the action taken or contemplated by the Government and tending to increase its interference in the management of undertakings. The Federation pointed out that the employer bore the risks attendant on economic activity and that collective responsibility was a mere delusion. The same opinion was expressed at the Annual Meetings of the *National Federation of Slovak Manufacturers* and the *Federation of German Manufacturers in Czechoslovakia* (Teplice-Sanov, 24 March 1934).

France. — The General Meeting of the *French General Confederation of Production* (Paris, 23 March 1934) considered the steady growth of unemployment and expressed the fear that numbers of workers would become permanently unemployed and be content with the dole as a livelihood, as had happened in other countries. The meeting deplored the fresh examples of State

interference in the management of undertakings in the form of restrictions on overtime and on the admission of skilled foreign labour, considering that both these measures might have the result of causing a number of undertakings to close down and so of increasing unemployment.

As regards the international regulation of labour, the Confederation reaffirmed the opposition of French employers to the proposed Draft Conventions concerning the 40-hour week. Similar declarations were made a few weeks earlier by the *French Association of Metal and Mining Industries* at its annual meeting (Paris, 15 February 1934).

Germany. — The *Corporation of German Industry* was dissolved on 31 December 1934. This organisation was formed in 1933 by the amalgamation of the two principal industrial employers' associations dealing respectively with economic and social matters. Part of its duties will be taken over by the industrial section of the National Economic Chamber, which will also undertake the functions of the provincial and local organisations of the Corporation, some of which are to be abolished.

The decision of November 1933 to dissolve the employers' associations for social policy became operative in 1934.

India. — The *All-India Organisation of Industrial Employers*, formed in 1933 under the auspices of the Federation of Indian Chambers of Commerce and Industry, held its first Annual Meeting in Delhi on 1 April 1934. The chairman, in the course of his opening address, emphasised the importance of the new organisation, particularly in view of Indian participation in the work of the International Labour Organisation, and urged that Indian employers should take greater interest in the Organisation's activities.

The *Employers' Federation of India*, also established in 1933, under the joint auspices of the Bombay Millowners' Association and the Associated Chambers of Commerce of India, held its first annual meeting in Delhi on 7 April 1934. The chairman defined the programme of the Federation's activities, which covers labour legislation and labour conditions, tariffs, taxation, trade agreements and the like. On the question of the proposed provision of a 54-hour week for industrial labour, he advised the members of the Federation to agree to it in order to show the goodwill of the employers towards labour. At the same time, however, he called for the abolition of the unfair advantages enjoyed by the Indian States in the matter of labour legislation as compared with the provinces of British India.

Italy. — A national congress of executive officers of Italian employers' federations and associations belonging to the *Fascist Confederation of Manufacturers* (Rome, 15 October 1934) was convened as a result of the reorganisation necessitated by the coming into force of the Corporations Act. It was attended by

2,500 delegates representing all the interests covered by the Confederation, including 147,000 industrial undertakings employing 2,400,000 workers, 10,500 managers of industrial undertakings, 3,500,000 owners of real property and 700,000 craftsmen. Under the new regulations these undertakings and persons are organised in 2,104 provincial and inter-provincial unions forming 45 national federations.

Japan. — The Fourth General Meeting of the *Japanese National Confederation of Industrial Associations* was held at Osaka on 9 June 1934. The chairman laid special stress on the fact that the industrial system and the relation between employers and employees in Japan differed in many fundamental respects from those in European and American countries, and on the consequent necessity of bearing this circumstance in mind in drafting labour legislation for Japan. He appealed to all concerned in production to co-operate in promoting the sound industrial progress of the country, and to oppose any system emanating from the principle of class war or liable to foster such a principle.

At a meeting of the Executive Committee of the Confederation (Tokyo, 27 September 1934) the Japanese Employers' delegate to the Eighteenth Session of the International Labour Conference submitted a report referring to the friendly spirit shown towards Japan at this Conference, and recommending that Japanese employers should co-operate more actively with the Organisation.

Latvia. — The Government has set up a Chamber of Commerce and Industry to represent all commercial and industrial interests in Latvia. Any other commercial or industrial organisations whose scope encroaches on that of the new Chamber are required to make appropriate amendments in their rules.

Luxemburg. — The chief subject considered by the *Federation of Luxemburg Manufacturers* at its General Meeting (Luxemburg, 29 March 1934) was the economic situation of the country, which had shown little improvement during the past year, although the two countries covered by the Belgo-Luxemburg economic federation were held not to be affected by the depression as seriously as certain others. The Federation emphasised the fact that the increasing tendency towards economic self-sufficiency constitutes a growing danger to the smaller industrial countries with a large export trade.

New Zealand. — The Annual General Meeting of the *New Zealand Employers' Federation* (Wellington, 24 October 1934) supported the launching of a reasonable programme of public works to relieve unemployment. The schemes should be financed by internal loans since there was money available within the country at low interest rates. The system of subsidising industries was regarded, generally speaking, as open to grave fundamental objections, but it was recognised that in certain very special cases subsidies might be expedient if the immediate result would be a large increase in employment, and if the payment of the subsidy were definitely

temporary. The Federation also declared itself against any general increase of wage rates in the present circumstances.

Poland. — The annual report published in 1934 by the *Federation of Polish Industries* deals with employment and analyses the position of the labour market with special reference to the measures taken to combat unemployment. It refers to the attempts made to establish new economic conditions calculated to make possible the absorption of surplus labour, their object being principally to reduce the costs of production and consequently to lower selling prices.

The report notes that the social charges entering into costs of production increased in 1933 as a result of the promulgation of the Social Insurance Act and demanded the amendment of this Act.

Rumania. — The general meeting of the *Rumanian Manufacturers' Association* (Bucharest, 2 June 1934) declared itself opposed to any spread of the idea of economic planning. The Association, it was reported, had co-operated with the Minister of Labour in drafting the Bill for the unification of social insurance, but unfortunately employers in large-scale industry did not obtain the representation which they might fairly claim in the administration of social insurance.

Spain. — The *Spanish Employers' Federation (Estudios sociales y económicos)* intervened with the Government several times during the year with a view to securing amendments in current legislation, particularly in regard to the joint boards and to the restriction of hours of work to forty-four in the week in certain branches of production. The Association also expressed the views of the Spanish employers' organisations on the Unemployment Bill, the proposed corporative reforms, and the proposed drafting of a National Labour Charter for the iron and steel industries.

A new employers' organisation has been set up at Madrid, called the *Catholic Employers' Association.* A manifesto issued by this body states that it does not conflict with existing employers' organisations, to which it has offered its full co-operation in the protection of their common interests. Its immediate aim is to cultivate an employers' point of view in conformity with the doctrines of the Church so that labour relations may be governed by Christian standards.

Switzerland. — The annual meeting of the *Central Federation of Swiss Employers' Associations* (St. Prex, 30 May 1934) adopted a report dealing with all current social problems in Switzerland. One section of this report was devoted to the International Labour Organisation, describing the action taken by Switzerland in regard to the ratification of the Draft Conventions adopted by the Conference.

Union of South Africa. — At its seventeenth annual meeting (Durban, 8 October 1934) the *South African Federated Chamber of Industries* adopted resolutions calling for more vigorous measures

to remedy unemployment and for the formation of separate Ministries for commerce, industry and labour. The meeting also drew the Government's attention to the undesirability of Government trading in competition with existing private enterprise.

United States. — Employers' associations displayed great activity in 1934, their main efforts being directed to promoting economic and social recovery.

The *United States Chamber of Commerce* strengthened its demand for the efficient operation of recovery legislation by taking a referendum vote of its members; its proposals were approved by a very large majority. At a meeting held on 16 November 1934 in Washington its Board of Directors had adopted a resolution pledging the Chamber to co-operate to the fullest extent in an endeavour to reach a common agreement upon a programme of economic and social recovery which would be fair and just to all.

A conference of business men was held at White Sulphur Springs (West Virginia) on 17 December 1934 under the joint auspices of the United States Chamber of Commerce and the National Association of Manufacturers. The conference reviewed the current conditions in trade and industry with a view to the identification of the problems involved in the improvement of business activity. In general, it declared itself opposed to Government interference in social and economic matters, but it nevertheless recommended the adoption of fresh emergency legislation before the expiry of the National Industrial Recovery Act on 16 June 1935, which, while maintaining the broad general principles of the Act, should provide for greater flexibility in their application.

The *National Association of Manufacturers* also pledged itself to co-operate loyally in the application of the National Industrial Recovery Act, while regretting the extent of Government control for which it provides. The Association is opposed to any increase in minimum wage-rates and to any fresh reduction of hours of work until it can be proved that the consequent higher costs of production are not likely to restrict consumption.

At its Congress (New York, 5-6 December 1934) the Association adopted resolutions embodying full and constructive criticism of the present economic and social policy of the Government, and restating and defining more clearly its previous proposals. Among the resolutions adopted was one calling for the appointment by the President of the United States of a board representing agriculture, industry and labour with a neutral chairman representing consumers, for the purpose of co-ordinating Federal, State and private action for the relief of the unemployed.

The *National Industrial Conference Board* has made a survey of the effects of the National Industrial Recovery Act on industrial relations. The majority of the undertakings covered by this survey, employing in all more than 500,000 workers, declared that they had perceived no change in industrial relations since the Act became effective.

Important Private Associations

The *International Association for Social Progress* met at Geneva on 29 and 30 May 1934 and adopted two resolutions concerning the reduction of hours of work and unemployment relief, both of them questions on the Agenda of the Eighteenth Session of the International Labour Conference, which were officially communicated to the President of that Session.

The *International Federation of League of Nations Societies*, at its eighteenth Plenary Congress (Folkestone, 22 May 1934) adopted a number of resolutions which were officially submitted to the President of the Eighteenth Session of the Conference. These resolutions relate to the part which can be played by national League of Nations societies in regard to the application of International Labour Conventions, the importance of obtaining general ratification of the Conventions concerning hours of work in coal mines and the age for admission of children to non-industrial employment, and the need for a renewed effort to secure common agreement between the nations on a programme of economic collaboration similar to that approved in its broad lines by the Folkestone Congress.

As a result of the transference to Geneva of the secretariat of the International Federation, its relations with the International Labour Office have become still closer.

The thirtieth *Inter-Parliamentary Conference* (Istanbul, 24-29 September 1934) devoted much of its discussion to social questions. It adopted a resolution expressing the hope that at its next Session the International Labour Conference would adopt international Conventions containing regulations providing for the reduction of hours of work while preserving the purchasing power and the consuming capacity of workers, both agricultural and industrial. The resolution also requested the national groups to take the necessary steps with their respective Governments in order that the Government delegates to the next International Labour Conference might receive instructions enabling the proposed regulations to be adopted, and insisted upon the necessity and urgency for all Parliaments to bring pressure to bear upon their Governments with a view to strict application of the Conventions ratified by these Governments, and the exercise against States which, having ratified the Conventions, do not apply them or the rights provided for in Articles 409 *et seq.* of Part XIII of the Treaty of Versailles.

The Inter-Parliamentary Conference also noted with the greatest satisfaction that the problem of the unemployment of young persons had been placed on the Agenda of the 1935 Session of the International Labour Conference, and invited the national branches of the Inter-Parliamentary Union to support the efforts of the Organisation in this field.

The twentieth *International Congress on Alcoholism* (London, 30 July-3 August 1934), which was attended by 600 delegates, devoted special consideration to the question of social legislation

and its influence on the consumption of alcoholic drinks. It was decided at this congress to found a World Federation against Alcoholism. The International Bureau against Alcoholism at Lausanne is to act as the secretariat of this new organisation, which has three sections (European, British and American).

The *Liaison Committee of the Major International Associations* has been actively concerned with the problem of juvenile unemployment, in touch with the International Labour Office.

The Churches

The Catholic Church

During the year under review the Catholic social movement continued to base its action on the affirmation of the primacy of the spiritual order. In its severe condemnation of materialistic capitalism in the Encyclicals *Rerum Novarum* (1891) and *Quadragesimo Anno* (1931), the Papacy took pains to point out that, without a change of heart, institutions, however useful, would prove unequal to the task of reconstruction. There is therefore nothing surprising in the fact that in the conclusions of its 1934 Congress the French Confederation of Christian Workers called for an organisation of trades which should enable man to "work out his individual, family and social destiny here below and to fulfil his eternal purpose", and that the fourteenth general meeting of the French National Catholic Federation recorded its conviction that the problem of occupational life grasped in all its implications "dominates the problem of production by the same order of superiority as separates man from the material forms of creation". For the same reason, events which on the surface are of a purely religious character, such as the Redemption Jubilee or the Eucharistic Congress at Buenos Aires, acquire a social significance by their very magnitude, since they serve to measure the spiritual influence which the Church can bring to bear in promoting the social work towards which it directs the labours of the faithful.

One of the principal features of the work undertaken in 1934 was the development of social education among Catholics, particularly among Catholic workers. The adoption by the 1934 Session of the French Social Week at Nice of the subject "Social Order and Education" as the general theme of its deliberations was no mere accident, but an attempt to meet what this organisation rightly considered as the dominant concern of Catholic circles at the present time.

In this fresh campaign in educational work an important part is being played by the Young Christian Workers Movement, generally known as the "*Jociste* Movement". By promoting, by the fact of its existence and its example, the specialisation of the big youth organisations which are now split up into homo-

geneous groups corresponding to the various sections of society, and by laying down new standards of more direct and therefore more effective teaching, it has made possible the application of the classic rule laid down by the Papacy for Catholic social action.

> The first apostles, the direct apostles of the workers, must be workers; and the apostles of the industrial and commercial world must be manufacturers and merchants. (*Quadragesimo Anno*, No. 152.)

To describe and illustrate this movement adequately would take more space than is here available, and it must suffice to make passing mention of the energetic work carried on by the young Christian workers' organisations in one or two countries. In Belgium, the movement was responsible in 1934 for meetings, enquiries, congresses, social days and weeks for militant workers and leaders, while it also participated widely in the organisation of various services dealing, for instance, with vocational guidance, savings funds, juvenile unemployment, books, films, gramophone records, sport and the like.

In France the activities of the movement have been no less vigorous; as one example among many mention may be made of the first National Congress of Young Catholic Seamen held at Rennes.

In connection with the approach of the tenth anniversary of this movement, a question may be raised which, although no doubt subsidiary, is nevertheless not without importance. May it not be anticipated that the purely occupational form of organisation initiated by the Young Christian Workers' Associations and, after them, by the Christian Workers' Leagues, will tend to diminish the popularity of the traditional class organisation of the trade unions among Catholics ? This danger has not passed unperceived, and during 1934 the subject was searchingly discussed in France, in Belgium and in the Netherlands. For the time being the question may be regarded as settled. Where the Church is still free to choose, it remains faithful to the traditional formula on which its whole social action has been based for the last fifty years, namely that of the free trade union within the organised trade.

A second dominant feature of the Catholic movement in 1934 was undoubtedly the attempt to reorganise the Catholic workers with a view to practical action.

Thanks to the persistence with which it has been pursued during the past twelve years, the " Catholic Action " movement has gradually spread throughout the Catholic world. In all countries in which they represent a real force, Catholics are now organised, on the initiative and under the direction of their bishops, into big national federations, which in turn are divided into diocesan federations grouping men, women, lads and girls in uniform associations.

The perfecting of this organisation unquestionably represents the most important attempt made by the clergy for some time to organise the faithful with a view to action. It is true that the

purpose in view, like the authorities responsible for carrying it out, is religious, but a system of grouping on this vast scale cannot fail to have very appreciable effects in the field of social action proper.

It is still too early to forecast exactly what form these effects are likely to take. So far, this new organisation has been mainly concerned to place its new-found strength at the service of campaigns for moral purposes, such as the " Legion of Decency " in the United States, which have aroused a vigorous crusade in favour of the moral reform of the cinema, broadcasting and the theatre in all Catholic countries.

Time will show whether the Catholic Action Organisation may be expected to extend its activities beyond these public reform movements, and to participate more directly in the work of social reconstruction. In this connection it may be appropriate to quote the words of a French Cardinal who, when describing the position of the Christian Workers' League of his diocese in the general structure of Catholic social organisation, pointed out that it was not necessary to wait for the advent of the " single association " before laying the foundations of a form of organisation in which, in accordance with the old ideas of the Netherlands Catholics, the trade union will exist in every social group side by side with a genuine and exclusive organisation of that social group.

It now remains to say something of the social teaching given by the Catholic clergy in 1934, a year in which fresh attention was suddenly focused on the great Encyclicals of 1891 and 1931 by somewhat conspicuous support from certain quarters. 1934 has thus been the year of great " collective pastoral letters ", providing authorised commentaries adapting the more general principles of the Papal pronouncement of 1931 to individual countries. As an example, mention may first be made of that issued by the American bishops, calling upon all the Catholics in the United States to play their part in the work of national industrial recovery.

The French Cardinals and Archbishops have also proclaimed the Church's unswerving fidelity to the principle of occupational organisation within the framework of organised trades.

In consideration of modern economic conditions the Church affirms the right of employers and of workers to form trade associations. It calls upon these associations to cultivate humane relations with each other with a view to the common good of the trade in which both are alike interested, and suggests that to this end joint boards be set up and collective labour agreements be concluded. In the event of disputes arising between these associations, it would wish that qualified arbitration bodies should intervene to prevent, so far as possible, recourse to lock-outs and strikes, which are social disorders. In these institutions the Church sees the primary factors of the organisation of trades painfully evolved from the chaos of competition and individualism.

Churches belonging to the Stockholm Movement

At its 1934 meeting at Fanoë (Denmark), the *Universal Christian Council for Life and Work*, which covers the Anglican, Orthodox,

Protestant and Old Catholic churches, decided to convene a second Universal Conference in 1937. The agenda of this conference will include practical and concrete aspects of the problem of " Church, State and Society ", and a general report on the progress made in practical Christianity since the first Universal Conference held in Stockholm in 1935.

During the year, the secretariat of the Universal Council set up an information service which deals among other things with labour problems. A Universal Council News Service has also been instituted and gives regular accounts of the activities of the International Labour Office.

Federal Council of the Churches of Christ in America. — Among the separate churches comprised in the Universal Christian Council for Life and Work, the most vigorous social activity has been displayed by the Federal Council of the Churches of Christ in America, which also takes an active interest in the social policy of the United States Government. In a message to the churches issued on the occasion of Labour Sunday, the Federal Council stated that the success of the measures proposed by the Government, many of which are indisputably in harmony with Christian ideals, will depend not only on the wisdom of separate measures adopted and on the character of the economic system itself, but certainly also on the spirit of those in control of American economic life. A truly Christian concern for the people calls for the careful scrutiny of reform measures.

> There are grave questions which must be answered. Can the removal of land from production be the Christian answer to cries of hunger around the world ? Can an arbitrary inflation of money, such as has been proposed in some quarters, be the straight road to justice between debtors and creditors ? Can a system built about profits yield an adequate development of personality ?

After pointing out that the churches cannot, as such, give the final word upon economic schemes, the Federal Council nevertheless claims their right to pass judgment upon the results of every social economy:

> We must enquire as to the actual number of unemployed, the degree to which the organisation of labour and of consumers has advanced in comparison with the organisation of employers, and the net gain in the redistribution of income and purchasing power, as reflected by more rapid advance in wages and consumer-income than in the cost of living, and we must insist that economic experiment shall proceed until it evolves a social order in which men and women everywhere shall have a real opportunity for the good life.

In connection with the labour disputes which have occurred in certain fields of industry, the Executive Committee of the Council also issued a statement formally supporting the right of association and launched an urgent appeal to the interested parties in the following terms:

> We are convinced that full recognition of social rights is the best assurance of responsible and wholesome social action. It is for such recognition that we urgently appeal.

Lastly, at its biennial meeting at Dayton (Ohio), the Federal Council devoted a large part of its discussions to the responsibilities devolving on the churches in connection with the economic depression, rural and urban, and to the problem of economic justice for the negro. The Federal Council also declared its support of some of the reforms contemplated by the Administration. As regards social insurance, it urged the enactment of State and Federal unemployment insurance legislation to provide security for workers unemployed through no fault of their own, and also expressed the hope that adequate measures would be formulated and made effective to introduce sickness and old-age insurance. In the field of child labour, the complete abolition of which it has been advocating for many years, the Council noted with satisfaction the progress made towards that end under the National Industrial Recovery Act, adding that the obvious method of making a permanent improvement in child labour conditions is through the ratification of the Child Labour Amendment to the Constitution, and demanding speedy ratification of this Amendment by the States.

United Church of Canada. — The Sixth General Council of the United Church of Canada, held in 1934, considered an important statement concerning the christianisation of the social order. The Council recommended this document for the widest possible study by the various congregations, regarding it as being in substance a statement of the Christian attitude and approach to the economic question. The last chapter of the report in particular contains the following statements:

A society approximating to the Kingdom of God on earth should ensure:

(*a*) That honest, capable and industrious persons shall have the opportunity as well as the responsibility of earning for themselves and their families a satisfactory livelihood, which should include humane living and working conditions, together with freedom and leisure for the awakening and development in them of whatsoever things are true, lovely and of good report.

(*b*) That the wage earner, the management and the provider of capital shall find equitable treatment. It is essential that wage earners and employers, while the present conditions of industry obtain, should bargain on equal terms through persons freely chosen by each group.

(*c*) That wage earners shall earn their wages by conscientious industry, that the management shall be efficient and exclude waste in production, and that the consumer shall find in the market price the minimum which will provide equitable treatment for all parties.

(*d*) That industry shall be so organised that the supply of the material needs of life will neither be interrupted nor exploited for sectional advantage.

(*e*) That the structure of the community shall be so ordered that no one shall be deprived of his chance to do the best he may with his gifts of mind and character, because of unjust outward circumstances.

(*f*) That the possession of money shall not be regarded as an end worthy in itself, nor its possessor be held in respect by the community by reason of his riches. The person of true wealth will be he who serves the community with what he has.

(*g*) That sometimes for co-operation within the nation or among the nations, renunciation of one's own desires shall be called for, and that exclusive pri-

vileges and economic advantage for one's self must yield to the larger common welfare, so that suspicions and animosities will be displaced by community of purpose.

It is also pointed out that " the demand that all people shall have access to the means of full life as far as they are capable of it involves an assured minimum provision against the fear of old age, unemployment, disability and accident, together with protection against compulsion to accept a wage which precludes the means of such a life ".

International Christian Organisations

During 1934, industrial and economic questions continued to confront these organisations with difficult problems. In several countries the authorities call upon the national branches of these associations to collaborate in social work. In this connection two interesting memoranda were published by the Secretariat of the World's Alliance of Young Women's Christian Associations. A national study course organised by this Alliance in August and September 1934 was attended by 120 secretaries and members of associations from 27 countries. The main subject of the course was the economic and social situation, and the Council of the World's Alliance decided to promote similar efforts within the various national associations with a view not only to spreading a better knowledge of present conditions but also of lending assistance in any appropriate action.

The World's Alliance of Young Men's Christian Associations, at a session held in Oxford in July 1934, stressed the necessity of considering the repercussions of current difficulties on personal, family, industrial, national and international life.

The Alliance has continued its work in connection with the organisation of spare time, its Secretariat having taken part in the discussions which led to the creation of the International Committee on Spare Time, on which it is represented. In order to arouse active interest in rural districts, the Alliance devoted one of the issues of its Rural Bulletin to the agricultural questions dealt with by the Conference and the International Labour Office.

The *Fifth International Quaker Conference* (Prague, 24-28 August 1934) discussed among other things the difficulties with which young people are faced at the present time, especially from the point of view of living and working conditions. Among the national branches of the Society of Friends, the *Allotments Committee* of the Society in Great Britain has done very valuable work. Allotments have been organised for over 117,000 men and women through the action of the Committee, which is in close touch with various other national bodies working for similar ends. In the United States the *American Friends' Service Committee* works in close contact with the Department of the Interior, which has entrusted to it an important reconstruction scheme for mining areas; the Committee has spent about 30,000 dollars on this scheme.

Education

During 1934, a number of lectures on questions connected with the activity of the Organisation were delivered in various countries by officials or correspondents of the International Labour Office, either in the normal course of missions or annual leave or in response to special requests. Members of the Office also took part in courses organised by the National Federation of League of Nations Societies or its national branches, in particular the League of Nations Union, by the Geneva Institute of International Relations, the Workers' Educational Association of Great Britain, the World's Alliance of Young Women's Christian Associations, etc.

The Press and Public Opinion

During the year under review, the consequences of the economic depression continued in nearly all countries to keep social problems in the forefront of public interest. As the mirror of public opinion, the Press has naturally reflected the grave public concern and has devoted more and more space to articles and information relative to the questions dealt with by the International Labour Organisation.

Thus it has been possible to follow from day to day in newspapers of different languages and opinions the progress, in some cases surprisingly swift, of the important ideas which the studies of the Office and the discussions of the International Labour Conference and of the Governing Body have brought to the attention of the world.

The notions of economic reorganisation, international collaboration for the settlement of monetary and financial problems, large-scale national and international public works, wide concerted schemes to increase the consuming power of the masses, and the like, have continued to gain ground in spite of setbacks in particular countries due to temporary difficulties.

The question of the reduction of hours of work in particular, considered as a remedy for unemployment and as a logical consequence of the steady progress of industrial technique, has been very widely discussed in the Press. The activity of the Organisation in this field has always received much publicity in all countries.

The Office's quarterly statistics of world unemployment continue to be awaited with interest by journalists, economists, business men and workers' organisations alike.

The entry of the United States into the International Labour Organisation gave rise to a great deal of comment, in the course of which certain similarities were pointed out between the principles on which the work of the International Labour Office is founded and those underlying the reconstruction programme of President Roosevelt. Generally speaking, the progress of the Organisation towards greater universality has undoubtedly increased the interest of the Press in its activities.

Within the limits of financial possibility, the Office has tried to cope with this wide extension of its relations with the big news agencies, newspapers and journalists by developing its information service, particularly in the direction of more regular contacts with the Press of extra-European countries.

The increase in the number of visitors noted in 1933 became still more marked in 1934. 16,000 more visitors were recorded during the year, bringing the total for the twelve months of the calendar year 1934 up to 42,000. In July and August alone the Office received over 28,000 persons.

In the field of visual publicity, charts were prepared for exhibitions either at the Office itself or in various countries, particularly India (Mysore). The Office also issued a number of posters of a popular type for display at exhibitions, in schools or in the secretarial offices of organisations. The following are the titles of the posters which have already appeared: (1) The International Labour Organisation (Map of the world showing the States Members of the Organisation and a list of these States); (2) and (3) The International Labour Charter (Preamble and General Principles); (4) The International Labour Office: A clearing-house of information (The Branch Offices of the I.L.O. in various countries); (5) International labour legislation and its application (Poster showing in the form of a chart the number of ratifications of International Labour Conventions registered each year and of annual reports on their application).

These posters have already been used in a large number of countries. The collection of lantern slides has also been revised and enlarged.

Lastly, the Office has prepared film scenarios to illustrate certain aspects of its activities. These have been submitted to the International Institute of Educational Cinematography for an opinion as to the possibility of their realisation.

Broadcasting has continued to provide the Office with a powerful means of reaching public opinion, particularly in extra-European countries, communication with which is still slow in spite of the development of air services. Efforts are being made to enlarge the circle of distant countries able to receive its broadcasts from the Official Broadcasting Station of the League of Nations. At the Eighteenth Session of the Conference the delegates of Japan, the Argentine Republic and Brazil, speaking in their own languages, were able to give their impressions of the Conference directly to their respective countries. Messages were also successfully transmitted to the United States and Canada. Similar attempts to reach Australia, New Zealand and the Union of South Africa were less satisfactory, but it may be hoped that the present technical difficulties may gradually be overcome.

For the purpose of these broadcasts, which are relayed from Geneva, the Office has obtained the co-operation of the national broadcasting institutions with a view to securing satisfactory relays to most listeners. In some countries the broadcasting stations

have included talks on the work of the Organisation in their programme. The Branch Office in China has obtained facilities for issuing regular broadcasts, and in Japan the delegates to the Conference gave an outline of the work of the Organisation on their return. In other oversea countries similar talks have been included in series of lectures on social and international problems.

In European countries, and particularly in Belgium, Czechoslovakia, France, Great Britain, Hungary, Italy, Luxemburg, Sweden and Switzerland, broadcasts of the activities of the International Labour Organisation often figure in the programmes of the various stations. The Paris Office issues daily messages from the Eiffel Tower station, which are relayed by the other official French stations. Lastly, officials of the Office periodically give talks at the Geneva Broadcasting Station, which are relayed from the national French-Swiss broadcasting station at Sottens.

CHAPTER I

ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENTS

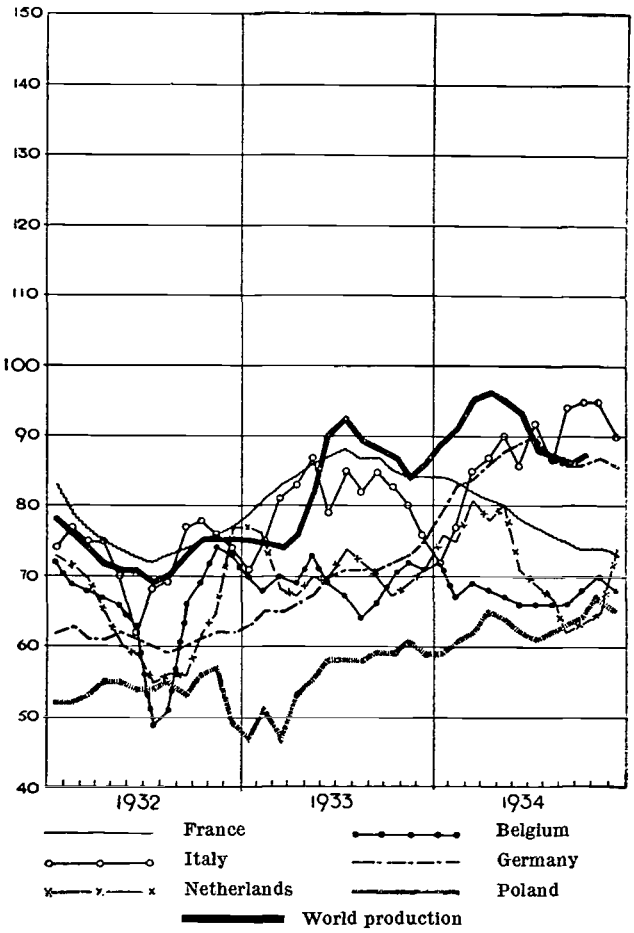
The year 1934 showed a number of conflicting economic movements—some leading towards and others away from " recovery "—not only as between different groups of countries, but also within the individual countries themselves. An attempt to sum up and assess the balance of these various national and international tendencies will show that on the whole the prevailing movement towards an increase in general economic activity—recovery—which was already pronounced in 1933, continued, although at a somewhat less rapid pace, in 1934, but with some falling off during the middle of the year. With regard to the possibility and promise of further recovery in the future, however, it must be realised that several features of the " prosperity " enjoyed in a number of countries in the year under review are of an essentially temporary nature. Such for instance is the increase in activity caused *directly* by extensive Government expenditure either on public works or on armaments, which, if continued indefinitely, must lead to bankruptcy or war. (This expenditure may of course, given favourable circumstances, lead *indirectly* to a more permanent increase in economic activity as a whole.) Moreover, where revival has been stimulated by currency depreciation, tariffs or quotas, leading to the development of new home market industries or to the promotion of export trade, the first of these effects produces a special increase in the building up of new capital equipment which is felt only in the initial stages, and the second is one which tends to wear off as other countries either depreciate their currencies also or put up barriers against exchange dumping. Much of the economic revival of 1934 can be traced to such artificial and temporary stimuli, which cannot themselves last long and must be followed by a reaction unless they succeed in providing the initial impetus towards a revival of a more healthy and permanent nature.

Production

The production indexes of the different countries show a considerable divergence of movement. The index of world industrial production rose sharply from November 1933 until May 1934, and then fell off until September, when it began to rise again slightly. The pronounced fluctuation of this world index was largely a

reflection of developments in the United States, which supplies over a third of the total industrial production of the world. Without the United States it would have moved more smoothly and in a more definitely upward direction, although even then some regres-

PRODUCTION INDEXES OF COUNTRIES WITH CURRENCIES OF UNREDUCED GOLD CONTENT
(1928 = 100)



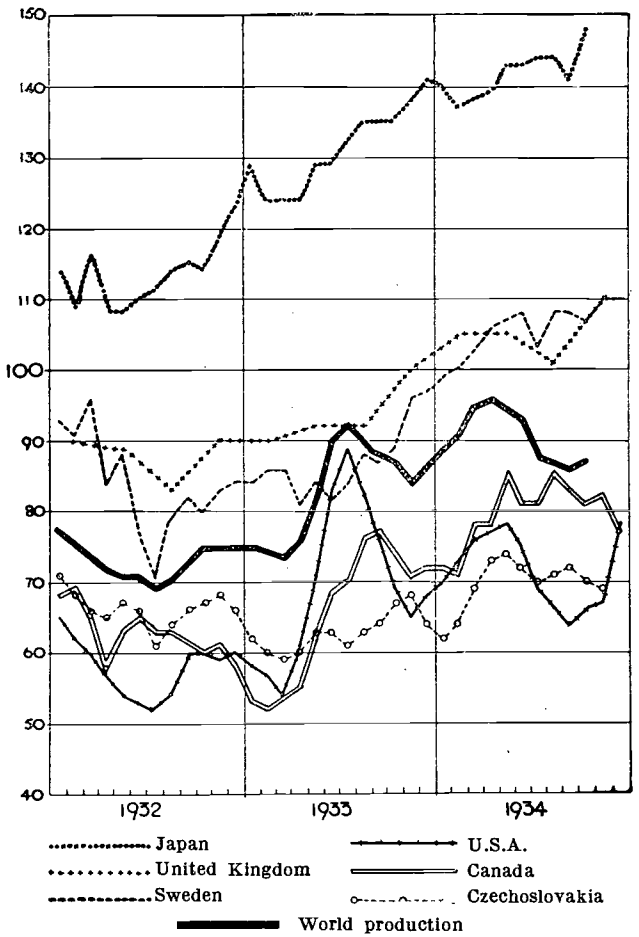
SOURCES: *Monthly Bulletin of Statistics* (League of Nations) and *Vierteljahrshefte zur Konjunkturforschung* (Institut für Konjunkturforschung).

sion is noticeable after the spring. It is interesting to notice the different movements of the production indexes in the countries with depreciated currencies as compared with those which have remained on gold, and in those which have pursued expansionist financial policies as compared with those whose policies have been

mainly deflationary. The accompanying diagrams show the production indexes first of a number of the gold-bloc countries and of Germany, and secondly of various countries representative of the group with depreciated currencies. The movements of the

PRODUCTION INDEXES OF COUNTRIES WITH CURRENCIES OF REDUCED GOLD CONTENT

(1928 = 100)



SOURCES: *Monthly Bulletin of Statistics* (League of Nations) and *Vierteljahrshefte zur Konjunkturforschung* (Institut für Konjunkturforschung).

indexes varied considerably both between and within the different groups of countries.

The most striking feature in the first group is the outstanding situation in Italy and Germany, particularly during 1934; their indexes increased sharply, rising above the world production index

in the second half of the year and reaching a level not much more than 10 per cent. below that of 1928. In the rest of the gold-bloc countries taken as a whole, there was an upward movement lasting from the middle of 1932 to the middle of 1933, after which production fell steadily, with a slight check at the beginning of 1934 but continuing after April in a downward direction. The main cause of this movement was the fall in production in France, followed also by that in Belgium and the Netherlands; in Poland there has been a fairly steady increase since the spring of 1933, but the index still lies nearly 40 per cent. below that of 1928, while in the rest of the gold-bloc countries production is around 70 per cent. of the 1928 level. It is notable that of the gold-standard countries represented, the two—Germany and Italy—which show by far the highest, and at the same time increasing, production indexes are those which have carried out policies of credit expansion and public works on a large scale. The less favourable effects on the export situation of this domestic expansion when combined with undepreciated currencies will be discussed in a later section.

The second group of countries display a somewhat more encouraging picture. In all the sterling-bloc countries there was an increase in industrial production in 1934, although in most cases it fell off in the last few months of the year. While in Canada production is still more than 30 per cent. below the 1928 level, in Great Britain this level has been nearly regained, and in Sweden (as also in Finland, Norway and Denmark) it has been considerably surpassed. The greatest increase in production occurred in Japan, where the rate is over 50 per cent. above that of 1928. Czechoslovakia may be taken as representative of the countries with devaluated currencies but fixed exchanges. Both there and in Hungary there was a marked upward tendency; but while in Czechoslovakia, as also in Austria, production is still 20 to 30 per cent. below the pre-depression level, in Hungary the rate is nearly back again at that of 1928. In the United States, where a sharp regression occurred in May, there was nevertheless some recovery towards the end of the year.

The increases in production have been reflected in most cases by a revival of the investment industries. The accompanying chart shows the movements of the production indexes for consumption and investment goods respectively in Germany, Sweden and the United States. It will be seen that in Germany and Sweden the investment goods industries expanded more than the consumption goods industries in 1934, and that in the United States they even expanded in the face of a fall in the production of consumption goods. It is interesting to see how much the shrinkage in investment activity during the depression has exceeded that in production for consumption purposes; and how, in addition, the greater the severity of the depression (in the United States, for example, as compared with Sweden), the greater, too, has been the discrepancy in the movements of the two indexes.

The present stimulation of investment industries can be traced

THE I.L.O. YEAR-BOOK 1934-35

VOLUME I

ERRATUM

For the diagram on p. 43 of Volume I the titles, etc., should read as follows :

PRODUCTION INDEXES OF CONSUMPTION GOODS AND INVESTMENT GOODS, 1929-1934

(1928 = 100)



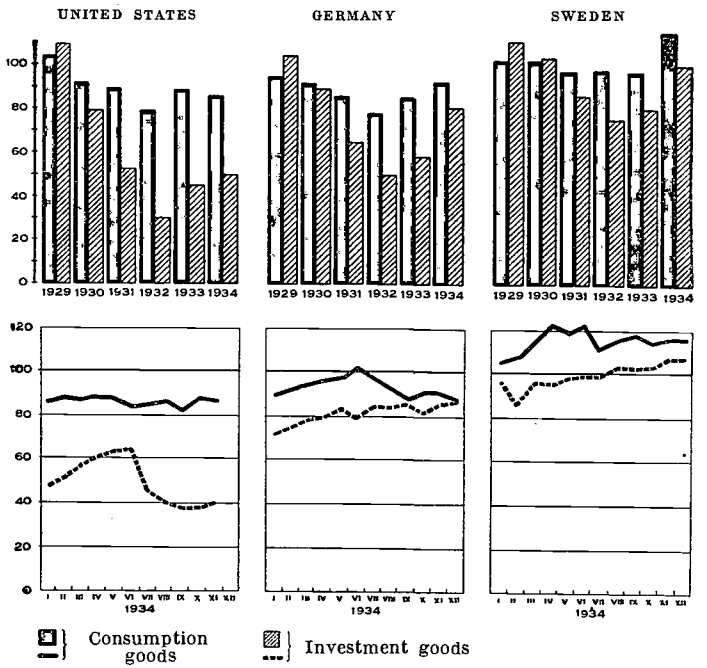
} Consumption goods } Investment goods

SOURCE: *Monthly Bulletin of Statistics* (League of Nations).

very largely to direct Government expenditure on public works, and it is also probable that the revival in the iron and steel industries of a number of countries can be partly accounted for by the increased demand for these materials for armament production. In certain cases, however, investment has revived in response to lower interest rates and a general return of business confidence; for instance, these influences may account to a great extent for the striking revival in the building industry of Great Britain, where the production

PRODUCTION INDEXES OF CONSUMPTION GOODS AND INVESTMENT GOODS, 1929-1934

(1928 = 100)



SOURCE: *Monthly Bulletin of Statistics* (League of Nations).

index for residential buildings in 1934 was 73.4 per cent. above that for 1928. Stimulation of production and the building up of new capital equipment in countries with undervalued currencies (particularly Sweden and Japan) occurred both in the protected home industries and in the favoured export industries which benefited from the exchange depreciation.

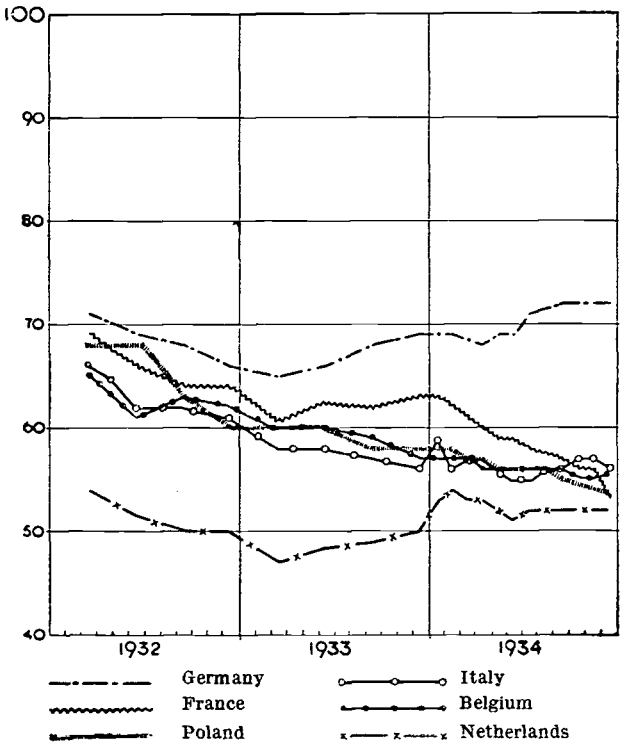
Moreover, to some extent there was, particularly within the group of sterling countries, an improvement in mutual demand for each other's products which helped to stimulate the export industries, just as in countries where public expenditure was considerable the increased purchasing power of those employed in investment industries tended to spread its effects to all other

branches of economic activity and to increase the sales also of consumption goods.

Price Movements

The grouping of the price indexes in the various countries has followed lines similar to that of their production indexes. Not only

WHOLESALE PRICES IN COUNTRIES WITH CURRENCIES OF UNREDUCED GOLD CONTENT
(1928 = 100)



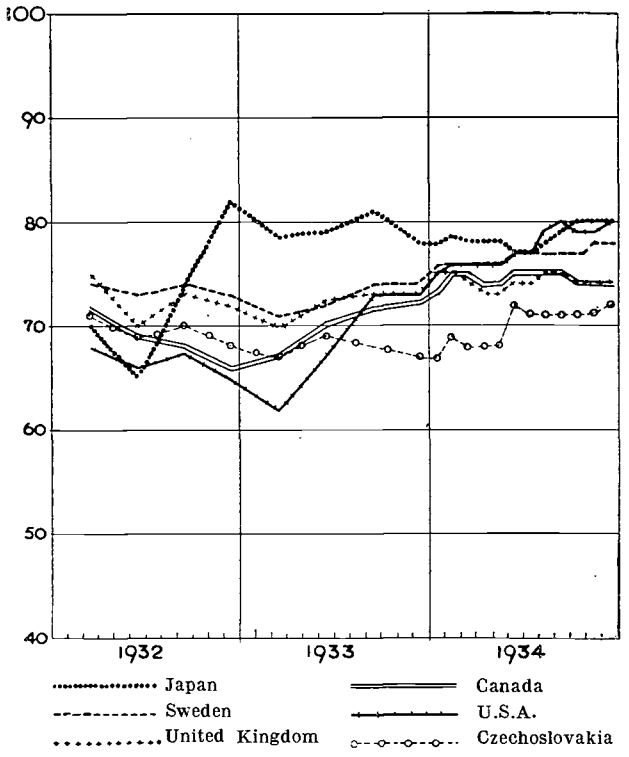
Source: *Monthly Bulletin of Statistics* (League of Nations).

have public works, financed by credit expansion, been responsible in several countries for a rise in both production and prices, but even in the case of private industry in the home market it is natural that, with comparatively rigid costs, falling prices have tended to lead to a fall in profits and productive activity, while rising prices have led to higher returns and increased production.

The fact that in most cases the latter tendency has not been counteracted by a corresponding deterioration of the competitive situation of the export industries is partly due to the simultaneous currency depreciation which has taken place in nearly all those countries where an internal expansionist policy has been pursued, and which has more than counterbalanced the rise in prices. In the few countries such as Italy and Germany where internal expansion has not been accompanied by currency depreciation, the improve-

WHOLESALE PRICES IN COUNTRIES WITH CURRENCIES OF REDUCED GOLD CONTENT

(1928 = 100)



SOURCE: *Monthly Bulletin of Statistics* (League of Nations).

ment in production in the domestic industries has more than outweighed the falling off in exports.

The wholesale price indexes of countries which have not depreciated their currencies and those which have are shown in the accompanying diagrams.

Of the first group, the wholesale prices in most of the gold-bloc

countries have fallen only slightly, with the exception of France, where there was a considerable drop between December 1933 and December 1934, from 63.1 to 53.3 (1928 = 100). In Italy prices were more or less stable in 1934, with a slight upward tendency in the second half of the year, and in Germany there was a steady rise, accentuated during the summer months and resulting in an increase from 68.7 at the end of 1933 to 72.1 a year later (1928=100).

Within the group of countries with depreciated currencies, there was a considerable variety of movement. The greatest rise in prices, although it was less than in 1933, was that in the United States, where the index (1928 = 100) rose from 73.9 to 79.6 during the year. This rise was to some extent offset by the 8 per cent. depreciation of the dollar during 1934.

The sterling bloc showed on the whole a steady but not very great rise in prices. In Japan, in spite of the depreciated currency, wholesale prices fell slightly during the first half-year, but rose from July onwards. In Czechoslovakia there was a rising tendency after the devaluation. Hungarian prices also rose considerably, but in Austria the slight rise in the spring was counterbalanced by a falling tendency in the rest of the year.

It may be pointed out that wholesale price indexes *on a gold basis* fell in nearly all countries during the year, and indeed almost as much in the countries with paper currencies as in those on the gold standard. Moreover, gold prices in all countries with depreciated currencies have fallen to a much lower level than in any of the gold bloc.

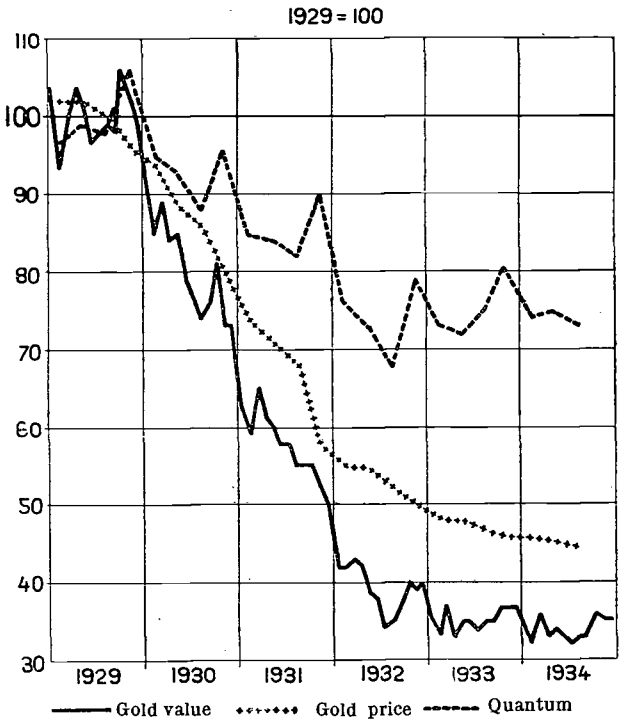
The cost-of-living indexes in the various countries have more or less followed, though to a modified degree, the movements of wholesale prices. They have risen slightly in the countries with depreciated currencies and fallen in the gold-bloc countries, in response both to deliberate deflationary measures and to the further depreciation of the paper currencies. The fall in prices in the gold-bloc countries has brought with it in most cases a considerable discrepancy between wholesale and retail prices; only in Poland have retail prices been reduced really commensurately with the fall in wholesale prices.

International Trade

Compared with the fairly general revival in production, the recovery of world trade during 1934 was very slight. The accompanying diagram shows the monthly index of the gold value of world trade (imports plus exports), the quarterly index of the gold prices of commodities entering into international trade, and an index of the " quantum " of world trade obtained by dividing the first of the above indexes by the second. There was a slight increase in the quantum index, although, owing to the fall in gold prices, the average monthly gold value of world trade fell between 1933 and 1934 from 35.2 to 33.8 per cent. of the 1929 level.

The reason for the failure of world trade to keep pace with general internal recovery is no doubt to be sought in the numerous, and in some cases increasing, obstacles to international trade that have been erected in the form of tariffs, quotas and restrictions on the supply of foreign exchange. Although some attempts have been made to circumvent these obstacles by compensation agreements, these have often had the effect of deflecting the course, rather than of actually increasing the total volume, of international trade.

MOVEMENT OF INTERNATIONAL COMMERCE



The effects that the attempt, through clearing agreements, to achieve an exact balance of trade with each country has had in reducing total trade are discussed in a later section. It will be seen also that in the few cases where tariff reductions have been made, these have had a definitely stimulating result on both the imports and exports of the tariff-reducing country.

The movement of international trade has been somewhat different in the various countries. The following table from *Wirtschaft und Statistik* shows the respective changes in the share of world trade

in countries on a free gold standard, those with controlled exchanges, and those with depreciated currencies.

Percentage of world trade of countries with:	Imports				Exports			
	1929	1931	1933	1934	1929	1931	1933	1934[1]
Non-depreciated currencies:								
Free gold standard	18.2	21.7	24.0	22	16.8	18.9	19.3	19
Controlled exchanges	14.9	14.6	13.7	14	14.9	19.0	16.5	15
Depreciated currencies [2]	66.9	63.7	62.3	64	68.3	62.1	64.2	66

[1] Estimated.
[2] Grouped according to the currency situation in November 1933. Recently devaluated but stabilised currencies are reckoned as depreciated.

It will be seen that during 1934 the share in both total exports and imports of the countries with depreciated exchanges increased slightly after decreasing considerably during the first depression years. In this group the expansion of export trade has been greatest in the United States and Japan, but there has also been a considerable increase in Sweden, Czechoslovakia and Great Britain.

More significant, however, is the increase in imports in these countries, due evidently to their internal expansion, and showing itself notably in increased imports of raw materials. Thus in Great Britain the volume of raw materials imported in 1934 was greater than in 1929. Even among the gold-standard countries the two—Germany and Italy—which have adopted an internal policy of expansion have considerably increased their imports, particularly of raw materials. Since, however, in both these countries exports have at the same time fallen sharply, the scarcity of foreign exchange has become increasingly critical, calling for strong measures of control.

Most of the countries that have remained on a free gold standard have managed by means of severe deflation to maintain their exports in spite of increased depreciation of the sterling-bloc currencies. At the same time, partly owing to new commercial restrictions, and partly to the decline in activity in the domestic market, these countries have all cut down their imports still further, and have thus acted to some extent as a drag on general recovery. Apart from Sweden and Japan, however, the export situation in nearly all countries is low in comparison with the general level of their economic activity.

Currencies and Interest Rates

In the monetary field there were during 1934 several symptoms of returning confidence. In spite of continuing political difficulties —and here also some relief was achieved towards the end of the

year—there was a marked improvement in monetary stability, helped considerably by the provisional return of the United States dollar to a fixed gold parity in February. Except in Czechoslovakia, which reduced the foreign value of the crown in February by one-sixth, and in some of the South American countries, where the considerable exchange movements, although less than in 1933, were partly due to a progressive relaxation of exchange regulations, currencies were notably steadier in 1934 than in the previous year. The sterling bloc as a whole showed during the year a depreciation in relation to gold of about 10 per cent.; and of the gold-standard countries, in both Germany and Italy the tendency of the currencies to depreciate led to gold and foreign exchange losses and increasing Government intervention to counteract this movement.

The tendency towards a revival of confidence was no doubt partly responsible for the progressive easing of credit conditions which was so noticeable a feature of the past year. In the table on page 50 are shown representative long-term and short-term interest rates in a number of countries. It must be realised that, although showing the trend of interest rates in each country separately, these figures are not strictly comparable as between different countries owing, in the case of the long-term rates, to the different types of bonds selected, and in the case of money rates to the different classes of bills and different degrees of development of the various money markets. Nevertheless, bearing this reservation in mind, certain general features may be noticed from the table. Since the long-term rates are the more significant with regard to general recovery, the countries have been arranged approximately in ascending order of their respective prices for long-term borrowing. They may be classified roughly in four groups. The lowest bond yields shown in the table are to be found in Great Britain, the United States and Sweden, a group which may be characterised as creditor countries with depreciated currencies. The next group, consisting of Belgium, Switzerland, Italy, France and the Netherlands, contains creditor countries which have remained on the gold standard. Japan may perhaps be regarded as representative of the extra-European debtor countries which have pursued an expansionist monetary policy (most South American countries would also fall into this group). Finally, there is the group of central and eastern European debtor countries, Czechoslovakia, Germany, Poland, Yugoslavia and Hungary, where long-term interest rates, although they have recently fallen, remain still at an abnormally high level.

The various influences which have tended to bring about a fall in interest rates in most of these countries are discussed in more detail in a later section. In several cases the fall can be traced to direct expansionist measures. Vigorous public works policies financed by credit expansion have been carried on in such countries as the United States, Sweden, Germany and Italy; and open-market operations, which, however, were not conducted on any large scale in 1934, had helped to create considerable liquidity in the

SHORT-TERM AND LONG-TERM INTEREST RATES

	United Kingdom		U.S.A.		Sweden		Belgium		Switzerland		Italy		France		Netherlands		Japan		Czechoslovakia		Germany		Poland		Hungary		Yugoslavia	
	(1) a	(2) b	(3) a	(4) b	(5) a	(6) b	(7) a	(8) b	(9) a	(10) b	(11) a	(12) b	(13) a	(14) b	(15) a	(16) b	(17) a	(18) b	(19) a	(20) b	(21) a	(22) b	(23) a	(24) b	(25) a	(26) b	(27) a	(28) b
1933																												
I	0.78	3.34	1.04	3.31	3.50	4.11	2.76	4.45	1.50	3.46	3.75-4.75	4.49	1.84	4.06	0.48	4.62	4.62	5.02	3.77	6.33	3.88	7.14	9.40	10.38	4.37-7.50	21.83	9-13.50	14.28
II	0.53	3.40	0.59	3.32	3.33	4.22	2.41	4.60	1.50	4.07	3.50-4.75	4.56	1.91	4.46	1.63	4.78	4.56	4.85	3.50	5.64	3.88	7.14	9.40	11.78	4.37-7.50	18.17	9-13.50	16.03
III	0.44	3.41	0.38	3.20	3.00	3.99	2.30	4.58	1.50	3.98	3.50-4.75	4.42	1.53	4.50	1.84	4.76	4.38	4.63	3.50	6.08	3.88	7.51	9.40	10.69	4.37-7.50	14.53	9-13.50	14.10
IV	1.00	3.37	0.41	3.40	2.83	3.77	2.19	4.52	1.50	3.85	3.00-4.00	3.95	2.03	4.53	0.49	4.84	4.38	4.64	3.50	6.20	3.88	6.81	9.30	10.44	4.37-7.50	15.59	9-13.50	13.16
1934																												
I	0.97	3.20	0.45	3.34	2.50	3.69	2.09	4.27	1.50	4.03	3.00-3.50	3.93	2.65	4.55	0.83	4.56	4.38	4.51	3.50	5.90	3.88	6.50	9.20	9.14	4.37-7.50	13.25	9-12.00	10.43
II	0.93	3.18	0.19	3.02	2.50	3.63	2.06	3.90	1.50	4.22	3.00-3.50	4.25	2.58	3.93	1.39	4.48	4.38	4.44	3.50	5.75	3.84	6.60	9.17	8.07	4.50-7.50	11.72	9-12.00	9.84
III	0.80	3.10	0.19	3.01	2.50	3.55	2.22	3.86	1.50	4.08	3.00-3.50	4.07	1.73	4.15	0.69	4.38	4.38	4.57	3.50	5.96	3.75	6.72	8.90	8.34	4.50-7.50	11.94	9-12.00	9.76
IV	0.60	2.85	0.14	3.03	2.50	3.06	2.28	4.18	1.50	4.02	3.00-4.50	4.09	1.51	3.97	0.58	4.04	4.38	4.60	3.50	5.76	3.63	6.61	8.83	8.22	4.50-7.50	11.99	9-11.00	9.90

a = Average market rates of discount; *b* = Average yield of bonds.

SOURCES: *Monthly Bulletin of Statistics* (League of Nations) and *Statistical Year-Book* (League of Nations).

1. Bankers' drafts 90 days.
2. Consols 2½ per cent.
3. Bankers' acceptances 90 days.
4. Treasury bonds.
5. Commercial paper 3 months.
6. 7 Government bonds.
7. Commercial paper 1-3 months.
8. Rente belge 3 per cent.
9. 3 months' bills.
10. Federal Railway 3½ per cent.
11. Private discount; commercial bills 4 months.
12. " Rendita " 3½ per cent.
13. Commercial paper 45-90 days.
14. Rente perpétuelle 3 per cent.
15. Private discount.
16. Government bonds.
17. Commercial paper 60 days.
18. Average yield of public bonds.
19. Private discount; 3 months' and shorter bills.
20. Government bonds.
21. Private discount; 56-90 days' bills.
22. Mortgage bonds 6 per cent.
23. Rates of Association of Private Banks; 4-5 months' bills.
24. Dollar Loan, 1919-1920, 6 per cent.
25. Commercial paper up to 3 months.
26. Forced loan, 1924, 5 per cent.
27. Average private discount.
28. 1921 loan 7 per cent.

money markets of the United States, Great Britain, Germany and Sweden.

Measures to prevent the natural outflow of capital from creditor countries have tended at the same time to depress interest rates in those countries, while probably preventing their fall elsewhere. Thus the embargo on foreign lending (somewhat relaxed, however, in Great Britain, Sweden and the United States during 1934) and the reduced demand for commercial credits resulting from the shrinkage in international trade have helped to increase liquidity in countries of the first group. Moreover, in cases where the depreciation of the currency has resulted in an export surplus and consequent inflow of gold or foreign assets, these have been sold to the central bank, usually against newly issued notes, and have thus led to an expansion of bank credit and a tendency for the increase of available funds in the commercial banks to depress money rates.

In some cases—among the group of expansionist debtor countries, represented in the foregoing table by Japan, to which most South American countries also belong—direct Government borrowing from the central bank for the purpose of financing budget deficits has, in the same way as with open-market operations, also tended to an expansion of credit and an increase in general liquidity.

The downward movement of interest rates has naturally been very much smaller in the gold-standard countries—apart from Germany and Italy, where, behind the insulatory protection of exchange control, a considerable credit expansion has been carried out. Within the gold bloc the decrease in bond yields (which occurred in all the countries but Switzerland) has been restricted mainly to State loans, and has hardly spread at all into the industrial field except in the Netherlands, where a fairly general improvement in bond prices has followed on the success of several important State conversion operations.

In the free gold-standard countries the loss of gold (France was the only member of the gold-bloc which acquired gold in 1934) and, in the debtor countries with exchange control, the payment of debts into blocked accounts have exercised deflationary effects tending to prevent a reduction of interest rates. Moreover, in these non-expansionist countries, the frequent recourse of the Government to the long-term capital market for the purpose of covering budget deficits has also tended to keep up the rate of interest.

One of the first effects of lower interest rates has been the large number of conversion operations which it has made possible. In Great Britain, where the embargo on foreign lending is not extended to oversea conversion issues, these operations took place on a considerable scale in 1934, and both here and in Sweden and the Netherlands there have also been a number of internal conversions of municipal and industrial bonds.

In spite of the general reduction of interest rates, there has been on the whole little revival in the new capital market, and here

activity was again largely confined to State and municipal issues. In this respect, however, England is somewhat exceptional, in the marked increase in the issue of ordinary shares, which in 1934 reached their highest total since 1929. In expansionist countries with budget deficits, particularly Japan and the United States, there was again extensive borrowing by the State.

Looked at as a whole, the year 1934 seems to show some signs of moderate recovery. Production increased, mainly in the countries with depreciated currencies or following an expansionist monetary policy, and partly in response to direct Government expe nditure. Prices fell in most of the gold-bloc countries and rose in varying degrees in countries with depreciated currencies, as well as in Germany. International trade increased slightly in quantum, but proportionately much less than total production increased. Currencies improved in stability and there was a further increase in liquid funds in the money markets, resulting in cheaper money and some reduction in long-term interest rates.

These objective results were in some part the outcome of significant developments of economic policy. There has been since the onset of the depression, and even before, a notable growth in the extent and sphere of State activity in the economic field. Instead of leaving the depression to cure itself automatically by traditional *laisser-faire* methods, producers and Governments have decided to take action and have evolved new measures of direct intervention designed to " stop the rot " and promote a revival of economic activity. Such a movement can be seen in various fields of economic activity; its recent development in the spheres of the organisation of production, international trade, and money and finance are indicated in the following three sections of this chapter.

Organisation of Production

The drastic fall in prices during the depression has forced producers in most countries into a situation of competitive price-cutting in the attempt to increase their share of shrinking markets; it was to end this process that in many cases they finally endeavoured to group themselves together and agree on policies of price and production control. Such activities have usually received some assistance or encouragement from the State, whose aim in this policy may have been to promote efficiency and stability or to secure a greater control of industry as part of some wider programme.

Monopolistic organisations, formerly frowned upon as leading to exploitation of the consumer, have recently been encouraged to play an increasing part in most national economies. Not only, as in the United States, have anti-trust laws been relaxed, but the State has deliberately supported the attempt to force recalcitrant producers into line with proposed reorganisation schemes.

The degree and form of the collective organisation of producers varies from country to country, but very few failed to show some development along these lines. It is by no means true that the main motive has always been the combating of the effects of the economic depression; in several cases, as for example in Russia and Italy, the organisation of production is clearly part of a much wider social and political plan. But it is probable that in many cases, particularly in the more liberal countries, such as France and Great Britain, the effects of the economic depression have been an important stimulus towards this " planning " movement.

In its most radical form the organisation of production can be seen in the actual assumption by the State of the rôle of entrepreneur, as in the *Union of Soviet Socialist Republics*. Here the development during 1934 was, if anything, in the opposite direction, towards a certain decentralisation of economic control. At the end of December an important decontrolling step was taken in the abolition of bread rationing, which, introduced during the war, had been re-adopted at the beginning of the first Five-Year Plan. The return to a system of free purchase is being carried out through the opening of commercial shops by the Government, the fixing of prices, and the raising of wages to meet the increased cost of living.

Another country which has followed in the steps of the U.S.S.R. is *Turkey*, where a five-year plan of industrialisation was inaugurated in 1934. In pursuance of this plan there were established during the year two large State cotton mills, a paper mill, a glass factory, a sugar refinery, and sulphur and milk products factories.

In *Mexico*, too, a six-year programme of economic reconstruction was initiated with the election of the new President in 1934.

In other countries the most comprehensive form of "planning" has been where the State has enforced a more or less uniform framework within which private enterprise might operate. Thus in *Italy* the Act of 5 February 1934 laid the foundations of the corporative State. Twenty-two corporations were set up covering the main branches of production and entrusted with such functions as the drafting of general rules regarding labour, conciliation in labour disputes, the regulation of apprenticeship and vocational training, the co-ordination and improvement of the organisation of production, the establishment of public employment exchanges, and the regulation of prices of consumption goods and services. The twenty-two corporations are divided into three groups, for agriculture, industry, and services respectively, and are all placed under the general supervision and control of the National Council of Corporations, presided over by the Head of the Government. In addition to the creation of this comprehensive framework, the State intervenes in more detailed questions, in the formation of compulsory associations of producers in single industries (Act of 16 June 1932), and in controlling the erection of new factories and the extension of old ones (Act of 12 January 1933). Thus on 3 March 1934 the already existing Cotton Institute was officially

entrusted with the control of the purchase of raw materials, and the regulation of production and sales for the whole cotton industry. There were several cases of State prohibition of the extension of plant in 1934, notably in the machine, cloth and beer industries.

Organisation on similar lines, but as yet not very far advanced, is being prepared also in *Germany*. The law of 27 February 1934 for the preparation of the organic reconstruction of the German economy authorised the replacement of the numerous existing economic associations at first by thirteen large groups, seven covering the main branches of industry and the remaining six to embrace respectively handicrafts, trade, banking, insurance, power, and transport. The last-named was subsequently removed from this system and entrusted to the Minister of Transport, and the seven industrial groups were later combined into one large group, thus resulting in a final division of the whole German industrial economy into six national groups *(Reichsgruppe)*. By the Order of 27 November 1934 the organisation was further developed into sub-groups and regions, and the whole was co-ordinated under the direction of the National Chamber of Economy headed by the Economic Leader *(Wirtschaftsführer)*. The organisation is hierarchical in character and the leaders of each stage are nominated by the administration immediately above them.

At the same time, under an Act of 15 July 1933 which authorised the creation of compulsory cartels by the Minister of National Economy, more than twenty such associations have been formed. In a number of branches, such as nitre, cement, superphosphates, electric cables, and paper, an attempt was made to prevent excessive investment by an embargo on any expansion of productive capacity. The restriction on the opening of new shops was also extended and the principle of concessions introduced.

In *Austria*, also, a corporative organisation of industry was established by an Act of 17 October 1934, under the new Constitution. Membership is voluntary, and the main purpose of the organisation is the conclusion of collective agreements with labour representatives, which agreements, however, are to be binding on members and non-members alike. Apart from this organisation, various measures have been introduced regarding price control and, in particular, legislation prohibiting the drastic cutting of prices.

In the *United States* a comprehensive form of industrial organisation had been set up under the National Industrial Recovery Act of 1933. Here the State, while indicating the lines on which policy in each industry should be formulated, has not itself imposed the particular regulations, but simply insists that an agreed code which meets with its approval shall be adopted by every branch of industry. The codes have to prescribe minimum standards of pay and labour conditions, rules of fair practice and, in some cases, price and production control; the price-fixing part, however, was largely dropped in 1934.

Several other countries have followed this type of organisation, though on a less comprehensive and uniform scale. The State has prescribed that particular industries in which conditions are specially depressed, or which occupy a key position in the national economy, shall organise themselves, in return, usually, for some form of State assistance such as a protective tariff or subsidy. Thus in *Poland* the sugar industry was compulsorily organised in 1925 and regulation of the coal, metal and oil industries was introduced respectively in 1930, 1932 and 1933. Here the State has used its control over the cartels to further its deflationary policy; the prices of coal, iron, steel, oil, sugar, paper and other cartellised products were compulsorily reduced during 1934.

In *Czechoslovakia* organisation of the coal industry is being pressed for by the Government, and also of the beer industry, in return for tax relief. In this country direct control is exercised by the State in several industries; thus the Act of 12 March 1934 fixed a maximum for the total production of artificial fats, allocated production quotas among individual undertakings, and made the establishment of new factories conditional upon Government permission. By an Act of 13 April 1934 similar permission was also prescribed for the setting up of new factories in the glass industry.

Encouragement of industrial associations has taken place on a considerable scale in *Japan* under the Control of Principal Industries Act of August 1931, which aimed at the formation of cartels, and through them at the State control of industry. Twenty-four industries, including cotton, rayon, paper, cement, pig-iron and steel have already been cartellised. The Industrial Association Act of 1925, amended in 1931, encourages systematic grouping among small producers and authorises the Government to confer privileges and grant financial aid to industrial organisations formed under this Act. By April 1934 392 such organisations had been formed.

In *Great Britain* particular efforts have been made to stimulate reorganisation in the important export industries—coal, iron and steel, and cotton. In the case of coal, the Coal Mines Reorganisation Commission was set up under Part 2 of the Coal Mines Act of 1930 to promote amalgamations in the industry. The policy of the Commission has been to encourage, where possible, voluntary amalgamation schemes and, where they are not forthcoming, to prepare and apply compulsory schemes of its own. The preparation of voluntary schemes made some headway during 1934, particularly in the coalfields of West Yorkshire, North Staffordshire and the Lothians.

For the iron and steel industry the State granted a 33 ⅓ per cent. protective duty on imported steel conditionally on the formation of a national scheme of reorganisation. A national committee was appointed in 1932 to draw up such a scheme and the temporary duty was prolonged for two years from October 1932. Much difficulty was encountered in the preparation of a scheme, but in

April 1934 some progress was made, in that the British National Federation of Iron and Steel Manufacturers appointed a new executive committee, under an independent chairman, directed to take measures: (1) to promote the maximum manufacturing and commercial efficiency throughout the industry; (2) to expand the export trade in iron and steel products; and (3) to obtain the affiliation of associations. The import duty was prolonged after the date of expiry in October 1934, without further limit.

In the cotton industry two important reorganisation proposals were discussed during 1934. The first, recommending the formation of a voluntary association to administer a quota system, was circulated to all members of the industry, but failed to secure adequate support. The second, based on the report of the Colwyn Committee, proposing the purchase and removal of ten million surplus spindles, obtained sufficient votes on a ballot of the industry and has been promised the support of the Government. Apart from questions of actual production control, an important Act was passed regarding the generalisation of collective wage agreements in the cotton manufacturing industry.

In *Belgium* a scheme for the organisation of coal production was set out in a Bill put forward in June 1934, providing for a central office to control the industry. An Act of 7 December gave the Government authority to impose regulations necessary for the efficient organisation of all production, sale, imports, exports and transport of coal in the country.

The continued force of the widespread development of industrial control is indicated by the proposals for comprehensive industrial organisation which have recently been discussed in several of the most traditionally *laisser-faire* countries. Thus, in France, England and the Netherlands, enabling Bills providing for the collective organisation of producers in the various branches of industry and giving them the power of forcing all members into line with proposals approved by the majority were drawn up during 1934 and were being discussed early in 1935.

In the international field, too, there are schemes in force for controlling or restricting the production of nearly all the main primary commodities, and these have exerted a considerable influence in raising or maintaining prices. Thus during the year 3 January 1934 to 2 January 1935 the price of flax increased by 83 per cent. owing to the restriction of supplies by the Russian and Baltic monopolies. The price of rubber increased by 51 per cent. as a result of the new agreement concluded on 7 May 1934 between the Governments of France, the United Kingdom, India, the Netherlands and Siam, to regulate the production and export of rubber. The price of American cotton rose by 32 per cent. as a result of the ploughing-in of part of the American crop and the fixing of minimum prices in the United States. The price of jute rose by 9 per cent. in response to an attempt in Bengal at crop curtailment. Tinplates rose in price by 8 per cent. following the international price and quota distribution agreement concluded between Great Britain, the

United States, Germany, France and the Saar, into which Italy, too, recently entered. Tin prices were maintained as a result of the international restriction scheme. The prices of most foodstuffs rose during the year, partly as a result of short crops, and partly as a result of deliberate control of production. Tea, however, for which a restriction scheme was instituted in 1933, fell in price by 18 per cent., both on account of the increased production in countries not adhering to the scheme, and in response to relaxation of restriction.

Commercial Policy

The growth of Government intervention and planning within the domestic sphere has inevitably spread also into the field of international trade. The quantity and kind of imports and exports of a country are no longer left entirely to the decisions of individual merchants; nor is the adjustment of the balance of payments left either to the automatic working of gold flows or, in the case of non-gold-standard countries, to automatic movements of the exchange rates. In the first place, particularly since the onset of the depression, countries have been devoting an increasing amount of attention to industries producing for the home market and, consequently, have yielded with growing frequency to pressure for their protection from the competition of foreign producers. At the same time a notable tendency has been developing both towards self-sufficiency and—particularly in the matter of foodstuffs—towards the attainment of a better balance between industrial and agricultural production, leading to the simultaneous protection of industries in agricultural countries and of agriculture in industrial countries. Moreover, among the most important influences in recent commercial policy have been monetary considerations of one sort or another. The actual part played by these considerations has differed according to the type of currency policy being pursued. Thus the currency of most of the countries operating now on either a free or a nominal gold standard has tended to become overvalued, largely as the result of the progressive depreciation of currencies no longer attached to gold or with reduced gold parity ratios, and the gold-standard countries have therefore suffered from a constant tendency towards an adverse trade balance. While in the gold-standard countries, which are all firmly committed to safeguarding the present gold parities of their currencies, the fear of losing gold is the main stimulus to the policy of restricting imports, in those operating exchange-control systems this control itself is evidence of the fact that normal trade restrictions have largely proved insufficient to prevent undue losses of gold and foreign assets; and it is consequently on the whole in the latter group that the most extreme measures of international trade control are in force.

Within the group of countries with free paper currencies, monetary policy has not so much influenced commercial policy as it has

in itself formed an important element in commercial policy. In all these countries the departure from a fixed gold parity has led to considerable depreciation of the currency in terms of gold, which has acted at the same time as an all-round protection against imports and as a simultaneous stimulus to exports. The degree of depreciation of the monetary unit has been to some extent controlled in most of these countries by means of purchases and sales of foreign exchange or gold by the Governments or central banks with a view to influencing deliberately the external value of the currency.

The year 1934 was a very active one in commercial policy, but it is hard to say whether the net outcome has tended on the whole towards an increase or a decrease in the total volume of restrictions on international trade. It is clear, at any rate, that whatever relaxation has been achieved has been of slight extent, and as evidence for this it may be pointed out that, although the progressive shrinkage in international trade which has been going on since 1929 received a distinct check in the past year, and in spite of a marked decrease in foreign exchange fluctuations, there is still a very considerable lag of international trade recovery behind the recovery of production and business activity as a whole.

The most striking feature of recent commercial policy has been the dominating influence of bilateral agreements, of which a very large number were concluded during 1934. These agreements have on the whole tended towards a diversion rather than an expansion of total international trade; they have mostly been concerned with the mutual allotment of import quotas for particular goods or of the foreign exchange quotas to pay for them, or else with clearing or compensation agreements limiting quantitatively the total imports from each country to be admitted by the other, but in very few cases with mutual reductions in existing tariffs. (A few such reductions have been included in agreements made by some South American countries, some members of the British Empire, and one or two European countries.)

The main tendency of these bilateral agreements has been towards an approximate balancing of the value of trade between the contracting parties and has thus by its inevitable restriction on triangular trade [1] acted definitely in the direction of reducing the total volume of international exchanges, of which a very large part formerly consisted precisely of this triangular variety. In the case of clearing and compensation agreements it has nearly always been the case that the balance which is attained has been at the level of the country which imported less rather than of that which imported more.

[1] In this connection, however, it is interesting to note a clearing agreement actually providing for triangular trade, concluded between Greece and Yugoslavia in August 1934, under which Yugoslavia may cede part of the credits obtained by trade with Greece to other countries which have clearing agreements with Greece.

At the same time, since these agreements are so largely based on quota regulations rather than on tariffs, they have tended to render ineffective and obsolete one of the few influences hitherto acting towards freer international trade—the most-favoured-nation clause—which has generally been regarded by the quota-imposing countries as not applicable to agreements based on quantitative control. Indeed, the change-over from the more liberal method of import control by tariffs to the more interventionist method of quotas has probably been partly inspired by a desire to evade the liberalising effects of most-favoured-nation clauses in existing trade treaties. In a few recent trade agreements, however, e.g. those made by Great Britain with France and with the Netherlands, attempts have been made to reintroduce the equivalent of this clause in the case of quantitative restrictions by providing that countries benefiting from it should be allowed unconditionally the full proportion of the import quotas based on imports received during some past representative period.

Considerable changes in tariffs took place during the year, the main part involving adjustment in an upward direction; but there were also a few exceptional cases of tariff reductions. Of greater significance than these changes, however, was the increasing use of more drastic methods of control in the place of tariffs. Particularly in Europe, the system of quantitative control of exports or of foreign exchange has to a great extent superseded both import duties and comparative prices as the main determinant of the movements of international trade. The chief new adherents to the quota system in Europe during 1934 were the Netherlands, Italy and Spain. Other countries where this system has already been in use for several years extended its scope considerably during the year.

Quotas, instead of being used, as was originally intended, merely as an emergency measure for protecting some domestic industries or for correcting an acutely adverse trade balance, have now come to be accepted as permanent bargaining weapons for commercial agreements. The usual method is that of France, where only a small proportion of the imports from any country admitted over some representative period is granted unconditionally, while the rest is offered as a bait to be given only in return for some *quid pro quo*. This is the main reason why in 1934 so few adjustments of import quotas were due to unilateral action by the importing countries, most of them being the outcome of reciprocal action agreed upon in bilateral treaties. Such agreements were made by France, Germany, the Netherlands, Poland, Turkey, and most countries of Central and Eastern Europe.

Although showing great zeal in the conclusion of trade agreements, few countries have shown themselves willing to commit themselves under these agreements for any length of time. They are often concluded only for six months, sometimes for one year, and in a few cases even for three months only. Those of longer duration, as, for example, that between the United States and

Cuba for three years, and that between Great Britain and some of the Baltic States for a year and a half, are exceptional.

A more centralised form of import control has been adopted in many countries in the establishment of import monopolies either by the Government or by some central agency, particularly in the case of foods and raw materials. There were examples of this development during 1934 especially in Germany, but also in the Netherlands, Latvia, Great Britain, Czechoslovakia and Italy.

Probably one of the most influential of the restrictive developments of commercial policy in Europe during 1934 has been that in Germany. Since March 1932 a general control of foreign exchange has been in force, but the allocations have been progressively reduced. During 1934 the increase in imports, largely due to the domestic expansion, rendered the system of exchange quotas inadequate to preserve the resources of foreign exchange. An Act of 22 March 1934 restricted the total amount of raw materials in the textile, non-ferrous metal, and rubber industries, but the consequent shortage of raw materials had the undesired effect of increasing the imports of finished goods. In June 1934 the system of controlling the total amount of foreign exchange available was replaced by one of exact allocation of quotas, but this also proved insufficient, as is shown by the fact that between January and September 1934 the foreign exchange reserves of the Reichsbank were reduced from 307 million RM. to 79 million RM. A new regulation of imports was introduced on 24 September, involving the extension of control to all commodities under a system of import permits granted by supervision boards *(Ueberwachungsstellen)*. Only commodities absolutely essential for internal production may be admitted at all. An important place is occupied by clearing agreements under these new regulations. Such agreements are actually in force between Germany and Hungary, Yugoslavia, Rumania, Czechoslovakia, Norway, Switzerland, France, the Netherlands, Great Britain, Austria, Sweden, Belgium, Luxemburg, Italy and Poland.

Another country where restriction has been increased is Rumania, where the new regulations of October 1934 prescribe that imports must be preceded by the exports which pay for them, and that only 60 per cent. of the proceeds of the latter shall be available for paying for the former.

Outside Europe a somewhat more liberal tendency may be observed in 1934. In the United States a significant step was taken by the permission granted to the President in June to adjust tariffs in either direction by 50 per cent. as a means of negotiating trade agreements for the furthering of international trade. By the end of 1934 the first reciprocal agreement under this provision had been concluded with Cuba (in September), and negotiations had been opened with other countries which led to several agreements in 1935.

In Latin America, where international trade has for the last few years been severely handicapped by foreign exchange restrictions,

these have been nearly everywhere progressively relaxed and tariffs have been restored as the main instrument of commercial regulation. They were extensively revised during 1934, both upwards and downwards. In Brazil duties were reduced on many foreign products either not directly competitive with those produced at home or else such as were considered necessary to the economic life of the country; Cuban duties were also reduced to some extent in connection with the agreement with the United States; and Panama completely abolished duties on about 600 commodities, mostly consumers' goods. On the other hand, the new tariffs of Venezuela and Honduras and that proposed by Peru all involved adjustments in an upward direction. Many of the trade agreements concluded by Latin American countries during 1934 tended towards the balancing of bilateral trade through exchange control and quotas, but at the same time there were several providing for most-favoured-nation treatment and leading towards an extension of triangular trade.

In the British Empire (apart from Great Britain and Northern Ireland) the use of quotas has remained comparatively limited, and import duties, used partly for the granting of Imperial Preference, are the main method of foreign trade control at present employed. There has been a slight tendency towards downward tariff changes in the British Dominions during the year and at the same time towards an increase in preference. In the British colonies quotas have been introduced on textile imports for the protection of the Lancashire producers. A number of trade agreements were concluded by the British Dominions with other countries during the year, tending on the whole towards a freeing of international trade; e.g. the Canadian agreement with France and that between New Zealand and Belgium both provided for the reduction of duties among other concessions.

Of the agreements made by Great Britain during the year few offered any reduction of existing duties. Those with the Baltic countries and with Poland offered in return for duty concessions and purchase commitments only the safeguarding of the existing position of the products of these countries in British markets against possible increases in duties or quota reductions in the future.

A form of intervention aiming also at stimulating a favourable trade balance, but by an increase of exports rather than by a decrease in imports, is that of the export bounty, which was extended during the past year in several cases, for example, Great Britain, Irish Free State, Australia, Union of South Africa and Germany.

Summing up the general tendencies of commercial policy in 1934, it may be stated that there has been a slight check in the use of quantitative control, but at the same time a growth in the movement towards the bilateral balancing of trade by clearing and compensation agreements at the expense of triangular trade. Perhaps the most promising attempt towards an expansion of the total volume of trade—though still on a very limited scale—has been that of several groups of countries to encourage expansion of trade among

themselves. Such group movements have been developing, for instance, within the countries party to the Baltic Entente (1918-1919), among American countries as the result of the Montevideo Conference at the end of 1933, between Italy, Austria and Hungary following the signature of the Rome agreement in March 1934, between the countries of the Little Entente, among the countries party to the Balkan Pact of February 1934, between the gold-bloc countries following the Brussels Conference of November 1934, and within the British Empire as a consequence of the Ottawa agreements of 1932.

Monetary and Financial Policy

The notable differences already observed between general economic activity and the development of international trade in the gold-bloc countries and in those with depreciated currencies, as well as between those with expansionist and those with restrictionist policies, are even more evident in the sphere of money and finance.

The deflation in the gold bloc was on the whole continued, but in varying degrees. In *France* difficulties were met with in balancing the budget. Notwithstanding economies involving 4,000 million francs, the year closed with a budget deficit, which was one of the reasons for the large volume of Treasury borrowing (19,000 million francs). The public debt reached the record figure of 320,000 million francs, an increase of 46,000 million in thirty-two months. The heavy recourses of the State to the loan market exerted an upward pressure on interest rates (as much as 6.8 per cent. was paid on recent Government loans) and thus tended to keep out private issues. When the new Government came into office in November, a change in policy was foreshadowed, of an expansionist nature; deflation was declared to be over. The first evidences of the new policy were seen in the raising of the limit of Treasury bond issues by 50 per cent., designed to enable the Government to obtain temporary accommodation in this way and to relieve the pressure on the long-term capital market. It was hoped that the Bank of France would rediscount these bills and thereby help to increase general liquidity.

Belgium continued the policy of deflation during 1934. The cost of living was reduced by 7½ per cent., special measures were introduced for balancing the budget, and additional taxes were imposed. The situation was aggravated by a severe credit crisis and the suspension of the Labour Bank at Ghent, involving 600 million francs of deposits [1].

In *Switzerland*, too, a new drive towards deflation was initiated,

[1] The above was written before the events of 1935; it will be remembered that in March the new Government decided to devaluate the belga by 28 per cent.

but has so far made little progress. Many cuts in public expenditure were made, but a deficit of over 40 million francs is forecast for the present financial year. Here, as also in the *Netherlands*, there was an abundance of cheap money but no corresponding expansion of commercial borrowing.

In *Poland* it was declared that the deflation necessary for adjusting costs to the fall in prices had been completed and that henceforth some expansion might be expected as a result of the progressive lowering of interest rates. So far, the main effect has been to facilitate Government borrowing for the budget deficit, which borrowing took place to the extent of about 20 million zlotys per month during 1934. The Bank of Poland lost 60 million zlotys of foreign exchange during 1934, of which about half was compensated by an increase in gold due to reduced hoarding; but so far no restrictions have been imposed on the transfer of gold or foreign exchange.

In *Italy* the deflation which has been attempted on the one hand has had to work against a considerable, though partly concealed, credit expansion on the other. The latter has been brought about to some extent through an increase in industrial credit supplied by semi-official credit institutions, but mainly through the operation of public works on a large scale financed by the method of " deferred payments ", by which the immediate financial burden has been borne by " parastatal " credit institutions (whose funds are partly derived from national savings) and the burden on the budget is spread over a number of years. As a result of this more or less unconscious expansionist policy, prices in Italy have not fallen as in the other gold-standard countries and there has been a considerable revival of activity on the domestic market. Critical consequences have followed, however, in the foreign exchange situation; for the increase in imports of raw materials due to domestic expansion, combined with decreased exports resulting from the failure to reduce prices, has led to a serious shrinkage in the gold and foreign exchange reserves of the Bank of Italy, which fell between January and December by some 1,540 million lire. Consequently, severe measures of foreign exchange control and import regulations were imposed on 8 December; their effect is indicated by the fact that by the end of the month reserves had risen by nearly 100 million lire. The restrictive measures taken in 1934 consisted in budget economies involving a reduction of from 8 to 12 per cent. in the salaries of public employees in April and a rise in the bank rate in November from 3 to 4 per cent., intended to prevent further reductions in the gold and foreign exchange reserves of the Central Bank.

A situation somewhat similar to that of Italy, though even more marked, was that which developed in *Germany*. Here, too, public works were conducted on a very large scale, financed ultimately by mortgaging the revenues of future budgets. The immediate method of financing has been by the issue of work-creating bills *(Arbeitsbeschaffungswechseln)* by banks and credit institutions;

the greater part of these bills has been rediscounted at the Reichsbank, which, together with open-market operations, has led to a considerable increase in general liquidity and a reduction in short-term interest rates. Prices continued to rise during the year, and as in Italy the increase in imports and fall in exports led to an acute shortage of gold and foreign exchange. The Reichsbank reserves fell from 395 million RM. at the end of 1933 to the record low level of 77 million RM. in June 1934 and amounted to only 83.7 million RM. at the end of the year. In June a general transfer moratorium was declared on all long-term foreign debts. This position was subsequently modified in response to the protests of creditor countries. The standstill agreements were prolonged for another year and transfer was promised of the service on the Dawes and Young loans.

In *Spain* budget deficits continued to be met by Government borrowing, which benefited considerably from the fall in interest rates. Exchange transactions are under strict control, and the currency showed a greater stability than in former years.

Portugal recorded the sixth successive budget surplus, in spite of considerable expenditure on public works.

There was a slight improvement in the monetary situation in central Europe. *Czechoslovakia* eased its position in February by the depreciation of the currency by one-sixth and the reduction of the legal gold cover from 30 to 25 per cent., and at the same time took steps to prevent any unwarranted rise in prices. An attempt was made to revive the credit market by the establishment of a Discount and Lombard Institute. In *Austria*, the most important development was the removal of nearly all remaining restrictions on foreign exchange. In April the National Bank was authorised to revalue its gold and foreign exchange holdings at 28 per cent. above their former value in recognition of the depreciation of the currency; the result was to raise the metal reserve from 189 to 241 millon schillings. The liquidity of the commercial banks and the money market increased and the bank rate was lowered from 5 to 4½ per cent. Expansionist schemes for creating employment have been carried out, financed out of 115 million schillings from the State Lottery Loan and 30 million shillings borrowed by the city of Vienna. Considerable interest relief was obtained by conversions, of which the most important was that of the League of Nations Loan. In *Hungary*, too, there has been a liberalising of the exchange control and transfer moratorium regulations. A large proportion of blocked pengö balances accumulated from interest and capital repayments has been transferred, although at a substantial discount, which in effect has reduced the interest received on the loans from about 5 to 3 or 3½ per cent. Although nominally still at the old gold parity, the pengö was in fact managed at a depreciated level during 1934 by the allowance of export premiums and the collection of import surcharges on foreign exchange of from 20 to 40 per cent.; a premium of nearly 50 per cent. was allowed

on foreign exchange brought in by tourists. The budget situation improved slightly, but equilibrium was not achieved.

Budget deficits in several eastern European countries were reduced. Both *Greece* and *Yugoslavia* ended with a surplus on the year 1933-1934 and receipts in the first half of 1934-1935 were considerably higher than in the previous year, partly owing to economic recovery and partly to new taxes. In Yugoslavia exchange restrictions were released, some blocked balances were mobilised, and credit conditions were eased by the lowering of the bank rate from 7½ to 6 per cent.

In *Bulgaria*, as also in *Rumania*, the financial situation remained unsatisfactory and further budget deficits are anticipated for the current year. The policy of cheap money in Rumania led to a reduction in the bank rate to 4½ per cent., but the yield on Government bonds remained well over 10 per cent. Here, as in Bulgaria, the position of the currency and the difficulties of transfer are still critical. An arrangement concluded in Bulgaria to increase from 25 to 32½ per cent. the percentage of the service on Government loans transferred was later suspended and the quotas were reduced owing to the shortage of foreign exchange not already earmarked under clearing agreements.

The financial situation in the sterling group was characterised everywhere by a fall in exchange rates against gold and in several cases by expansionist measures of one sort or another. In *Denmark*, recovery was somewhat hampered by the falling-off in exports owing to the imposition of new quantitative restrictions (mainly the bacon quota in Great Britain; bacon exports to Great Britain fell from 284 million kilograms in 1933 to 219 million in 1934); the cheap money policy, however, led to a building boom, which was largely responsible both for the rise in the production index from 98 to 114 (1928 = 100) and for the 25 per cent. increase in timber imports. There was a loss in foreign exchange reserves (from the National Bank and from all private banks together) of 70 million kroner during the year.

The situation in *Sweden* has been dominated by the currency depreciation, which has led to a stimulation of exports and consequent accumulation of gold and foreign exchange at the Riksbank, whose holdings increased from 816 million kroner at the end of 1933 to 904 million at the end of 1934, and this formed the basis for a great increase in commercial bank liquidity. There was also some revival in foreign lending, which tended to accentuate further the undervaluation of the krona and to stimulate exports. The expansionist financial policy which has been pursued for the last two years, based on public works financed by deliberately unbalancing the budget, is declared to be now no longer necessary owing to the degree of Sweden's economic recovery.

In *Norway*, on the other hand, of the considerable total of 43 million kroner (out of a budget of 397 million) to be spent on

alleviation of the depression, as much as 14.7 million kroner is still to be financed by loans in the current year. Cheap money has also been a feature here and resulted in the conversion of about 300 million kroner of Government and industrial loans.

In both *Finland* and *Estonia*, the benefits of currency depreciation and of cheap money were felt and the stimulation of exports led to an inflow of gold and foreign exchange. Their position may be contrasted with that of *Lithuania* and *Latvia*, both of which have remained on the gold standard. Lithuania suffered severe losses in foreign exchange reserves and Latvia succeeded in reducing its passive balance of trade only by increasing State export subsidies, which have created serious budget difficulties. It is estimated that 20 per cent. of total expenditure has been devoted to the support of agriculture.

The British Dominions, like Great Britain, all benefited to some extent from the depreciation of their currencies. The greatest benefit, as might be expected, was felt in the *Union of South Africa*, where the gold price of 140 shillings per ounce so stimulated mining enterprise, and indirectly the whole economic activity of the country, that the main body of unemployment was absorbed; with the help of a special tax on mining profits the budget yielded a surplus, which was used to wipe out debts incurred from previous deficits as well as to reduce the income tax and to remit a number of import duties on articles of consumption. By a payment of £7,949,000 to the British Government, South Africa cleared herself of her total external war debt. Substantial conversion operations relieved by about £515,000 the annual burden of the public debt, which itself was reduced to £246,400,000.

Canada, as a producer of gold, also enjoyed the benefits of the gold premium. The budget situation was improved both by increased revenues and by considerable interest relief, due to conversions—domestic and in London—and to a fall in short-term borrowing rates. Parliament granted authority for an expansion of the currency, which was exercised to the extent that the note issue on 30 December 1934 stood at 217 million dollars, compared with 183 million a year earlier, whereas the gold backing had increased by only about 1½ million dollars. Under the pressure of the Government policy of cheap money, the banks reduced their interest rates.

The budget situation in *Australia*, which has been improving over the last few years, continued slowly but steadily to approach an equilibrium in 1934. The benefits of currency depreciation for export industries (especially gold mining) were unfortunately counterbalanced in part by European import quotas on wool and its sharp fall in price from July onwards. Twenty per cent. of trade union membership is reported to be still unemployed and plans are therefore being prepared for an increase in locally raised loan expenditure on public works.

In *New Zealand* a balanced budget due mainly to increased revenue and lighter interest charges is expected for the current year; in anticipation of this, old-age pensions and public employees' salaries have been raised by 5 per cent. Money rates have been reduced, partly as a result of transactions in connection with the establishment of the new Reserve Bank, which began business on 1 August 1934. The Reserve Bank took over from the Government the sterling credits which the latter had previously purchased from private banks and paid for with Treasury bills; these have now been redeemed, leading to an increase in liquid funds at the commercial banks and a consequent reduction in discount rates.

In *Great Britain*, the same feature of liquidity and low interest rates was evident, due to the shortage both of commercial bills, caused by slackness in international trade, and of Treasury bills, caused by the Government's financial policy. Bank advances hardly increased at all and the prices of gilt-edged securities soared as a result of the diversion of funds from the money market to their purchase. There was, however, at the same time an encouraging activity in the new capital market, particularly in the issue of ordinary shares. The budget situation improved, the trade balance benefited from the 10 per cent. depreciation of sterling and the Bank of England acquired £1,000,000 of additional gold during the year. There was a slight revival of foreign lending, mainly to members of the sterling group.

The *United States* shared partly in the experiences of the sterling group as regards the stimulation of exports, but followed a less orthodox budget policy. The main financial event of the year was the passage of the Gold Reserve Act, which stabilised the dollar at the end of January at 35 dollars to an ounce of gold; this rate was considerably below the current gold value and resulted for the first few months in enormous shipments of gold from Europe to the United States: over a thousand million dollars of gold was acquired during the year. The Act further provided for the taking over by the Treasury of the gold reserves of the Federal Reserve System and for the setting up of a Stabilisation Fund out of the " profits " of the devaluation, which was to be used by the Secretary of the Treasury for such dealings in gold, foreign exchange or Government securities " as the regulation of the currency, the maintenance of the credit of the Government and the general welfare of the United States may require ". The President was given authority to fix the value of the dollar at between 50 and 60 per cent. of its former gold value, but so far the dollar has been maintained without change at about 59.06 per cent. of its old parity. No open-market operations were conducted during the year, but a similar effect on the reserves of member banks resulted from the enormous increase in gold stocks, mainly imported, but swelled by home production and the recovery of scrap to the extent of about an additional 200 million dollars. The expansionist budgetary policy which has been one of the fundamental charac-

teristics of the New Deal continued to be pursued. The public debt increased during the year from 23,814 million to 28,479 million dollars (as compared with an increase of 3,000 million in 1933).

In the summer an important step—whose main effects, however, were felt outside the United States—was taken in the passage of the Silver Purchase Act, which nationalised all silver bullion stocks held in the country and empowered the Administration to purchase silver in the world's markets until the monetary reserves of the country consisted of 25 per cent. of silver and 75 per cent. of gold. Active purchases began in August and drove the London price up between 13 August and 15 October from $21\,^{9}/_{16}$ pence to $24\,^{7}/_{8}$ pence an ounce. This was more than double the 1931 low price of $12\,^{1}/_{8}$ pence and had disastrous consequences in the corresponding appreciation of the exchange which it caused in *China*. The resultant overvaluation of the currency there led to the development of an adverse trade balance, the export of silver on a tremendous scale, an internal reduction of purchasing power and the collapse of prices and trade. To arrest this process the Chinese Government imposed in October a 10 per cent. export duty on silver and an " equalisation charge " aimed at cutting the exchange away from silver and pegging it to sterling. The United States also relaxed its silver purchases during the last three months of the year, in response to Chinese protests.

To some extent *Japan* benefited at the expense of China as a result of the United States silver policy, as can be seen in the rise of Japanese exports to China itself. In spite of meteorological disasters, Japan's economic recovery proceeded during 1934. Low money rates continued, but owing to open-market sales of Government securities by the Central Bank the note circulation did not rise, even in the face of vast Government borrowing. The budget for the year 1934-1935 again envisages a large deficit of 896 million yen, to be met by new loans. Considerable activity continued in the new capital issue market in response to low interest rates and rising industrial profits. Wholesale prices increased by only about 1⅓ per cent. during the year and the currency also remained comparatively stable.

Even in South America, a region characterised recently by exchange difficulties, there were several signs of improvement in 1934. With the exception of *Venezuela* (which enjoys the unique distinction of having no external debt) and of *Peru*, exchange control is to some extent in force in all Latin-American countries, but is in most of them gradually being relaxed. In the majority of these countries exchange regulation has been mainly restricted to the proceeds of some staple export (e.g. coffee in *Brazil*, nitrate of soda in *Chile*), the remaining supplies of foreign exchange being gradually " freed ". Later developments have tended to the " freeing " also of exchange obtained from the main product exported, but at the same time a serious drain on the available supplies of foreign exchange is being exercised by clearing and compensation agreements. Several South American countries have

resorted to depreciation of the currency, some simply by increasing the quotas of export exchange to be allowed on the free markets (e.g. Ecuador), and some by Government management (e.g. Argentina, Chile and Venezuela). A reduction of money rates in these countries has resulted to some extent from the large volume of direct Government borrowing from the central banks.

Certain general characteristics of monetary and financial developments in 1934 can be discerned. The policy of cheap money led to a continued accumulation of liquid funds and a consequent further fall in interest rates. This enabled the carrying through of a large number of conversion operations, and resulted in a few countries—particularly in the sterling group and Japan—in some revival of new capital issues.

Attempts were made in several countries to relieve the internal private debt situation. Thus in Belgium it was decreed that frozen industrial credits to the extent of 2,000 million francs held by the banks should be ceded to the *Société Nationale de Crédit à l'Industrie* in exchange for 3 per cent. Government guaranteed bonds; the latter institution to give twenty years' respite to debtors and reduce the rate of interest which they have to pay. In Rumania an Agricultural and Urban Debt Conversion Act was passed which reduced agricultural debts substantially, as also private urban debts contracted before 1932. In Bulgaria a law was introduced reducing all debts incurred before 1 January 1931, the difference to be paid by the State. In Argentina there was a general reduction in mortgage interest and an extension of the repayment period. In India the question of agricultural debt relief has been very widely discussed, especially at the inter-provincial economic conference in April 1934, and stringent legislation on the subject was passed in the Central Provinces, the United Provinces and the Punjab.

Important banking reorganisations and reforms were introduced in several countries during the past year. In Belgium an Act was passed prohibiting mixed banking (i.e. the acceptance of deposits and industrial participation by the same institution). In Austria further amalgamations were carried out involving the absorption of the *Wiener Bankverein* and the banking business of the *Niederösterreichische Escomptegesellschaft* into the *Kredit-Anstalt.* The industrial business of the *Escomptegesellschaft* was taken over by the newly established *Industriekredit A.G.*, controlled by the National Bank. A compulsory amalgamation was carried through also in Bulgaria, combining the State co-operative and agricultural banks. In Rumania a new banking law involving strict supervision was passed. A Commission of Enquiry into Currency, Credit and Banking was appointed in the Irish Free State, to discuss such questions as currency devaluation and the establishment of a central bank.

Considerable advances were made in the development of central banking in the British Dominions during 1934. The Reserve Bank

of New Zealand, which had been established in 1933, began business on 1 August 1934, and Acts were passed setting up Central Reserve Banks in India on 6 March and in Canada on 3 July 1934. The proposed bank in India is to have a special department for agricultural credit, and an expert investigator has been appointed to report on the most suitable form which this department should take.

On the whole it may be said that 1934 was a year of somewhat greater stability, in banking as well as in currency, and, apart from the outstanding exceptions of Japan and the United States, there was in most cases a tendency towards budget equilibrium both in expansionist countries where deliberately unbalanced budgets had been adopted during the depression, and in deflationary countries where additional taxation and cuts in public expenditure have begun to take effect. Of the two financial lines of attack on the depression, it seems as though—with the possible exception of the United States—the countries which have depreciated their currencies and expanded their public expenditure have on the whole fared better than those which have followed the more orthodox policy of adherence to their gold parities and deflationary adjustment to falling world prices.

Many of the political measures indicated in this chapter—the control of production, of international trade and of currency and credit—illustrate the growing tendency towards national economic planning, in the sense of Government intervention in and direction of the economic activities of the nation. It is not always easy to recognise the end towards which this planning is directed or to judge exactly how it will react on the interests of particular sections of the community. As regards the organisation of production and marketing, so far as its objects and effects are restricted to the improvement of efficiency, the whole community may gain: producers from lower costs and consumers from lower prices. Sometimes, however, the regulation of production may extend beyond the sphere of merely improving efficiency and tend towards the establishment of quasi-monopoly situations for producers, enabling them to enjoy higher prices and profits at the expense of the consuming public. Even such a tendency can be justified in some cases where it consists essentially in a process of correcting a previous maladjustment, for instance where prices were already abnormally and unremuneratively low, but the " natural " economic forces making for the elimination of the less efficient producers had been prevented by institutional or other reasons from functioning properly; then the restriction of production by collective agreement or by Government intervention may be regarded simply as a substitution for the hampered " natural " economic forces, inferior to them only in that the producers and production eliminated are not necessarily the least efficient. How far the actual measures for controlling production described above overstep this line and tend towards the establishment of situations making possible mono-

polistic exploitation cannot be decided without further examination of each particular case. From the point of view of the mass of the workers, who may be identified in large part with the mass of the consumers, these methods of production control cannot always be regarded as an unmixed blessing. Even where they provide for improved labour conditions (as with the United States codes), the advantages may be counterbalanced by a higher cost of living and by the restriction of the field of productive employment.

The control of international trade tends to react favourably or unfavourably on the mass of the community—whether regarded in their aspect as workers or as consumers—according to whether the measures of control have the effect of extending or of contracting the total volume of international trade. In general, a larger volume of international trade means a higher standard of living and a more economic employment of productive resources. Against this fundamental principle may be set various—strictly speaking, non-economic—mitigating circumstances, such as the desirability of a more balanced economic life of the community or of greater resistance to and independence of political and economic disturbances from abroad. As in the case of the control of production, it is clear that certain interventions in the field of international trade can be justified as merely counteracting the restrictive effects of already existing interventions, and thus restoring to some extent the " natural " flow of trade between nations; and in other cases definitely restrictive measures, in themselves disadvantageous, may be forced on a country by the damaging effects on its balance of payments of similar measures taken by other countries. For these reasons, although a freer flow of goods between nations is, *ceteris paribus,* the policy to be aimed at, no general statement can be made as to whether particular measures of control taken at this advanced stage of the strangulation of international trade tend towards its release or to its further strangulation; each case will have to be judged on its merits.

In the field of currency and credit there is perhaps a greater clarity as to the general aims of the measures taken and their effects. The policy of cheap money which has been pursued almost universally during the past year is undoubtedly a contributing factor towards a revival of economic activity; whether it might in some circumstances tend to promote a dangerous over-stimulation of activity is hardly a relevant question with regard to most parts of the world in the present phase of the economic cycle. With respect to exchange rates, the improvement in stability is undoubtedly in itself a beneficial factor, but there still exists considerable disequilibrium in regard to the relative values of the various currencies at the present time. Further adjustment is necessary either in relative price levels or in the exchange rates of the different countries or probably in both; moreover, measures relating to the value of the various currencies cannot be regarded apart from the regulation of international trade, since changes in the volume and direction of the latter necessarily affect the equilibrium rates of

exchange. Future developments of economic planning will have to tend towards greater stability of exchange rates at levels which would be consistent with a freer flow of international trade and which, judging from the relative experiences of the deflationary and expansionist countries at the present time, would also avoid the necessity of a serious downward adjustment of prices in any group of countries.

CHAPTER II

CONDITIONS OF WORK

Hours of Work

Hours of Work in Industry

National Regulations

Argentina. — In virtue of the Decree of 25 January 1933, to which reference was made in the last issue of the *Year-Book* [1], the executive authorities of the Province of Santa Fé promulgated on 21 November 1934 a Decree which fixes hours of work in industrial and commercial establishments at 8 in the day and 48 in the week. In the preamble to the new Decree, the Governor of the Province refers to the principles of the Washington Hours Convention, which Argentina ratified in 1933.

At a meeting on 20 June 1934, the trade unions affiliated to the General Confederation of Labour stated that their programme ought to include the question of the introduction of a 40-hour week.

Australia. — At a Constitutional Conference held at Melbourne in February 1934 and attended by the representatives of the States, the Commonwealth Prime Minister proposed a constitutional amendment empowering the Commonwealth Arbitration Court to make a common rule fixing a standard of wages and hours of work for the whole Commonwealth. With the exception of New South Wales, the States rejected this proposal.

The Commonwealth Arbitration Court, among other decisions taken late in 1933 and during 1934, provided for a 44-hour week for the woollen and worsted sections of the textile industry and for the knitting section, this measure bringing practically the whole of the textile industry under the 44-hour week. It also introduced a 44-hour week for female cordage workers, male workers in the rubber industry (female workers already had a 44-hour week), process workers, fitters and mechanics in electrical trades, workers engaged in the felt hatting, tanning and saddlery industries, and workers engaged in the sheet-metal industry except those employed in the canister-making section.

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[1] Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1933*, p. 63.

Both the Australasian Council of Trade Unions and the Australian Workers' Union adopted resolutions in favour of the 30-hour week.

According to statistics compiled by the Commonwealth Bureau of Census and Statistics, on 30 June 1934 the normal working hours of adult males were, for the Commonwealth, 45.36, the averages for the various States being: New South Wales, 44.23; Queensland, 44; South Australia, 46.83; Tasmania, 46.77; Victoria, 46.28; Western Australia, 45.51.

In New South Wales, the Industrial Commission set up under the Industrial Arbitration Act of 1932 announced on 29 March 1934 its reasons for its determination of 9 June 1933 that the standard hours for industry in general should be 44 a week. It stated that if a 48-hour working week were adopted for industry in New South Wales, a very large number of employees then in work would be thrown on the labour market, and thus the unemployment problem would be at once intensified, and the charge on the community materially increased. Further, the Commission was not satisfied that if a longer working week were adopted the prices charged to consumers could be expected to fall to any appreciable extent. The Commission continued during 1934 to hold public enquiries for the purpose of affording all concerned an opportunity of applying for exemption from the standard hours fixed for industry generally, on any of the grounds provided for in the Act.

In Queensland, the Industrial Court rejected on 23 June 1934 a number of applications to retain hours of work as they existed before the coming into force of the Industrial Conciliation and Arbitration act, i.e. hours exceeding 44 a week, expressing the opinion that no ground of exemption has been established. Its decisions in these cases called for the amendment, by the introduction of a 44-hour week, of the awards applying, *inter alia*, to the Brisbane tramway employees, to engine drivers, carters and drivers, and motor drivers, etc., in a number of districts of Queensland.

In Victoria, the Transport Regulation Act came into force on 1 January 1934. It incidentally limits the hours of work of drivers of motor-cars used for the carriage of passengers for hire or reward, or of goods, to a maximum of 5½ hours' uninterrupted driving or to an aggregate of 11 hours in any 24 hours, and requires the driver to be allowed 10 consecutive hours' rest in any 24 hours, which period may be reduced to 9 hours if, within the next 24 hours, he can enjoy 12 hours' rest.

In Western Australia, the State Arbitration Court in October 1934 granted an 88-hour fortnight to workers in the gold mining industry.

Austria. — On 13 February 1934 the Minister of Social Administration promulgated an Order which supplements the Administrative Regulations of 28 July 1920 authorising exceptions to the Eight Hour Day Act of 17 December 1919. The Order provides that hours of work in workshops used solely for the repairing of motor-cars may be so arranged as not to exceed 96 in any two consecutive weeks.

According to the reports of the factory inspectors for 1933, the application of a maximum 8-hour working day met with obstacles chiefly in undertakings where conditions of employment are not regulated by collective agreement, and which for the most part work 48 hours a week. The inspectors suggested that the undertakings should be allowed to choose between an 8-hour day and a 48-hour week. Overtime was worked mainly in road transport undertakings, in the food industry and in rural districts. On the other hand, a large number of establishments in various branches of industry, especially in the textile industry of the Vorarlberg, had to reduce their hours, in some cases by 50 per cent. and even more [1].

Belgium. — A number of measures were adopted during the year in connection with the operation of hours of work legislation.

In view of the unchanged situation in the building industry, the Royal Order of 9 October 1934 prolonged until 1 November 1935 the Royal Order of 16 July 1932 suspending the operation of the Royal Order of 26 June 1923, under which time lost owing to bad weather could be made up in the summer. In the bicycle industry, on the other hand, a Royal Order of 9 June 1934 authorises a 9-hour day from March to June, on condition that from September to December a 7-hour day is observed. A Royal Order of 23 June 1934 added " guides on tourist trains " to the list of persons holding positions of confidence who are excluded from the scope of the Eight Hour Day Act.

During 1934, the number of overtime permits granted under section 7 of the Eight Hour Day Act was 232. They covered 8,175 workers and allowed 660,261 hours of overtime to be worked. The permits granted in previous years totalled 1,133 in 1929, 608 in 1930, 284 in 1931, 176 in 1932, and 252 in 1933.

When the estimates of the Ministry of Industry and Labour were discussed in the Chamber of Representatives on 7 and 8 December 1933, several speakers dwelt on the necessity of introducing a 40-hour week. The Minister of Industry and Labour replied that it was impossible to introduce this reform without an international agreement, but expressed himself in favour of spreading the work available in industry over the largest possible number of workers, and urged employers to make a better distribution of the work. During the discussion, several speakers stressed the importance of strict enforcement of the Eight Hour Day Act without any sort of exception.

The attitude of the employers' and workers' organisations towards the 40-hour week did not change. In particular, the Belgian Central Industrial Committee and the Brussels Study Centre of the Association of Catholic Employers and Engineers of Belgium consider that the introduction of a 40-hour week would cause widespread economic disorganisation. The workers' organisations,

[1] For statistics of actual hours of work, see Vol. II of the *Year-Book:* " Labour Statistics ", table VI.

on the other hand, continue their campaign in favour of the 40-hour week. Thus, the Belgian Trade Union Committee, in conjunction with the French General Confederation of Labour, organised in January 1934 a propaganda week in favour of this reform.

Brazil. — The 8-hour day and 48-hour week established by the legislation governing hours of work in industry were extended by the Decree of 18 January 1934 to all classes of land transport undertakings. This extension applies to the Federal District and to all the States of the Republic. Similarly, in virtue of the Decree of 3 July 1934, an 8-hour day was introduced in the cold-storage industry. A second Decree issued on the same date established a 48-hour week for persons employed in the warehouses and depots of shipping companies in the Federal District.

The limitation of hours of work to 8 in the day is also prescribed by the new Constitution promulgated on 16 July 1934.

Canada. — On 5 February 1934, a motion was passed by the House of Commons urging that the Government should take into immediate consideration the necessity of reducing the hours of labour of those engaged in industry, and also increasing the purchasing power of the masses of the people in order that they might absorb the goods produced, thereby creating a more equitable distribution of the country's wealth production. The Minister of Justice accepted the motion on behalf of the Government, and stated that the Government would give serious and immediate consideration to the questions of the reduction of hours of work and the increase of the purchasing power of the people, with a view to remedying unemployment.

In January 1935 the House of Commons unanimously authorised the Government to proceed to ratification of the Hours of Work (Industry) Convention, 1919, and in February 1935 a Bill was introduced by the Prime Minister to provide for limiting the hours of work in industrial undertakings to 8 in the day and 48 in the week [1].

The Fiftieth Convention of the Trades and Labour Congress (Toronto, September 1934) went on record in favour of a shorter working day and working week in conformity with the producing power of the nation, and urged the calling of an inter-provincial conference to assure the adoption of the necessary legislation.

In Alberta, the Trade and Industry Act, which came into force on 19 October 1934, provides, *inter alia*, for the possibility of making codes which are drawn up with the agreement of a two-thirds majority in a trade or industry, and embody minimum standards of hours of labour, binding on every person carrying on the trade or industry in question. An Advisory Board set up under the Act, together with the competent Minister, are empowered to draw up such a code in certain cases.

In British Columbia, a new Hours of Work Act came into effect on 14 June 1934, replacing the Act of 1923, to which it is in most

[1] In March 1935 the ratification of this Convention was registered with the Secretary-General of the League of Nations.

respects similar. The Act is administered by a Board of Industrial Relations. It applies to all industrial undertakings, but provides that the above Board may, with the approval of the Lieutenant-Governor in Council, add to or delete from the schedule of industries the whole or any branch of any industry, business, trade or occupation. Hours are limited to 48 in the week and 8 in the day, with certain exceptions. Overtime is permitted only in cases of accident or urgent work necessary to avoid serious interference with the ordinary working of the undertaking. The Board may grant other exceptions, and has done so in the case of certain categories of workers, besides making special provision for certain industries, and in particular seasonal industries. In November 1934, the Act was extended to cover the baking industry, apart from commercial establishments, and the catering industry.

According to the Annual Report of the Department of Labour, the average weekly hours worked in 1933 by the 71,185 employees reported by the 3,530 firms who made returns were 47.35, as compared with 47.69 in 1932 and 47.37 in 1931. The report noted that 77.95 per cent. of all the workers covered were working 48 hours or less per week.

In Nova Scotia, the Speech from the Throne at the opening of the Legislature on 1 March 1934 announced that the Department of Labour would conduct an investigation for the purpose of ascertaining for what industries of the Province legislation for an 8-hour working day might be enacted, with a view to improving the working conditions of the people without unduly injuring the industries affected. A Royal Commission which carried out a provincial economic enquiry expressed its considered view that the time had arrived when sympathetic consideration should be given by the appropriate authorities throughout the Dominion to the question of shortening the working day in industry where that had not already been achieved, thereby establishing conditions in conformity with the possibilities created by modern economic progress. The Commission, however, did not feel able to recommend legislation by the Provincial Government acting alone, but considered that such legislation was a matter that should be relegated to Federal control.

In Ontario, an Act which came into force on 3 April 1934 amended the Factories, Shops and Office Buildings Act so as to limit the hours of work of adult males employed in bakeshops to 56 a week instead of 60.

The Public Commercial Vehicles Act, which came into force on 1 July 1934, empowers the Lieutenant-Governor in Council, on the recommendation of the Minister of Highways, to make regulations limiting the hours of work for drivers of public commercial motor vehicles used for the transport of goods.

A report on the work of lorry drivers had shown that, of 1,446 drivers covered by the enquiry, 239 were working 48 hours or less in the week, whilst 194 worked from 49 to 54 hours, 278 from 55 to 59 hours, 357 worked 60 hours, and 197 worked more than 60 hours a week.

The report of the Chief Inspector of Factories shows that in 1933 63.2 per cent. of employees were working 45 hours, 24.4 per cent. approximately 50 hours, 7.3 per cent. 54 hours, 0.6 per cent. 58 hours, and 4.5 per cent. 60 hours a week.

In Quebec, an Act was passed on 20 April 1934 enabling the Lieutenant-Governor in Council to render obligatory on all persons carrying on a trade or industry in any district the provisions of any collective labour agreement in a trade or industry [1]. In virtue of this Act a number of agreements were thus extended, e.g. the agreements for various branches of the building trades, embodying the 40- or 36-hour week in accordance with Orders in Council of 1933 referring to these trades; for granite cutting, fixing the hours at 8 a day and 45 a week for cutters and 9 a day and 50 a week for quarrymen and inexperienced labourers; for ornamental iron and bronze workers, with a 45-hour week; for the printing trades in certain districts, fixing normal daily hours at 8 for day shifts and 7½ for night shifts; for furriers, with a 44-hour week; for stevedores in the harbour of Montreal, whose hours are fixed at 10 a day on day work and 9 on night work; and for bakers in the Quebec District, whose weekly hours of work are limited to 72.

The Industrial Establishments Act, which regulates the conditions of work of women and of girls and boys below 18 years of age, was amended with a view to reducing the maximum working week in industrial establishments from 60 to 55 hours.

In addition, the Minister of Labour of the Province stated on 18 October 1934 that more severe regulations concerning hours of work would certainly be brought into force in the Province.

In Saskatchewan, an order of the Minimum Wage Board dated 1 November 1933, governing the employment of females in laundries and factories in cities of the Province, limits the hours of work to 48 in any one week.

Chile. — A resolution adopted in November 1933 by the Federation of Workers of the State Railways urged that normal hours of work be reduced to 7 in the day and 42 in the week for workers of both sexes, instead of the present 8 hours a day and 48 hours a week. The Federation also demanded that the maximum hours of drivers and stokers be fixed at 10 in the day, instead of 14.

Colombia. — A Decree issued on 26 April 1934 limited hours of work in industrial establishments to 8 in the day and 48 in the week in order to give effect to the provisions of the Washington Hours Convention, ratified by Colombia in 1933. In the preamble to the Decree the Government pointed out that the ratification of the Convention had resulted in a noticeable reduction in the working hours of a considerable number of workers who had hitherto worked 10 and even 11 hours a day, and that quite apart from their detrimental effect on industrial organisation, excessively long hours were a real hindrance to the economic development of the country. In

[1] See below, Chapter VII, under " Collective Agreements ".

an interview, the Head of the Department of Labour expressed the opinion that the reduction of hours in industry would provide work for about 10,000 persons in different parts of the country. He also stated that the Government was determined to keep the undertakings to which the Decree applied under strict supervision, in order to prevent the reform from being accompanied by a reduction in wages.

The principle of the 8-hour day is moreover guaranteed by the draft Labour Code which has been approved by the Senate, and is now under consideration in the Chamber of Deputies.

Cuba. — The 8-hour day and 48-hour week were introduced in industrial and commercial establishments by the Decree of 10 September 1933 and the administrative regulations of 19 October 1933, as supplemented and amended by the Decrees of 11 November and 2 December 1933. In the sugar industry, the Decree of 3 February 1934 fixed working hours at 8 in the day and 56 in the week. In accordance with the recommendation of a special committee, the Government decided to fix hours of work for dockers in the port of Santiago de Cuba at 8 in the day.

Czechoslovakia. — During 1934 negotiations were begun between the national organisations of Czechoslovak employers and workers concerning the introduction of a 40-hour week as a remedy for unemployment. These negotiations led to a general agreement which was signed on 22 June 1934 by the Czechoslovak Employers' Federation on the one hand and the central trade union organisations on the other. It was agreed that a maximum week of 40 or 42 hours should be worked so far as economically and technically possible, that a 32-hour week should be the minimum, and that new workers should be engaged. Special arrangements were to be made in continuous-process undertakings and in undertakings in which work is organised in shifts. Hourly wage rates were not to be altered, so that weekly earnings would fall in accordance with the reduction of hours. Overtime should be limited to what was strictly necessary.

Negotiations took place from 25 June to 15 July between the representatives of the employers' and workers' organisations of various branches of industry with a view to detailed application of this general agreement. These negotiations led at the time to no positive result; the question of wages was found to be the most serious obstacle, for the workers remained firmly opposed to any reduction in weekly earnings [1].

In an article which appeared at the end of December 1934, the Minister of Social Welfare stated that he had prepared a preliminary draft of a Bill providing for the introduction of a 40-hour week in factories and building contractors' undertakings employing 10 or

[1] By February 1935, however, agreements were concluded establishing a 40-hour and 42-hour week in glass-bottle manufacture, breweries, yeast factories, the artificial silk industry, and distilleries.

more workers. In the Minister's opinion, the reduction of hours of work could be effected in several ways, either by introducing a 5-day week, or by working fewer hours each day, or by the adoption of other measures, and might be expected to lead in certain undertakings to an increase of as much as 20 per cent. in the number of workers employed. For industry as a whole, the Minister held that the application of the 40-hour week would make it possible to engage immediately some 50,000 workers, or 10 per cent. of the present staffs. The introduction of the 40-hour week in the building trades would lead to the re-employment of some 10,000 workers, making a total of 60,000 persons, a figure which amply justified the adoption of the proposed measures. The Minister added that in the course of the negotiations carried on in June and July 1934 the employers' and workers' organisations were unanimous in recognising the need for shorter hours, but that the Employers' Federation was opposed to State intervention. Nevertheless, if the two parties concerned could not come to some arrangement, the Government was resolved to take the necessary measures to prevent unemployment from becoming permanent.

The Prime Minister also referred to this subject in a statement issued on 11 January 1935. The Government, he said, considered that hours of work should be reduced from 48 to 42 or 40 in the week, even if the result would be no more than an increase of 10 to 12 per cent. in the labour employed.

For the execution of public works the competent authorities often prescribe the introduction of the 40-hour week. Thus for constructional work for the State the contractor must undertake, in accordance with the circular issued by the Minister of Public Works on 28 July 1933, not to require of the workers he employs on the work more than 40 hours a week. Similarly, the Ministry of Public Works decided on 10 March 1934 to supplement the conditions attached to the grant of subsidies from the National Road Fund by a stipulation under which contractors for the building and repairing of public roads are required to observe a 40-hour week for their workers engaged on such work. In both cases, however, this measure must not affect the time-limits allowed for construction or the total cost. Another Order issued by the Ministry of Public Works on 19 May 1934 fixed working hours, with some few exceptions, at 40 in the week or 160 in a period of 4 weeks for workers employed in undertakings supplying commodities to the State or working on Government tenders. The Ministry of Railways similarly took steps to ensure the application of the 40-hour week in all public works undertaken by this department.

Again, hours of work were reduced in a number of private undertakings, and in some branches of the municipal services. For example, the Rolny clothing factory at Prostejov, which is one of the largest undertakings for the manufacture of readymade clothing in Czechoslovakia and employs 1,200 persons, started a 5-day week programme without reduction of wages on 30 December 1933. Hours are fixed at 9 in the day (45 in the week) in the cutters' shops,

and 8½ in the day (42½ in the week) in the other shops and in the offices. The head of the undertaking has stated that he is contemplating the introduction of a 40-hour week. The Public Services Department of the town of Jihlava decided to introduce from 1 January 1934 a 40-hour week for all workers employed by it, and to reduce wages in proportion. The Bata Shoe Company introduced a 40-hour week as an experiment in its Zlin factory from 9 July to 9 October 1934; subsequent decisions regarding hours of work will depend on the experience thus obtained.

At its Congress (Reichenberg, 30 and 31 October 1934) the German Federation of Trades Unions in Czechoslovakia passed a resolution placing on record that the negotiations with the employers had failed, with a few exceptions. The Congress therefore urged the Government to introduce a 40-hour week by means of legislation. The Congress of the Federation of Czechoslovak Trade Unions (Prague, 8 to 11 December 1934) expressed a similar opinion.

According to the National Statistical Office, the total number of hours of overtime authorised in 1933 was slightly smaller than in 1932, being 1,243,232, as against 1,272,072 in 1932. Of the total number granted, 1,186,976 hours were actually worked. As regards the distribution of these hours, 23.2 per cent. were for the textile industry, 23.1 per cent. for the food industry, 21.5 per cent. for the readymade clothing industry, and 8.4 per cent. for financial institutions.

As regards actual hours of work, the factory inspectors' reports for September and October 1934 show that the 40-hour week was applied by 776 undertakings employing 69,624 workers, and that 1,545 undertakings employing 125,323 workers had a working week of less than 40 hours; about 7,700 undertakings, employing nearly 500,000 workers, had a 48-hour week.

Danzig (Free City of).—The Labour Regulation Act, promulgated on 8 May 1934, came into force on 1 July. The changes in hours of work made by this Act are similar to those introduced in Germany by the corresponding German measure.

Denmark. — In January 1934 the Government referred the question of the reduction of hours of work to the Unemployment Council. In a report submitted some months later, the Council recognised the effectiveness of a reduction of hours of work as a means of combating unemployment, although its members were not agreed as to the extent of such reduction, the method of putting it into operation, and the question of compensation for any loss of earnings thus entailed. As a result of this report, the Government expressed its intention of introducing a Bill to reduce hours of work in those branches of industry where the measure might be expected to lead to a substantial increase in employment. The Government ultimately decided, however, to postpone introducing any such Bill until the results of the discussion of the question by the International Labour Conference were known. Subsequently, the question was taken up afresh after the Conference of the Ministers

of Social Affairs of the Northern European countries in Oslo, and a Bill was submitted to the Rigsdag in December 1934.

The President of the Danish Employers' Federation declared in this connection that, in his opinion, a reduction of hours of work would tend to relieve unemployment in so far as a certain output was to be maintained during a specified period. At the same time, he emphasised the fact that any such reduction, however desirable, would be difficult to realise and insisted on the necessity of taking into account the international discussion of the matter at Geneva.

The recommendations of the Unemployment Council were favourably received among the workers, who laid special emphasis on the question of compensation for any loss in earnings.

Estonia[1].

France. — The Eight Hour Day Act was extended during 1934 to feather and down preparing industries and to billposting and the distribution of leaflets, etc. Regulations were introduced establishing an 8-hour day in undertakings engaged in the collective transport of passengers and goods by road, excluding undertakings operated under concession or on lease. Hours of actual work are fixed at 8 in the day. The hours of travelling staff may, however, be increased to 10 in the day, provided that the number of hours actually worked in the week does not exceed 48. The working day of drivers of motor vehicles, conductors, collectors and delivery men may not extend beyond 14 hours in all, and the rest period between any two days of work may not be less than 10 hours.

The right to make up hours lost by reason of general stoppages due to public holidays, local fairs, or other events of local importance was suppressed in the pottery, china and clothing trades. By way of compensation the departmental labour inspector, after consultation with the employers' and workers' organisations concerned, may authorise overtime not exceeding 40 hours a year.

The temporary suspension by means of Orders and Decrees of the right to work a certain amount of overtime to meet exceptional pressure of work, a process which began in 1933, was applied in 1934 to the textile industry, the building and public works industries, the metal and metalworking industries and the hides and skins industry. The Minister of Labour was empowered to extend similar measures to the pottery, china, hat-making and clothing industries[2]. This policy is vigorously opposed by employers, in particular by the General Confederation of Production and the Federation of Employers' Associations in the Textile Industry.

[1] For statistics of actual hours of work, see Vol. II of the *Year-Book:* "Labour Statistics", table VI.

[2] In order to enforce a general abolition of overtime, without having to legislate separately for each industry, a practice which has led to an ever-increasing number of Decrees, an Act of 8 April 1935 empowers the Minister of Labour to suspend by Decree the right to work overtime to meet exceptional pressure of work, either in all industrial and commercial undertakings or in specified undertakings. A Decree of 9 April suspended the right to work overtime in some forty industries.

A Bill inspired by social and economic considerations was introduced in the Chamber of Deputies in November 1934 to abolish the two-shift system in the textile industry. It stipulates that machinery, etc., must not be used for more than 48 hours a week, that is to say, 8 hours a day, or 9 hours in undertakings not working on Saturday afternoon. Employers whose undertakings are run on a two-shift system would be allowed a year in which to comply with the provisions of the Bill. The proposal has caused much controversy in the circles concerned. The Chamber of Power-Loom Manufacturers of the Lyons district decided in 1933 that from 4 December 1933 the hours worked in the weaving mills under its control should be reduced to 44 in the week and that no work should be done on Saturday.

The question of the reduction of hours of work as a remedy for unemployment continued to occupy the attention of the Government, the workers and the employers. For this reason, in an Order of 9 July 1934 regulating the conditions of labour and the use of materials for the execution of the Government's public works scheme, the Minister of Labour included a provision under which hours of work may in no case exceed the statutory maximum or exceed the hours actually worked in those undertakings of the same type in the district or region in question which employ the majority of the workers in the occupation concerned.

During 1934, several motions were introduced in the Chamber of Deputies requesting the Government to introduce Bills for the abolition of all exemptions from hours of work legislation, proposing the limitation of hours of work to 40 in the week, and asking for discussion by the Chamber of Bills already submitted on the subject of the 40-hour week. In a statement made to the Senate in December 1934 the Minister of Labour declared that it was impossible for the time being to reduce the legal maximum below 8 hours a day and 48 hours a week, since such a reform could not be carried through only on a national scale. In his opinion, however, it seemed quite feasible to introduce by legislation or regulations a uniform level of hours in areas and industries where a number of undertakings were not working 8 hours a day or 48 hours a week.

Finally, the Minister of Labour introduced a Bill in the Chamber of Deputies in January 1935, which would empower him to limit hours of work by area and occupation subject to certain conditions. Another Bill, adopted by the Chamber on 5 March 1935, empowering the authorities to declare agreements concluded in a branch of industry binding for the whole branch, stipulates that such agreements may contain clauses for the limitation of hours of work.

On the workers' side, the General Confederation of Labour published in January 1934 a statement on the economic depression and the necessity for action to revive industrial activity, in which it demanded among other things the introduction of the 40-hour week and the maintenance of the workers' standard of living. In collaboration with the Trade Union Committee of Belgium, the Confederation also organised in January 1934 a propaganda week

in favour of this reform. A number of political and other groups have also included the question of the 40-hour week in their economic and social programmes.

On the other hand, the Association of Metal and Mining Industries, the General Confederation of Production, the Federation of Employers' Associations in the Textile Industry and several Chambers of Commerce protested against any reduction of statutory working hours, which in their eyes would lead to fresh difficulties for production [1].

Germany. — The Labour Regulation Act of 20 January 1934 introduced fundamental changes in hours of work legislation. Since 1923, it had been lawful to extend the normal working week beyond 48 hours by means of collective agreements. The Act, however, does away with collective agreements, and replaces them by collective rules. Nowadays the competent labour trustee may, after consultation with a committee of experts, issue collective rules when he considers that the establishment of minimum conditions of employment is essential for the protection of the workers in a given group of undertakings. It is thus left to the responsible authorities to authorise extensions or reductions of working hours. The labour trustees may similarly intervene in the establishment of any other standards of employment relating to hours (hours of attendance preparatory and complementary work, overtime pay, etc.).

As regards hours of work, the provisions of the Act of 20 January 1934 were supplemented by the Hours of Work Order of 26 July 1934 concerning hours of work, which embodies in a single text all previous relevant legislative provisions. This Order may therefore be considered as an instrument for the codification of previous Orders and for their adaptation to the Labour Regulation Act rather than as introducing any fundamental amendments.

Hours of work in home industries were regulated by the Act of 23 March 1934. The principle is admitted that in home industries any regulation of working hours must be linked with the limitation of the quantity of work which may be required in return for a wage voucher. This quantity must be such that the worker by making full use of his labour can complete the task, without outside assistance, in the time usually taken by a worker of the same category employed in a factory. The duties hitherto performed by trade boards in this respect are entrusted to the labour trustees, but the factory inspection service still has sole power to authorise exceptions to the work quotas so established.

On 27 February 1934, the Minister of Labour, in agreement with the Minister of National Economy, issued instructions reminding the employment exchange authorities, factory inspection services and the labour trustees that contracts allotted to industry should have the effect of increasing the number of workers employed

[1] For statistics of actual hours of work, see Vol. II of the *Year-Book:* " Labour Statistics ", table VI.

and not lead to overtime for those already in employment. Similar instructions were issued with regard to contracts for constructional work subsidised by the Federal Government.

It may be remembered in connection with hours of work in subsidised works that in December 1933 the Minister of Labour authorised exceptions to the 40-hour week imposed by the 1933 Act for the reduction of unemployment. The obligation was completely abolished by a circular issued by the Ministers of Labour and Finance on 21 June 1934, the reason given being the noticeable improvement in employment since the introduction of the Act.

Hours of work were regulated by means of Orders for a number of industries and branches of industry. Thus for the textile industry, including home work and family undertakings, the maximum working week was fixed at 36 hours by an Order of 19 July 1934 and a number of supplementary Orders. This step was taken on account of the shortage of raw materials, and therefore certain branches, such as cotton, hemp and jute spinning mills, where there was no such shortage, were excluded from the scope of the Order. For the branches covered, and in particular for weaving operations, a number of restrictions were also introduced concerning the multiple-shift system.

Strict enforcement of the working week, fixed at 48-hours subject to allowances for making up lost time, was provided for bakeries by administrative regulations issued under the Bakeries Act of 26 July 1934, and for butchers' employees by regulations issued under the Hours of Work Order of 26 September 1934.

A Decree of 13 November 1933, issued in pursuance of the Act of 15 July 1933 concerning the establishment of compulsory cartels, fixed a maximum working week of 48 hours until 30 September 1934 for workers occupied at automatic machines for the manufacture of laboratory glass.

New service regulations were introduced on the Federal railways, applying a 48-hour week to staff employed in workshops, offices and similar premises. Exceptions are made in the case of doormen, watchmen and attendants, who may be required to work up to 72 hours a week, and for workers organised in shifts, for whom a 51-hour week is prescribed.

The regulation of conditions of work by collective rules developed considerably during 1934, and in many cases hours of work were defined by these rules. In certain branches, including maritime navigation, shipbuilding, motor road construction, glass-bottle manufacture, and the cardboard industry, rules were issued for the whole of Germany. Other branches were extensively covered by the issue of regional and local Orders, e.g. those for slaughter houses flour-mills, and bakeries, tobacco factories, the leather industry, woodworking (in particular sawmills), tile works, cartage and urban transport undertakings. Collective rules show a tendency to extend to occupations which have hitherto escaped legal regulation. For example, rules have been issued for certain handicrafts and for domestic service. Generally speaking, the collective rules

provide for an 8-hour day and a 48-hour week. Cases where a longer working week is fixed are few and far between; some of the rules for flour-mills, the metal industry and domestic service are instances. A working week of less than 48 hours is also rare, and is fixed mainly for various building trades.

The 40-hour week continued to be applied in certain industries. At the Congress of German Brewers held at Munich on 29 June 1934, it was stated that the 40-hour week was in force in most breweries. It is therefore quite possible that less than 48 hours a week are worked in a number of undertakings, irrespective of the known collective rules. That this is so is suggested by the warning against the reduction of hours below 40 in the week issued by the head of the Labour Front for the economic region of Saxony, on the ground that the resulting loss of earnings would be excessive. In Saxony, also, the Minister of Economy promulgated new rules for the hosiery industry which abolish the three-shift system and limit hours to 40 in the week for workers employed under the two-shift system.

The Federal Minister of Labour published the results of new enquiries into hours and wages undertaken by the Federal Office of Statistics in the lithographic and textile industries. These enquiries were a sequel to those carried out for the corresponding month in 1929 in the lithographic trades and in 1930 for the textile industry.

In the lithographic industry, the enquiry was undertaken in 1932, for lithography proper, related printing operations and "offset" processes, and covered 8,447 workers. The average working week was as follows: 43.13 hours (47.85 hours in 1929) for offset printers; 41.75 hours (46.97 in 1929) for lithographic designers; 40.39 hours (47.35 in 1929) for lithographic printers; 40.85 hours (48.06 in 1929) for preparers of lithographic blocks over 24 years of age, and 43.14 hours (47.08 in 1929) for unclassified female staff of 19-21 years of age.

In the textile industry, the enquiry was undertaken in September 1933. It related to the cotton industry, worsted spinning, cloth weaving, the flax industry, ribbon weaving, knitting, lace and curtain weaving, velvet weaving, and silk weaving, and covered 54,639 workers. Average weekly hours for all the branches mentioned were as follows: spinners: men, 43.49 hours, including 0.56 hour's overtime; women, 44.90 hours, including 0.81 hour's overtime; weavers: men, 41.07 hours, including 0.18 hour's overtime; women, 42.89 hours, including 0.33 hour's overtime; unskilled workers, 47.21 hours, including 1.81 hour's overtime; unskilled women, 45.59 hours, including 0.95 hour's overtime.

The results of the enquiry undertaken by the former Committee of Saxon Employers' Associations at the request of the Federal Office of Statistics were also published. This enquiry covered the period July 1932-April 1934 and the results show the changes during this period in the volume of employment, hours of actual work, and earnings in Saxon industry. No absolute figures are

given, but only percentages. In comparison with the period July-December 1932, the average number of hours worked per worker increased slightly (6.4 per cent. in April 1934) while the average hourly wages remained practically stationary (+ 0.7 per cent.) There was therefore an increase in average earnings per worker (7.8 per cent.) and a much larger increase in the total wages paid (33.3 per cent.), this being due to the increase in the number of workers (23.7 per cent.) [1].

Great Britain. — According to the annual report of the Chief Inspector of Factories, hours of work underwent no substantial change in 1933, remaining at 47 or 48 a week in most of the organised trades and at 40 in a few undertakings. As regards women and young persons, whose hours are fixed by legislation, the revival of trade led to the extension of their employment to the full legal limits in seasonal trades. The tendency to revert to longer hours was also noticeable in the light metal and bakelite trades, in the cutlery trades and also in a variety of miscellaneous industries in and around London. In some instances the need for longer hours was attributed to the shortage of women and young persons available for factory employment, especially in some of the new industrial areas.

The Chief Inspector of Factories also draws attention to the increasing use made of the system by which Orders may be issued under section 2 of the Women, Young Persons and Children Act of 1920 to permit the employment of women and young persons in two separate shifts between 6 a.m. and 10 p.m. The introduction of the shift system is often an alternative to exceedingly long hours and may also provide that elasticity which is essential in some industries. The system has proved its value in cases of emergency and has been adopted more or less permanently in some industries. In 1933, 318 Orders were made for this purpose, as compared with 293 in 1932.

Early in 1934 the Prime Minister, in a broadcast speech, made the following statement:

> The revolutionary changes in production which improvement in machinery and industrial organisation has brought about must not result only in a reduction in the number of people employed. That indeed would be a tragic end. The benefits must be seen in more leisure, and more opportunity for people to use their leisure well. This is a tremendous problem in industrial democracy, in the relations between workers and employers, in education. The Government, in consultation with representative men, both employers and employed, is willing to co-operate in trying to meet these human claims. It is at present co-operating with the International Labour Office to find international agreements which will enable the industrial countries to advance in this direction and at the same time prevent low standards of life being used to menace higher standards.

Again, in October 1934, the Lord President of the Council, in a speech before a meeting of the British Conservative Party, referred,

[1] For other statistics of actual hours of work, see Vol. II of the *Year-Book:* " Labour Statistics ", table VI.

inter alia, to the question of the reduction of hours and the limitation of overtime with a view to increasing possibilities of employment. He stated that the progress of science and mechanical progress had brought the shorter working week undoubtedly within the realms of possibility in some industries, and that the Government welcomed the various experiments made in this field by certain employers. In his opinion, this was a sensible and healthy practice, which he hoped would develop. As regards overtime, he agreed that it was impossible to abolish it by law, but he appealed to firms working overtime to think out carefully whether, by organising their hours, they could eliminate regular overtime and thereby give employment to additional workmen working normal hours. He thought it was a national duty to make such effort.

In November, the Minister of Labour announced that he had arranged for an immediate consultation with representative organisations of employers and workpeople regarding the general question of hours of work, with particular reference to the limitation of overtime and the reabsorption into employment of a larger number of unemployed. This consultation took place during January 1935. The Minister also stated that he hoped to discuss these matters with the representatives of individual industries.

The movement for shorter working hours gained further ground during the year. For example, the Boots Pure Drug Company introduced an experimental 5-day week without reduction of wages in some of its Nottingham factories for the summer months of 1934. This resulted in reducing the weekly hours of factory hands from 47½ to 42½. The experiment was a complete success and the Company subsequently decided to continue permanently the shorter working week thus introduced. The Chairman of the Company expressed his satisfaction with the new system; in his mind, the essential factor of the unemployment problem was that the proportion of machines to men had steadily increased. It was consequently necessary gradually to reduce human working hours without any corresponding reduction in wages, if purchasing power were to be adapted to producing power. Each industry must, however, be left to adopt its working hours according to circumstances.

Another firm manufacturing pharmaceutical goods, the British Drug House, Ltd., also introduced an experimental 5-day week for the summer months, thereby reducing weekly hours from 48 to 44. Towards the end of 1934, the introduction of a 5-day week from 1 January 1935 was announced by Messrs. Carr & Co., biscuit manufacturers of Carlisle, and by the managing director of Messrs. Coleman & Co., makers of a tonic wine, and Cranbux, Ltd., manufacturers of a dentifrice.

The trade unions continued their efforts for the reduction of hours of work. In September 1934, the Trades Union Congress unanimously adopted a resolution declaring that a shorter working week was essential and necessary, and was made possible by the continuous improvement in machinery and methods of production.

The Congress also instructed the General Council to use every means to induce the Government to adopt a 40 hour working week without reductions in wages or earnings. The unions of the engineering industry submitted to the Engineering Employers' Federation a memorandum calling for the introduction of the 40-hour week with a view to reducing unemployment; their demand was refused by the employers' organisation. At a meeting held in Edinburgh by representatives from the British Shipbuilding Employers' Federation and from the corresponding trade unions, the workers' delegates presented a claim for a 40-hour week without reduction of wages in order to meet the advance of technical progress. Finally, the Union of Post Office Workers claimed a 5-day week of 40 hours, inclusive of meals, for the manipulative grades, but this request was also refused by the Post Office authorities.

Hungary [1].

India. — The Bill to consolidate and amend the Factories Act, to which reference was made in the *Year-Book* for 1933, was assented to by the Governor-General on 20 August 1934 and came into force on 1 January 1935. The new Act makes a distinction between seasonal and non-seasonal factories, the former being defined as those working only for 180 days or less a year. For non-seasonal factories the Act prescribes a 10-hour day and a 54-hour week for all adult workers with the exception of workers employed in continuous processes, who may work 56 hours a week. For seasonal factories the 11-hour day and 60-hour week are maintained. Overtime is paid at the rate of time and a quarter, which is increased to time and a half for work exceeding 10 hours a day in non-seasonal factories, or exceeding 60 hours a week in either seasonal or non-seasonal undertakings. The introduction of the 54-hour week in British India has brought into prominence the question of the competition of industries in the Native States, and in a letter dated 20 December 1934, addressed to the Department of Industries and Labour, the Employers' Federation of India called attention to the desirability for early action to place British India and the Native States on an equal footing with regard to labour legislation.

Official statistics of hours of work for 1933 show that in non-seasonal factories 35 per cent. of the adult male workers worked a maximum of 48 hours a week, 17 per cent. worked from 48 to 54 hours, and 48 per cent. worked 54 to 60 hours a week. For women the corresponding percentages were 37, 18 and 45. In seasonal factories 24 per cent. of the men had a working week of not more than 48 hours, 8 per cent. between 48 and 54 hours, while 68 per cent. worked 54 to 60 hours a week. For women the corresponding percentages were 31, 7 and 62. The percentages of factories which fixed their maximum hours for children at not more than 30 hours a week were 35 (non-seasonal) and 46 (seasonal).

[1] For statistics of actual hours of work, see Vol. II of the *Year-Book*: " Labour Statistics ", table VI.

Irish Free State. — In December 1934 the Minister of Industry and Commerce declared that the reduction of working hours would greatly contribute towards the alleviation of unemployment, although, in his mind, it was not a definite solution of the problem. He consequently considered that it was necessary to proceed with the utmost possible haste in that direction, by adopting the international Convention for the reduction of hours of work, which would increase possibilities of employment and guarantee for the workers a share in the benefits of technical progress in the form of increased leisure without reduction of wages.

In August 1934, the annual Irish Trade Union Congress adopted a resolution demanding the introduction of a 40-hour week without any reduction in wages for both the Irish Free State and Northern Ireland.

The 6-hour day was adopted in the works of Irish Ropes Ltd. in July 1933. After a year's experience of this system, the managing director of the firm said that it had given good results. Although wages paid were the same as before the introduction of the 6-hour day, the increased cost of labour had been met by the installation of better machines and by the adoption of a three-shift system which allowed a more complete use to be made of the firm's machinery.

Italy. — The year 1934 was noteworthy for the introduction of the 40-hour week. On 11 October 1934, the Fascist Confederation of Industrial Workers and the Fascist Confederation of Manufacturers signed an agreement for the purpose of giving openings for employment for a larger number of workers. This agreement, which was concluded for the period up to 16 April 1935 [1], aims at the reduction of hours to 40 in the week with a proportionate reduction in wages, which are, however, to be supplemented by family allowances for workers on the shorter week who are heads of large families. It is intended also to abolish overtime, to restrict the employment of women and young persons in favour of men, and to prohibit the employment of persons in receipt of pensions.

The measures contemplated in the agreement assume that there are enough workers available qualified to do the work required. It is left to the national federations to determine for the different branches of industry the classes of workers for which it is possible from technical and economic points of view to reduce hours of work, and also to decide the period over which average weekly hours of work are to be calculated. Overtime is abolished. Manufacturers may, however, require overtime to be worked in exceptional circumstances, provided that the overtime is not continuous or periodical, but arises out of the necessity to meet urgent orders,

[1] On 16 February 1935 the Fascist Grand Council, having noted the highly satisfactory results obtained, in respect of the engagement of workers formerly unemployed, by the enforcement of the 40-hour week, decided " that, with or without international agreement, the working week of 40 hours shall be placed on a permanent basis and, wherever possible, strictly enforced ".

carry out certain extra work, etc. Provision is made for the supervision of the conditions in which overtime is carried out. As regards salaried employees employed in industrial undertakings, the agreement merely provides for the abolition of overtime, the limitation of the employment of women and young persons, and the replacement of employed persons in receipt of a retiring pension. In virtue of a further agreement concluded between the two Confederations, the provisions of the principal agreement relating to overtime and to salaried employees came into force on 3 December 1934.

The application of certain clauses of the inter-Confederal agreement, and particularly of those relating to the reduction of hours of work led to the conclusion between national federations of manufacturers and workers of some sixty national agreements covering various industrial branches. These agreements reduce the working week, as a rule to 40 hours (42 hours for continuous processes), prescribe the types of work and workers to be affected by the reduction, and those to be exempted from it, state how the reduction is to be operated (shorter working day, system of rotation, etc.), and fix the period over which average weekly working hours are to be calculated. In the case of certain home industries, employers must arrange not to allot weekly to any worker a quantity of work exceeding the equivalent of 40 hours of work.

By the end of December 1934, over 100,000 industrial workers had been re-engaged as a result of these agreements, and by the beginning of February 1935 the figure had risen to over 160,000.

By a Circular of 17 October 1934, the Minister of Corporations instructed the corporative inspectors to secure the strict application of the law and collective agreements concerning hours of work.

The Act of 16 March 1933 concerning hours of work in industrial undertakings, which was analysed in the previous issue of the *Year-Book* [1] and which was intended to enable Italy to withdraw the conditions attached to the ratification of the Washington Hours Convention, was not put into force because the schedules indicating the industries, processes, occupations and cases in which the normal hours of work (8 in the day and 48 in the week) may be extended had not yet been issued. These schedules, which are to be issued by Royal Decree on the recommendation of the Minister of Corporations after consultation with the competent occupational associations and the National Council of Corporations, were approved on 9 December 1933 by the Central Corporative Committee, with the head of the Government in the chair [2].

Japan [2].

Latvia [2].

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[1] Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1933*, p. 81.

[2] For statistics of actual hours of work, see Vol. II of the *Year-Book:* " Labour Statistics ", table VI.

Luxemburg — Orders issued early in 1934 stipulate that on all works undertaken by the State or local authorities for the benefit of the unemployed, hours are to be fixed at 40 in a week.

Netherlands. — In November 1934 the executive committees of the Federation of Trade Unions and the Roman Catholic Federation of Trade Unions submitted a joint petition to the Minister of Social Affairs in which attention was drawn to the report published by the National Advisory Labour Council with regard to the statutory reduction of working hours as a method of curtailing unemployment. It may be remembered that reference was made to this report in the *Year-Book* for 1933 [1]. The petitioners requested the Minister to convene representatives of employers and workers in joint conference to discuss the possibility of effecting a voluntary reduction of working hours on the lines proposed by the Advisory Council.

As a result of this petition, an initial meeting took place on 18 January 1935 between the General Director of Labour and the representatives of the trade associations. The Director of Labour intends to continue negotiations with the representative associations in each industry.

During the discussion of the 1935 Budget in the Second Chamber on 11 December 1934, the question of the statuory introduction of the 40-hour week was the subject of a number of interpellations. A demand was also expressed for the extension of the provisions of the 1919 Labour Act to certain classes of wage earners such as drivers of motor vehicles [2].

Replying to a proposal made by certain deputies to apply the 40-hour week in the construction of cheap dwellings and in State undertakings, the Minister of Social Affairs stated that in the first case shorter working hours might entail a stoppage of building operations, while in the second case they would lead to financial difficulties. With regard to the application of the Labour Act to other classes of workers, the Minister stated that measures for the protection of drivers of motor vehicles were under consideration.

New Zealand. — At a meeting of the Manufacturers' Association in Dunedin, the Minister of Finance discussed the question of the reduction of hours as a means of combating unemployment. In his opinion, the primary industries, which had to compete with countries where hours were much longer than in New Zealand, could not be expected to reduce hours of work. He thought, however, that the secondary industries might be able to absorb more labour if a system of shorter hours were adopted and he asked manufacturers to give this question the closest consideration

Nicaragua. — The draft Labour Code which was submitted to the National Congress in December 1933 embodies provisions concerning hours of work conforming to the principles laid down

[1] Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1933*, p. 83.

[2] For other classes of workers, see below, under " Hours of Work of Salaried Employees ".

by the Washington Convention, which was ratified by Nicaragua in 1934.

Norway. — A committee was appointed by the Minister of Social Affairs in November 1933 to consider the question of the reduction of hours of work as a remedy for unemployment. In a report submitted to the Ministry on 10 March 1934, the committee found that in the present difficult circumstances it could not advocate any general reduction of hours of work applicable to all undertakings. It considered, however, that the conditions in each industry should be investigated separately, and that, after negotiations with the parties concerned, special regulations should be adopted suited to individual undertakings or groups of undertakings. Failing an agreement, a Labour Council appointed specially to apply the measures contemplated should be empowered to adopt provisions for the regulation of working hours.

The Representative Body of the Confederation of Trade Unions met at Oslo in January 1934 and discussed, among other things, the question of the reduction of hours of work. It strongly urged the introduction of legislation which would cover all workers without exception and fix working hours at 6 in the day and 40 in the week. Further, the Executive Committee of the Confederation was instructed to establish contact with the Danish and Swedish Confederations of Trade Unions with the object of securing the adoption of as uniform a policy as possible in all the Scandinavian countries with regard to the reduction of hours of work.

Poland. — Two Decrees issued by the Minister of Social Welfare to regulate hours of work came into force on 1 January 1934. The first Decree, dated 27 December 1933, concerns certain classes of workers employed by municipal tramway companies, for whom the average working week is fixed at 48 hours. Hours may not exceed 192 over any period of four weeks or 10½ in any one day. The second Decree, dated 13 December 1933, sanctions, for workers employed in road transport undertakings, other arrangements than those provided for by the Eight Hour Day Act of 18 December 1919, provided that the persons concerned are not required to work more than 10 hours in the day and 624 hours in any period of 13 weeks. Special provisions regulate night work, Sunday work, and the payment of overtime.

A Decree issued by the President of the Republic on 27 October 1933, which came into operation on 1 April 1934, stipulates that the hours of work of dockers in the port of Gdynia may not exceed 8 in the day and 48 in the week. In cases of damage to a vessel or to goods, the working day may be prolonged up to a maximum of 12 hours. The conditions under which overtime is permissible will be fixed by Decree by the Ministers concerned, but in no case may overtime exceed 120 hours per year per worker, the maximum on any one day being four hours [1].

[1] For statistics of actual hours of work, see Vol. II of the *Year-Book:* " Labour Statistics ", table VI.

Portugal. — A Decree concerning hours of work was passed on 24 August 1934, and supplemented by a further Decree of the same date concerning the supervision of the new regulations. These Decrees make no essential changes in the existing legislation. Moreover, in the memorandum attached to the first Decree, the Government pointed out that Portugal was bound by the Washington Convention, which it ratified in 1928, and that the 8-hour day corresponded to the established custom of the country. The authors of the new regulations took their stand on the principles of hours of work laid down in the National Labour Code, according to which maximum hours may be laid down by legislative or corporative decision in special branches of economic activity, the exact length of hours of work being fixed by agreement or by corporative regulations, in conformity with the needs of production, of the undertakings and of the workers, and in view of the output of labour. The new Decree therefore does no more than lay down general rules applicable to commercial and industrial undertakings, that is to say offices, shops, warehouses, workshops, factories, urban transport services, and all other premises where commercial and industrial operations are carried on. The conditions of work of persons not covered by the new measure will be determined by subsequent Decrees.

The maximum hours of work in industrial undertakings are 8 in the day, as previously. In the case of continuous processes carried on by means of successive shifts, the hours in each shift may not exceed 8 in the day, and work must be so arranged that no worker is placed in two shifts on the same day. Persons holding posts of confidence, management or supervision, and those who are members of the employer's family, may be exempted from the application of the legal provisions. Similarly, the National Institute of Labour and Social Welfare may exempt from the scope of the regulations persons employed in industrial undertakings of a markedly rural character, including building, or in the construction and repair of means of communication, provided that working hours are organised in a satisfactory manner, and that wages correspond to the requirements of the moment. Apart from the exceptions allowed in cases of emergency, *force majeure* or accident, hours of work may be prolonged by decision of the Government in exceptional circumstances or when the public interest so requires. On the other hand, maximum hours may be reduced by legislation or corporative agreement in order to safeguard the workers' health or to suit the economic situation. Overtime may only be authorised when it is justified, and where social and economic conditions permit. Overtime, which was previously paid at double rates, is now to be paid at time and a half rates.

The Government has issued a number of Orders concerning the interpretation of the new regulations, with special reference to their scope. In pursuance also of the provisions of the National Labour Code, collective agreements fixing the length of the working day in accordance with the above-mentioned legislation have been concluded in the sardine industry and the wine export trade.

Rumania. — The report of the Factory Inspectorate for 1933 states that the statutory hours of work were in general respected, especially in large undertakings, and that overtime was rare.

In a number of undertakings, weekly hours have been reduced to 40, and even to 36, spread over four or five days, in order to increase production or to avoid dismissing staff.

Saar Territory [1]. — The Chamber of Labour of the Saar Territory supplemented the Order of 8 November 1924 concerning hours of work in industrial undertakings by a provision under which the statutory hours may be exceeded in certain cases of *force majeure* and for work intended solely to ensure the regular working of the undertaking.

Orders promulgated in 1934 prolonged the regulations relating to hours of work of women and young persons in industry in general and in glass works, steel rolling mills and iron foundries in particular.

Salvador. — An agreement to reduce hours of work was concluded between the owners and staff of a shirt manufacturing firm. Workers who previously worked 9 to 11 hours a day are now employed for not more than 36 hours a week. The working day is fixed at 6 hours for women workers employed at time rates and at 8 hours for those employed on piece work. As this agreement was concluded at the instigation of the Conciliation Board, it will serve as a basis for the regulation of conditions in other factories.

Siam. — During 1933, the Government adopted a national equipment plan, under which it proposes, among other things, to set up industrial undertakings, subject, where necessary, to Government supervision. In this connection it is proposed to introduce a Bill limiting hours of work.

Spain. — A number of strikes for a reduction of hours of work broke out during 1934 in the building and metalworking trades. In the building industry, the Ministry of Labour put an end to the dispute by issuing an arbitration award under which hours of work were reduced in the Province of Madrid from 48 to 44 in the week, without any reduction of wages. By an Order issued on 13 May 1934, the application of the 44-hour week was extended to staff employed in connection with central heating and lifts.

In the metal industry, the Government decided to introduce from 1 June 1934 a 44-hour week for metal workers in the Province of Madrid as a temporary measure for a period of six months, and to appoint a committee, including representatives of the employers and workers concerned, to study the situation in the country as a whole and to make a report to the Ministry of Labour before

[1] By an order of the German Government, dated 18 February 1935 and based on the Act of 30 January 1935 concerning the provisional administration of the Saar Territory, the principal provisions of German labour legislation were extended to the Territory.

1 December 1934. The report revealed the failure of the parties to come to an agreement; the employers stated that the maintenance of the 44-hour week would mean grave loss to the metal industry, which was described as already being in difficulties owing to the depression; the workers, on the other hand, expressed the view that the maintenance of the 44-hour week was an indispensable remedy against unemployment. By an Order issued on 2 December 1934, the Government decided to restore the 48-hour week in the metal industry, at the same time requesting the committee to continue its investigations with a view to determining what compensation could be granted to the workers in the form of increased wages or otherwise.

The Ministry of Industry and Commerce issued an Order on 28 September 1934 prohibiting the employment of a third or night shift between 9 p.m. and 5 a.m. in undertakings engaged in the spinning and weaving of cotton. The aim of this Order is to restore a balance between production and consumption.

Sweden. — As stated in the *Year-Book* for 1933 [1], the Social Board made a new enquiry in November 1933 into hours of actual work in industry, which was supplemented by a study of the methods adopted to reduce hours of work. This enquiry covered 2,385 undertakings and 267,117 workers. Average hours of work, which in March 1932 were 43.5 a week, rose in 1933 to 45.5, which represents an increase of 4.6 per cent. The sharpest rise was noted in the metalworking industry, where average weekly hours were 39.8 in 1932 and 46.1 in 1933 (+ 15.8 per cent.); in the woodworking industry, on the other hand, hours of work fell. The number of workers employed 45 hours or more a week represented 81.5 per cent. of the total in 1933 as against 63 per cent. in 1932, those employed from 41 to 44 hours formed 10.1 per cent. of the total in 1933 as against 10.7 per cent. in 1932, while those employed less than 41 hours a week formed only 8.4 per cent. as compared with 26.3 per cent. in 1932 [2].

Switzerland. — The hours of work and rest of professional drivers of motor vehicles were fixed by an Order of 4 December 1933, approved by the Federal Order of 15 March 1934. Weekly hours of work may not exceed 54 averaged over two weeks; daily hours may not be more than 10, or 12 including hours of attendance, while service at the wheel may not exceed 9 hours a day.

The question of the reduction of hours of work as a remedy for unemployment was the subject of debates in the Federal Parliament. The National Council examined a number of resolutions and a motion calling for the ratification of the Washington Convention, the suspension whenever possible of permits to work overtime, the reduction of working hours in handicrafts, and the introduction of the 40-hour week in industry.

[1] Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1933*, p. 85.

[2] For statistics of actual hours of work, see Vol. II of the *Year-Book:* " Labour Statistics ", table VI.

In a message of 9 October 1934 to the Federal Assembly, regarding measures to create openings for employment and to overcome the depression, the Federal Council pointed out that the introduction of the 40-hour week could not be contemplated in Switzerland unless competitors of Switzerland on the world's markets made a similar reduction in hours. On this point, the Federal Assembly agreed with the opinion of the Federal Council, but it adopted a resolution requesting the latter body to consider whether it should not establish contact with the organisations of employers and workers with a view to arranging an agreement with them for a reduction of working hours. Moreover, early in 1934 the Federal authorities appointed a special joint committee to study the most effective measures for reducing hours of work and securing a better distribution of the available employment, including the conclusion of voluntary agreements between the parties concerned.

At the beginning of 1934, representatives of the national employers' organisations held a conference at which the head of the Federal Department of Public Economy took the chair. As regards hours of work, the employers' representatives stated that international regulations could not be counted on. They also pointed out that the hours worked in many Swiss industries were already as low as 40, 32 and even 24 a week. Employers, it was stated, remained adamant in their opposition to any reduction of statutory hours, their objections being based on the fear of international competition, an increase in overhead expenses, and the technical changes which would inevitably result for certain establishments.

A similar conference under the same chairmanship brought together a number of representatives of the workers early in 1934. The attitude adopted by the workers was that the reduction of hours was intimately connected with wage compensation and that, in view of international competition, it was essential above all to come to some sort of international agreement.

The question of wages and hours on the Federal railways also led to discussion, but no final decision was arrived at; the management demanded the right to make certain exceptions necessary from a financial point of view. With a view to regulating the distribution of work in the cotton industry, the Union of Master Cotton Spinners, Weavers and Doublers set up an advisory office to advise the authorities on applications for prolongations of hours of work submitted by cotton undertakings. Here again, there is an evident tendency to distribute orders equitably and to establish uniform working conditions.

The report of the Federal Factory Inspectorate for 1933 shows that permits issued to prolong working hours were much more numerous than in the previous year, the total amount of overtime increasing from 1,427,376 hours in 1932 to 2,094,403 hours in 1933, and the amount of overtime per worker from 4.2 to 6.4 hours. Permits were granted mainly in the textile, clothing, munitions, and food industries. Nevertheless, the inspectors state that as a

result of the depression the 48-hour week is coming more and more to be considered as being the normal maximum working week [1].

Union of South Africa. — The report of the Factory Inspectorate for 1933 shows that the reduction of the working week from 50 to 48 hours in pursuance of the 1931 Act amending the Factories Act was effected without difficulty. A certain number of specially important undertakings were already working 48 hours or less and the unfavourable economic position facilitated the change in most of the others. According to the same report the number of undertakings which introduced the 5-day week increased markedly.

During 1934 collective agreements on the basis of the 48-hour week were concluded in the bakery and confectionery, motor, furniture, and clothing industries, among others. The working week was fixed by collective agreement at 44 hours in the building industry of the Cape Peninsula, and in the wholesale meat trade of Witwatersrand and Pretoria (except for loaders, who may work 50 hours). In the printing industry a national collective agreement established a working week of 43 hours for machine compositors employed during the day and a 46-hour week for all other workers; night work may in no case exceed 40 hours a week.

United States. — During the year 1934 the adoption of codes of fair competition involving a limitation of hours of work continued apace. On 12 January 1934, 200 codes had been adopted. By 5 January 1935 there were 541. On 8 August 1934, the 517 codes then adopted applied to over 22 million persons, over 13 million of whom, covered by 443 codes, were employed in industry. Over 95 per cent. of all persons employed in industry were at that date covered by a code of fair competition. It is estimated that 2,224,000 persons, or 17.1 per cent of the persons engaged in industry, had their hours limited by code to less than 40 hours a week, these being mainly employed in the coal-mining and clothing industries; 8,884,000 persons, or 67.8 per cent., had their hours limited to 40 a week; and 1,971,000 persons, or 15.1 per cent., to a week of more than 40 hours, these being mainly persons engaged in the food industries and public utilities. Of all the persons working under code provisions, whether in industry, commerce or the professions, 21.3 per cent. may have their hours of work averaged over several weeks, 19.1 per cent. may work overtime provided that an overtime rate is paid for time worked above certain stated basic hours, 47.8 per cent. may have exceptions of various types and extents to the normal limits of hours of work in connection with certain stated periods, including peak and seasonal periods, emergency repair and maintenance periods, and other emergency periods; 84.2 per cent. of the persons employed work under codes permitting a certain elasticity for specified groups of employees but only for stated periods; whilst 14.8 per cent. of the persons

[1] For statistics of actual hours of work, see Vol. II of the *Year-Book*: " Labour Statistics ", table VI.

are under codes which provide for exceptions neither during peak periods nor during periods excepted under other codes.

Among important changes made during 1934 in codes previously adopted was the introduction of the 8-hour day in the iron and steel industry, the reduction of hours in the bituminous coal-mining industry from 8 to 7 a day (5-day week) at the usual place of work, and the provisional reduction of hours from 40 to 36 for workers in the cotton garment industry. In addition, hours were also provisionally reduced below the code limit of 40 hours a week by 25 per cent. or more over limited periods in various branches of the cotton textile industry.

At a conference of code authorities held at Washington in March 1934, General Johnson, the National Recovery Administrator, after hearing the criticisms and suggestions of workers and employers, proposed that in all codes where this was possible, which he considered would be numerous, hours of work should be reduced by 10 per cent. and wage-rates increased by 10 per cent. This proposal was, however, not extensively taken up.

Apart from the codes, there has been a tendency to introduce legislation concerning hours of work. Thus the Conference on Labour Legislation held at Washington in February 1934, at which delegates appointed by the Governors of 39 States were present, adopted a report to the effect that all States should have uniform regulations pertaining to the hours which employees may work, so that industries in particular States might not have unfair advantage over competitors in others. The object was also to make permanent the social and economic advantages of the limitation of hours under which industry is operating under the N.R.A., in the belief that it was desirable that State laws be made to conform as nearly as possible to the general standards adopted in the codes. The standards proposed for undertakings in which more than five persons work were 40 hours in any one week, 8 hours in any one day, or a period of 10 hours during any 24 hours. An exception was proposed for persons engaged in professionl or agricultural employment, and for unforeseeable emergencies. Persons employed in maintenance, upkeep, shipping, watching, heating or power plants might be employed daily 10 per cent. in excess of the above hours.

In the same way the Conference on Labour Standards, convened for December 1934 by the Secretary of Labor and attended by representatives of a number of bodies interested in labour legislation, advocated a 40-hour week and 8-hour day, applicable to both men and women and without regard to the number of persons employed in the establishment. It was recognised, however, that in some States these measures might have to be introduced gradually.

In addition, in December 1934, a compact was signed by the representatives of the States of Connecticut, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New York and Rhode Island for the introduction of a 5-day and 40-hour week for industrial workers engaged

in manufacturing, mechanical, mercantile and canning establishments, and for mining, quarrying and construction enterprises. This compact is subject to action by the respective legislatures.

Attempts to secure a working week of less than 40 hours also continued. Bills were submitted in both Houses of Congress in favour of a 30-hour week for industry. The Bill introduced in the House of Representatives on 6 March 1934 provided for a 5-day week and a 6-hour day for industry and for the appointment of a board to grant exemptions from the 30-hour week where these are really necessary for the proper conduct of business; the Bill also provided for exemptions for periods not exceeding three months at a time, and subject to a maximum of 40 hours per week, in cases where such exemptions were necessary due to an inadequate supply of labour or other emergency. The same wages were to be paid for the 30 hours as for the hours previously worked under the codes. All codes, past and future, were to conform to the provisions of the Act. Other Bills provided for a 30-hour week for Government employees with maintenance of salaries. These various Bills were not enacted. The movement in favour of the 30-hour week, however, continued, this limit being strongly advocated by the American Federation of Labor. On 3 January 1935 another Bill to provide for a 30-hour week to relieve unemployment was introduced in the House of Representatives.

The United States Chamber of Commerce, however, opposed a statutory limitation of hours of work, and the Brookings Institute issued a pamphlet maintaining that a reduction such as was contemplated by the Thirty-Hour Bill would inevitably reduce the volume of wealth produced to a level below that of 1929, and further that the increase in productive efficiency did not warrant a reduction of hours to 30 a week.

In addition, a Bill was introduced in both Houses of Congress providing that 6 hours should be deemed to be a day's work, and the measure or standard of a day's work for the purpose of reckoning compensation for services in the case of employees of operators of facilities for inter-State transportation, including in particular all railways, express companies, freight-forwarding companies and sleeping-car companies. The railwaymen's organisations are continuing to seek legislation on these lines. Other Bills provide for 12 hours' consecutive rest in the course of any 24 hours for employees of common carriers, and lay down that employees handling orders concerning train movements should not work more than 9 (in certain cases 6) hours in any 24-hour period; whilst yet another Bill tends to limit hours of work of all persons working on dredgers and tugs on the Great Lakes to 8 in the day except in cases of extraordinary emergency.

Reports published in the *Monthly Labor Review*, referring to periods previous to the adoption of the codes of fair competition, provide statistics on hours of work in various industries. In 1932 the weekly hours of work of certain categories of railway workers were as follows: executives, officials and staff assistants, 48.5;

professional, general and clerical employees, 47.1; maintenance of way and structure employees, 39.3; maintenance of equipment and store employees, 39.2; transportation group employees (other than train, engine and yard), 49.6; yard masters, switch tenders, hostlers, 52.1; train and engine crews, 49.8. In the glass industry late in 1932, actual hours averaged 37.4 a week as against full-time hours of 50.2. In foundries the hours actually worked in a representative week of 1933 averaged 29.6, and in machine shops 34.6, as compared with a full-time working week of 49.4 and 48.5 hours respectively. In the silk and artificial silk industry, in a representative week early in 1933, the hours actually worked averaged 44 a week, the average full time hours being 50.9 a week. An enquiry carried out in July 1934 concerning certain occupations in the cigarette and smoking and chewing tobacco industries, when these were working under a modified President's Re-employment Agreement, shows that employees in these industries were actually working less than 40 hours a week, a majority in the chewing tobacco industry working from 30 to 35 hours a week. The reduction as compared with July 1933 was from 5 to 11 hours a week [1].

U.S.S.R. — Under an Order of the Central Council of Trade Unions of 29 July 1934 the compensation for overtime may not take the form of an equivalent rest period but only of payment at overtime rates.

The average normal hours of work of adult workers employed in the heavy industries were, in 1933, 6.99 a day. The working day averaged 6.9 hours in coal mines, 6.94 hours in iron and steel works, and 7 hours in mechanical engineering and metalworking and in the cotton textile industry.

The International Movement

The movement in favour of the 40-hour week gathered fresh impetus during 1934, owing mainly to the interest aroused by the experiments made in this field in the United States and the voluntary agreement concluded in Italy.

In all kinds of circles the question of shortening working hours as a means of reducing unemployment was studied with close attention. In Belgium, France, Great Britain, the Irish Free State, New Zealand and Switzerland the public authorities defined their attitude towards the introduction of shorter hours, or referred the question to the competent departments for consideration. In Czechoslovakia, the President of the Republic expressed himself in favour of the introduction of the 40-hour week. The Northern European Conference on social policy, which was held in October 1934 and was attended by representatives of the Governments of Denmark, Finland, Norway and Sweden, passed a resolution in which it stated that for the time being it was impossible to introduce

[1] For statistics of actual hours of work, see Vol. II of the *Year-Book*: " Labour Statistics ", table VI.

a general reduction of hours by law. It held, however, that a reduction of hours would be a serviceable means of counteracting unemployment, provided that it was introduced in those trades where it might be expected to lead to a substantial increase in the number of workers, and that it did not for technical or economic reasons lead to an increase in the costs of production, which in turn would result in reducing the productive capacity of the trade in question. The Conference drew attention to the desirability of reducing hours of work on works which were organised by the public authorities, or with their support, to provide work for the unemployed, and on which normal wages were paid.

The Inter-Parliamentary Conference held in September 1934 came to the conclusion that it was indispensable that the possibilities of finding work for as large a number as possible of unemployed should be regulated by an international Convention; that one of the essential conditions for such a Convention should be not only to preserve the purchasing power and the consuming capacity of the wage earners, but also to see that the latter received their due share of the benefits resulting from recent technical progress; and that the introduction of shorter working hours was not only a temporary expedient in periods of crisis, but also a means of fighting the growing unemployment caused, even in normal times, by rationalisation, technical progress, and the ousting of men by machinery. It invited the national groups of the Union to take the necessary steps with their respective Governments in order that the delegates to the next International Labour Conference might receive the necessary instructions to make the adoption of the proposed regulations possible.

The Technical Committee of the International Association for Social Progress, at a meeting held in May 1934, passed a resolution declaring that the reduction of hours of work to a maximum of 40 in the week was one of the most typical manifestations of the trend which social progress should follow, and was calculated to promote the re-absorption in the production process of the unemployed who had lost their work in consequence of the ever-growing rapidity of mechanisation in modern industry.

The workers' organisations in the various countries continued to press their claim for a reduction of working hours.

In accordance with the principles of social policy laid down in its memorandum of 1933, the International Federation of Trade Unions continued its campaign for the introduction of a 40-hour week, with maintenance of wages. The various international trade secretariats also put forward the same demand, and urged the affiliated national organisations to seize every opportunity to urge Governments to introduce a 40-hour week by law and to endeavour to secure its application when concluding collective agreements.

The International Federation of Christian Trade Unions took similar steps, after having demanded, in a resolution adopted in June 1934, that the International Labour Conference should adopt

one or more Draft Conventions making effective provision for the 40-hour week and guaranteeing the collective Sunday rest, and that this reform should include the maintenance of present wage rates.

The Asiatic Labour Congress (Ceylon, India and Japan), which met for the first time in 1934, also called for shorter working hours, without any reduction in wages, and an effective reduction of overtime, as a remedy for unemployment.

Certain international federations have suggested to the Governing Body of the International Labour Office that the building, margarine, edible oil and soap, artificial silk, textile, and public works industries might suitably be the subject of special international Conventions for the reduction of working hours.

Most of the employers' associations, on the other hand, remained hostile to a reduction of working hours, and the General Confederation of French Production, for instance, again drew attention to the dangers and disadvantages of such a measure. But, as already stated, it is to be noted that the Italian Fascist Confederation of Manufacturers, and the Czechoslovak Manufacturers' Association signed agreements with the corresponding workers' organisations which recognised the principle of the reduction of the working week to 40 hours.

International Regulation

It was not found possible during 1934 to adopt international regulations to reduce hours of work either in industry or in commerce and offices.

The question was on the Agenda of the Eighteenth Session of the International Labour Conference, which was asked to consider a Blue Report prepared by the Office, containing the texts of two proposed Draft Conventions.

Before these drafts were referred to a special Committee, a lengthy debate took place in plenary sitting to establish whether a reduction of hours of work would contribute to the reduction of unemployment. The Employers' spokesmen contended that, so far from there being any guarantee that a reduction of hours would diminish unemployment, there was a real danger that it would increase unemployment, owing to the reactions of the change upon costs of production and purchasing power. The Workers' spokesmen held that a general reduction of hours would relieve unemployment, and that the workers were entitled to share in the benefits of industrial progress instead of being its victims. The Government representatives who spoke were divided in their views. Finally the Conference decided on a record vote, by 71 to 22, to refer the Blue Report and drafts prepared by the Office to a Committee.

The Employers' group (with the exception of the Italian Employers' delegate) declined to take part in the work of the Committee, so as to avoid any participation in the drafting of " precise texts of Conventions dealing with measures of the principles

of which it disapproved in the general interest ". This abstention meant that either the Workers' group or the Government group alone could secure the adoption of any motion, provided it had the support of one member of another group.

The proposed Draft Convention referring to industry, which limited hours of work to 40 a week on an average calculated over a period of four weeks, was adopted after important amendments had been made in its scope. The clause dealing with the power of exemption given to the competent authority in respect of persons employed in undertakings employing not more than six persons, and persons employed in undertakings in which only members of the employer's family are employed, was deleted, while that relating to persons occupying positions of supervision, management or confidence was made more rigid.

The article dealing with the grant of overtime quotas was amended so as to ensure that the competent authority should take into account the state of unemployment in the country or region concerned.

Discussion of the proposed Draft Convention for commerce and offices followed the same course. A Draft Recommendation concerning the maintenance of the standard of living and a Draft Resolution on technological unemployment were adopted, as submitted by the Office, without opposition and without discussion.

The difficulties which had made themselves felt in Committee reappeared in the discussion in plenary sitting. The Employers' group (with the exception of the Italian Employers' delegate) announced that there was nothing in the Committee's report to modify their attitude of absolute opposition to the compulsory reduction of hours of work as a remedy for unemployment, and that consequently they would not take part in the discussion or vote on the separate articles of the Committee's drafts, and would vote against the adoption of the report and drafts.

The Conference then proceeded to discuss, article by article, the Draft Convention concerning industry submitted by the Committee, and rejected a proposal to restore the original text of the Office draft permitting the exemption of certain categories.

After some voting which had the effect of defining the scope of the proposed Draft Convention in such a way as to allow of no exceptions or exemptions whatsoever, the Conference, by a record vote, declared itself to be in favour of Article 1 by 44 votes to 8. The quorum not having been attained, Article 1 was, however, not adopted. This result provoked vehement protests from speakers representing the Workers' group against the abstentions which had caused the failure to reach the quorum.

When the discussion was resumed on the last day of the Session, the Conference had before it two proposals emanating from members of the Government group. One proposal, submitted by the British Government delegation and the Government delegates of eight other countries (Estonia, Finland, Greece, Japan, Latvia, the Netherlands, Portugal and Switzerland) called for further enquiry

into the problem. Governments were to be requested to undertake, in consultation with employers' and workers' organisations, a detailed examination of the effect of the reduction of hours of work upon the increase in the volume of employment and upon wages, whether for industry as a whole or for each industry or group of industries taken separately, and to communicate the results of this enquiry to the International Labour Office within six months. The enquiry was to be continued subsequently as regards commerce, offices and other wage-earning activities. The information thus assembled was to be the subject of a report by the Governing Body to the Nineteenth Session of the Conference, and also to be the basis of discussion by the Governing Body as to whether it was possible to place the question on the Agenda of the Nineteenth Session.

The other proposal, advocated by the Italian Government delegation and by the Government delegates of 23 other States, requested the Office to obtain further information, and also requested the Governing Body to place the question of the reduction of hours of work upon the Agenda of the next Session of the Conference for the adoption of one or more Draft Conventions.

As a result of a record vote, the latter resolution was adopted by 75 votes to 37.

As a result of this decision, the Governing Body of the International Labour Office decided to place the question of the reduction of hours of work on the Agenda of the 1935 Session of the Conference. The Conference will determine at that and subsequent Sessions the classes of establishments to which this reduction will apply, and the methods of application for each of them. The Governing Body decided that the 1935 Session of the Conference should apply the reduction of hours to the following industries: public works undertaken and subsidised by Governments; iron and steel; building and contracting; glass-bottle manufacture; and coal mines.

It will be remembered that the International Labour Conference, at its Seventeenth Session in June 1933, adopted a resolution requesting the Governments of the States Members to take all necessary steps to suspend the application of exceptions from the 48-hour week prescribed by laws or regulations or by practice. This resolution requested the International Labour Office and the States Members to exchange information on this subject. On the basis of replies received by the Office from the Governments of the States Members, after they had considered the resolution, the Bureau prepared a report which was published in the *International Labour Review* in May 1934 under the title of " Overtime and the Economic Depression ". It passes in review the steps taken by the workers and employers and the administrative action of the various States with a view to the reduction or abolition of overtime.

The 1919 Convention. — The following action was taken during 1934 in regard to the Convention for the limitation of hours of

work in industrial undertakings to 8 in the day and 48 in the week[1]:

Convention No. 1: Hours of Work (Industry), 1919.

Cuba. — Ratification registered on 20 September 1934.

Finland. — In pursuance of a resolution adopted by the Conference of the four Northern European States held in Oslo in 1934, the Minister of Social Affairs took the necessary steps to ascertain to what extent overtime can be limited and normal hours of work reduced in the various branches of economic activity.

Nicaragua. — Ratification registered on 12 April 1934.

Turkey. — In a letter of 14 November 1934 the Minister of Foreign Affairs stated that a Labour Bill drafted by the competent services of the Ministry of Economy was based upon the principles of Conventions adopted by the Conference at its various Sessions and had been referred for examination to the Legislative Section of the Council of State.

Hours of Work in Coal Mines

National Regulations

France. — The Bill introduced by the Government in September 1932, with a view to bringing the Labour Code into line with the Convention concerning hours of work in coal mines, was passed by the Chamber of Deputies on 16 January 1934. At the time the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare stated that the Government would not ask the Senate to pass the Bill before the Convention came into force [2].

Germany. — In the lignite mines of Niederlausitz, a scheme came into force on 4 June 1934 guaranteeing workers a minimum weekly wage at least equal to that payable for 40 hours of work. The average number of hours worked per week was at the time fluctuating between 24 and 30. Should the application of the new scheme involve any dismissals, the economically sound undertakings in Niederlausitz have agreed to employ the wage earners dismissed[2].

Great Britain. — In response to representations by the Mineworkers' Federation of Great Britain, the Mines Department undertook a special enquiry into the working of overtime in coal mines. The enquiry was confined to Lancashire, where coal-cutting and conveying machinery has been introduced on a large scale. It covered mines employing 97 per cent. of the persons working below ground in that coalfield, and the period selected for examination was the six weeks ending 17 February 1934. During that period, 43,696 hours of overtime were worked, that is, the equivalent of

[1] See the tables at the end of the volume for the general situation in regard to the Convention.

[2] See the statistics of hours of work in coal mines in Vol. II of the *Year-Book:* " Labour Statistics ", table VII.

5,826 shifts of 7½ hours. The total number of ordinary shifts was 1,415,734, so that the average percentage of overtime worked was 0.41. The average duration of each case of overtime was 1 hour 41 minutes. With regard to the employment aspect of overtime, it was impossible, says the report, to give an exact estimate of the number of additional men who might be taken on if overtime were further reduced. The final conclusion of the report is that the enquiry has yielded no evidence pointing to the necessity for amending the Act of 1908 in regard to overtime.

Japan. — (See the statistics of hours of work in coal mines in Vol. II of the *Year-Book:* " Labour Statistics ", table VII).

United States. — The code of fair competition for the bituminous coal industry was amended on 31 March 1934 to provide for shorter hours. The maximum hours of work of all workers, except members of the executive, supervisory, technical and confidential staff, were fixed at 7 in the day and 35 in the week (as against 8 in the day and 40 in the week previously) at the usual working place and exclusive of the lunch period. The amendment provides for exemption in case of accident and in the case of workers whose daily duties include the handling of man-trips and workers required to remain on duty while the men are entering and leaving the mines. It exempts from the provision as to the maximum hours of work certain classes of workers, including those engaged in the transportation of coal or the manufacture of coke, and those engaged at power houses, sub-stations and pumps, and provides that other classes of workers may be exempted by joint agreements between the interested parties. These agreements, however, should not provide for work in excess of 8 hours in the day and 40 in the week[1].

International Regulation

There was no progress during 1934 in the ratification of the 1931 Convention limiting hours of work in coal mines.

As was pointed out in the *Year-Book* for 1933 [2], certain countries have found it difficult to bring the operation of their mines into line with some of the clauses of the Convention. With a view to facilitating the simultaneous and early ratification of the Convention, the Governing Body of the International Labour Office, when it met in January 1934, convened in pursuance of a resolution adopted at the Seventeenth Session of the Labour Conference in 1933 a tripartite meeting of Government representatives, mine owners and miners in the seven interested countries, other countries being free to send representatives if they wished. The meeting was held in June 1934. It considered the difficulties mentioned and expressed the opinion that the Governing Body's attention should be drawn to the

[1] See the statistics of hours of work in anthracite and bituminous coal mines in Vol. II of the *Year-Book:* " Labour Statistics, " table VII.

[2] Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1933*, p. 98.

advisability of contemplating the amendment of certain technical clauses of the Convention.

At its Sixty-eighth Session (September 1934), the Governing Body, after discussing the record of the tripartite meeting, decided to open the procedure for partial revision of the Convention and to communicate to the Governments the five points mentioned. On the proposal of the French workers' representative, the Governing Body added a sixth point, raising the question of fixing a lower maximum for hours of work than that laid down in the present text of the Convention [1].

Finally, at its Sixty-ninth Session (January-February 1935), the Governing Body decided that the partial revision of the Convention should bear on the following points: work on Sundays, on continuous operations, and on certain preparatory and complementary operations. It was agreed that hours of work, on the other hand, should not be reduced by the procedure of revision, but should be dealt with as part of the item on the Agenda of the Nineteenth Session of the Conference relating to the reduction of hours of work.

Convention No. 31: Hours of Work (Coal Mines) 1931 [2].

Finland. — The Government informed Parliament in April 1934 that this Convention was of no immediate practical interest to Finland, which possesses no coal mines. From the general point of view of labour protection, and in order to equalise the cost of production in the different countries, Finland had nevertheless taken part in the adoption of this Convention, and for the same reasons it was held that it should ratify. Since, however, the countries most directly concerned by the Convention had not yet ratified it, it seemed desirable that Finland should wait for the time being; but to avoid having the question submitted again to Parliament, the Government asked to be given authority now to ratify the Convention in the conditions set forth.

France. — The Chamber of Deputies adopted on 16 January 1934 a Bill to bring the Labour Code into conformity with the provisions of the Convention [3].

Japan. — The Privy Council decided on 20 December 1933 not to ratify this Convention immediately.

The 40-hour week in mines. — While pressing for the ratification of the 1931 Convention, national and international mine workers' organisations continue to urge that the 40-hour week be introduced in coal mines as well as in industry generally. The Congress of the International Mine Workers' Federation (Lille, 6-9 August 1934) adopted a resolution drawing attention to the fact that since the demand for a 7-hour day in coal mines had been included in the Federation's programme, technical equipment and rationalisation had been developed to such a degree that production had been considerably increased and the dangers for the workers considerably intensified. The Congress therefore demanded the introduction of

[1] See below, under "The 40-Hour Week in Mines".

[2] The information given here relates only to 1934. See the tables at the end of the volume for the general situation as regards this Convention.

[3] A Bill for the ratification of the Convention was adopted by the Chamber on 21 December 1933.

the working day of 6 hours including winding time. The Executive Committee of the International Federation of Christian Miners' Trade Unions (Geneva, 4 January 1934) likewise decided to press for the introduction of a 40-hour week, and of shorter hours for miners.

In the proposed draft Convention concerning the 40-hour week in industry which was submitted to the Eighteenth Session of the Conference (June 1934), the Office had excluded coal mines and proposed that a further reduction of working hours in this industry should be specially considered at a subsequent Session of the Conference, for it had seemed expedient, before attempting to secure a further reduction, to overcome the difficulties which are making it necessary in 1935 to revise the 1931 Convention. As is known, the Conference was unable to adopt the proposed Convention at its Eighteenth Session, and the question of reducing hours of work was placed on the Agenda of the Nineteenth Session of the Conference in a different form which involves consideration of the position industry by industry.

Some months later, in September 1934, when the Governing Body of the International Labour Office was at its Sixty-eighth Session considering the partial revision of the 1931 Convention, the French workers' representative voiced the above-mentioned demand of the miners' organisations and proposed that Governments be consulted on the question of fixing a maximum weekly limit of hours of work lower than that resulting from the application of the Convention in its present form.

The Governing Body adopted this proposal, but at its Sixty-ninth Session (January-February 1935), when fixing the points on which the partial revision of the Convention should bear, decided not to discuss the reduction of hours of work until the final selection of the industries to which it is proposed that the Nineteenth Session of the Conference should apply the reduction of hours of work. When the Governing Body came to this latter question, it adopted by 14 votes to 7 a proposal made by the French Government representative to include coal mines among the industries with which the Conference would have to deal at the Nineteenth Session. In consequence, a new procedure has been opened with a view to reducing hours of work in coal mines.

Methods of Providing Rests and Alternation of Shifts in Automatic Sheet-Glass Works

National Regulations

Czechoslovakia. — An agreement of 9 November 1931 had introduced the four-shift system in an important sheet-glass works; it has been followed by other agreements establishing the same ystem in the various sheet-glass works of the country.

Italy. — In accordance with the agreement between the Confederations of industrial workers and manufacturers concluded on 11 October 1934 for the purpose of spreading available work over a larger number of workers, an agreement was reached on 27 November 1934 in the sheet-glass industry which makes special provision for automatic sheet-glass works. On continuous operations four shifts are worked, the average number of hours being 42 per week, calculated over a period of four weeks. Each shift works 40 hours for three consecutive weeks and 48 hours during the fourth week. In order to make conditions of work uniform, a 42-hour (average) week has likewise been introduced for non-continuous operations.

United States. — The sheet-glass industry is covered by two sets of regulations, the first applying to window-glass manufacture and the second to flat-glass manufacture, including plate glass, safety glass, etc., but excluding window glass. The code of fair competition drawn up for the window-glass industry has not yet been approved, but the rules it contains in regard to hours of work are in force and were mentioned in the *Year-Book* for 1933[1]. A code of fair competition was approved for the flat-glass industry on 22 December 1934. Under this code normal working hours are to be 6 in the day and 42 in the week for workers engaged on continuous operations, and 8 in the day and 36 in the week for those engaged on non-continous operations; in both cases the number of hours worked is to be calculated as an average over 2 weeks. Should any member of a shift be absent, the shift may work 4 hours more per day provided it does not work more than 42 hours in the week. 6 hours' overtime may be worked per week on continuous operations. Clerical employees work 40 hours per week.

International Regulation

At its Eighteenth Session (June 1934), the International Labour Conference adopted by 87 votes to 28 a Draft Convention for the regulation of hours of work in automatic sheet-glass works. The regulations apply to persons who work in successive shifts in necessarily continuous operations in sheet-glass works manufacturing by automatic machines sheet-glass or other glass of the same characteristics. The hours worked by persons employed in this industry may not exceed an average of 42 per week calculated over a period of not more than 4 weeks. The length of a spell of work may not exceed 8 hours and the interval between two spells of work by the same shift may not be less than 16 hours, except where necessary on the occasion of the periodical change-over of shifts. The regulations involve the working of at least four shifts. Provision is made for overtime in case of accident, damage to machinery or *force majeure* or to make good the unforeseen absence of one

[1] Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1933*, p. 101.

or more members of a shift. Adequate compensation must be granted for overtime.

Further, the Conference unanimously adopted a resolution inviting the International Labour Office to pursue its studies on methods of providing rest in other branches of the glass industry where continuous operations are carried out by successive shifts. At its Sixty-ninth Session (January-February 1935) the Governing Body decided to include the manufacture of glass bottles among the industries to which it is proposed the Nineteenth Session of the Conference (June 1935) should apply the reduction of hours of work.

The text of the Draft Convention adopted by the Conference has been communicated to Governments of Member States. Before the end of 1934 a number of these Governments had already informed the International Labour Office of the measures they had taken with regard to this Convention.

Convention No. 43: Sheet-Glass Works, 1934.

Australia. — Presented to the Commonwealth Parliament on 13 December 1934; also referred to the State Governments for any legislative or other action which they may see fit to take.

Colombia. — Submitted for examination to the authorities concerned.

Dominican Republic. — Submitted for examination to the Secretariat of Labour and Communications.

Great Britain. — Presented to Parliament in October 1934.

New Zealand. — Presented to the House of Representatives on 30 October 1934 and to the Legislative Council on 5 November 1934.

Rumania. — Referred for examination to the chambers of labour, the employers' and workers' organisations, and the public authorities concerned.

South Africa. — The competent authority decided on 11 December 1934 that the Convention should not be ratified, since there are no automatic sheet-glass works within the territory of the Union.

Spain. — Submitted for examination to the Labour Council.

Venezuela. — Submitted for examination to the services concerned.

Hours of Work of Salaried Employees

National Regulations

Australia. — In February 1934 the Commonwealth Court of Conciliation and Arbitration made an award covering the theatrical industry throughout Australia except in Queensland. The maximum weekly hours prescribed are as follows: 60 for stage-door keepers (54 for stage-door keepers required to attend telephones and switchboards); 44 for female employees of the wardrobe department (other than the wardrobe mistress), and for male cleaners; 42 for operators and their assistants in continuous picture shows and all shows giving two performances a day, the period of actual operating

being limited to 36 hours a week; 36 for operators and their assistants in other picture shows, their period of actual operating being 24 hours a week, and for female cleaners; 34¼ for ticket sellers in continuous picture shows; and 24 for operators and their assistants in small picture shows. For all other employees, the working week is 48 hours. Detailed regulations determine for each category the distribution of hours within the week. Overtime is to be paid for at time-and-a-half rates; Sunday work entitles the employee to a supplement equal to one-third of his weekly rate. An award made in November 1934 reduces the number of hours worked by the night shift in postal services to 38½ per week.

In Western Australia the hours of Government employees to whom the 44-hour week did not yet apply were reduced to 44 without any reduction in pay.

By an award of the New South Wales Conciliation Commissioner, club employees are to work 44 hours in a 6-day week. Hours of work in flats, residential establishments and lodging houses are not to exceed 44 in the week for men and 36 for women. Overtime must be paid for at not less than time-and-a-quarter rates. An award issued by the Industrial Commission on 1 May 1934 fixes the normal hours of work of persons employed in boarding establishments and coffee palaces at 48 in the week. Certain public and private hospitals had asked the Industrial Commission, chiefly on grounds of public interest, to exempt doctors, medical students, nurses, masseurs and masseuses employed by them from the 44-hour week. The Commission decided that the hours worked in these hospitals should be 48 for the day nursing staff (52 for staff in training) and 55 hours for the night nursing staff.

During the last quarter of 1933, the Industrial Court of Queensland made a number of awards applying the 44-hour week, as provided for in the Industrial Conciliation and Arbitration Act of 1932. Among the occupations covered are those of clerks and switchboard attendants, bakers and pastrycooks, and employees in the Sunday newspaper offices in Brisbane. Switchboard attendants and clerks in the Northern Division of Queensland other than those employed by the State, those employed in banking institutions, and shop assistants only work 40 hours a week. On 23 June 1933, the Industrial Court, which had received several applications for the maintenance of the 48-hour week previously in force, had already made an award introducing the 44-hour week for hotel, restaurant, club and private hospital employees in some districts. The 48-hour week has been maintained for nurses.

In Victoria, the Commercial Clerks' Wages Board decided that hours should be reduced from 44 to 43 a week. Hours in retail stores remain fixed at 46 per week.

Austria. — An Order issued on 19 February 1934 amended and supplemented the administrative regulations of 28 July 1920 which authorised exceptions to the Eight-Hour Day Act of 17 December 1919. Under this Order, banks may now, without special authorisation, require each employee to work 190 hours' overtime a year.

Further, the hours may be determined by collective agreement, provided they do not exceed 56 in the week, hours in excess of this figure being paid as overtime. In such cases the provision authorising 190 hours' overtime a year is inoperative.

The factory inspectors' report for 1933 mentions cases of overtime, varying in extent but within legal limits, in commercial undertakings, restaurants, and hairdressing establishments.

Brazil. — A Decree dated 31 October 1933 lays down that normal hours of work for employees in pawnshops and similar establishments are to be 7 in the day and 41 in the week. The working day must fall between 8 a.m. and 8 p.m. Another Decree, dated 3 November 1933, lays down that the normal hours of bank employees are to be 6 in the day and 36 in the week; hours may be increased to 8 in the day and 45 in the week in exceptional circumstances for not more than 30 days in the year. The normal working day must fall between 8 a.m. and 8 p.m. and there must be a lunch interval of 1 or 2 hours. Employees permanently occupied as typists are entitled to 10 minutes' rest in the employers' time after every 90 minutes of continuous work. In pursuance of a Decree of 10 July 1934, the hours of employees operating submarine cables and of wireless operators were fixed at 6 in the day and 36 in the week. For hotels, boarding-houses, restaurants and similar establishments, a Decree of 12 July 1934 limits hours to 8 per day if worked between 5 a.m. and 10 p.m., and 7 if worked after 10 p.m. Timetables combining both systems may be adopted by collective agreement.

Canada. — In Alberta the Trade and Industry Act, which came into force on 19 October 1934, makes special provision for wholesale and retail dealers, druggists, restaurant keepers, barbers and hairdressers. The Act further provides that hours of work may be limited by codes drawn up with the agreement of a two-thirds majority in any trade which may under certain conditions be made binding on every person in the trade concerned.

In British Columbia the Act of 14 June 1934, which made provision for a 48-hour week and an 8-hour day, was extended by Regulations issued on 7 and 9 August 1934 to cover the mercantile industry; persons employed in that industry outside Vancouver, Victoria, and certain specified localities are allowed to work 2 hours per day in excess of the daily limit fixed by the Act on Saturdays and on days preceding legal public holidays, provided that the total hours in any one week do not exceed 48.

An Order concerning minimum wages in the hotels and restaurants of Manitoba limits the hours worked in such establishments to 10 in the day and 48 in the week. These regulations do not apply to cooks or to male hotel employees of over 18 years of age.

An Act which came into force on 3 April 1934 in Ontario amends the Factories, Shops and Office Buildings Act; it limits the hours of work of adult male employees in bakeshops to 56 in the week, instead of 60.

In Quebec an Order in Council of 20 June 1934, fixing minimum wages for women employed in retail stores, limits the hours worked by such employees to 48 in towns with a population of over 25,000 and to 54 in towns with a population of 5,000 to 25,000.

In Saskatchewan Orders issued on 1 November 1933 in pursuance of minimum wage legislation limit the working week for women employed in shops to 49 hours at Moose Jaw, Regina and Saskatoon, and 51 hours in certain other towns; to 48 hours for those employed in mail order stores, barbers' shops and beauty parlours; and to 49 hours for those employed in hotels, restaurants, and refreshment rooms.

Further, in some of the Provinces hours of work have in certain cases been indirectly regulated by minimum wage legislation laying down the number of hours in respect of which the minimum wage is to be paid.

Colombia. — The Act of 20 November 1934 concerning the loss and recovery of civil rights confers certain rights on employees and, in particular, fixes their hours of work at 8 per day.

Finland. — The Council of State instructed a committee to enquire into the possibility of introducing legislation on hours of work in undertakings which are not covered by the Eight-Hour-Day Act; these include postal, telephone, and customs services and hospitals.

France. — A number of Decrees were issued with a view to applying the Act of 23 April 1919 to pastrycooks' establishments, hairdressing establishments, chemists' shops, and other retail shops and offices in several towns and departments, or to unifying the regulation of working hours in these establishments. For instance, a Decree of 23 October 1933 provides that in ladies' and gentlemen's hairdressing establishments in Paris and the Department of the Seine the whole staff are entitled to a rest period between 12.30 and 2 p.m.

Existing Decrees were also amended. Under another Decree of 23 October 1933 the hours of attendance in hairdressing and wig-making establishments which owing to the intermittent nature of the work are deemed to be equivalent to 48 hours of actual work are fixed at 52 in Paris, 54 in towns with more than 500,000 inhabitants, 55 throughout the Department of the Seine except Paris, 57 in towns with not more than 500,000 and not less than 100,000 inhabitants, and 60 in towns of less than 100,000 inhabitants. The amount of overtime allowed to meet exceptional pressure of work is reduced from 52 to 25 hours in Paris and the Department of the Seine.

Another Decree, dated 23 July 1934, made several changes in the regulations for the application of the Eight-Hour-Day Act to wholesale and retail commerce. In the first place, it extends the scope of the regulations to cover undertakings for the bottling of mineral waters. It abolishes the right to make up for hours of work lost through suspension of operations on days other than the

weekly rest day, including statutory public holidays, local festivals, or other local holidays. On the other hand, it empowers departmental factory inspectors to permit overtime in these cases up to a maximum of 40 hours in the year. Finally, the Decree reduces to 100 hours in the year the total amount of overtime which may be worked by an undertaking in order to cope with exceptional pressure of work, except in the case of undertakings for the marketing and salting of sea fish, the forwarding of fruit and vegetables, and the bottling of mineral waters, such undertakings being entitled to 150 hours. The working day may in no case exceed 10 hours, except in the marketing and salting of sea fish and in the champagne trade during the harvest period, where it may be extended to 12 hours.

Germany. — The effects of general legislation on the regulation of working hours have already been mentioned with reference to hours of work in industrial undertakings. The Order of 27 July 1934 concerning hours of work made no great changes in commercial undertakings.

The measures taken to limit the working week in bakeries and butchers' shops have similarly been mentioned in connection with the regulations for industrial undertakings. These measures apply to the entire staff of the undertakings, including sales, bookkeeping and delivery employees.

There has been an appreciable development in the fixing of hours of work by collective agreements, particularly for wholesale and retail trade, hospitals, places of amusement, hotels and restaurants, hairdressing establishments, bespoke tailoring, and for domestic servants, doorkeepers and watchmen. In most cases the normal hours are limited to 48 in the week, but longer hours are allowed in several occupations. In cinemas, employees whose duties include preparatory and complementary operations usually work 49 hours per week. In hospitals and similar establishments, the hours worked by staff of various categories may be increased to 60 per week. The same usually applies to staff employed in cafés and restaurants. The number of hours worked by domestic servants is not fixed, but a minimum daily rest period varying between 8 and 9 hours is prescribed. Watchmen and similar staff work between 7½ and 9 hours in the day.

Great Britain. — In March 1934 a deputation from the Executive of the Union of Post Office Workers waited on the Postmaster-General to elaborate its case for a 5-day week of 40 hours, inclusive of meals, for the manipulative grades. The Postmaster-General replied that the proposal was impracticable; on the one hand the introduction of a 40-hour week would entail heavy additional expenses, and on the other, the net working hours of the post office staff concerned did not exceed an average of 44 in the week as compared with a normal 48 or 47 in industry at large.

India. — A Bill introduced on 11 September 1934 to regulate conditions of employment in shops in Bombay Presidency provides

for the limitation of the hours of work of shop and restaurant employees.

Italy. — The Fascist Confederation of Commerce and the Fascist Confederation of Commercial Employees signed an agreement prescribing measures to be taken with a view to reducing unemployment among commercial employees. This agreement came into force on 28 October 1934 and is valid for one year. The principal stipulations are that overtime shall be abolished, and that except where such a reduction is technically impossible, the working day shall be reduced by at least 2 hours, or the number of days worked in the week shall be reduced in undertakings with over 10 employees, not counting those employed in separate premises. National agreements have already been concluded giving effect to these stipulations in most trades. Similar agreements, intended to spread work over a larger number of employees, have been concluded in regard to hotels, restaurants, boarding houses, cafés and hairdressing establishments, especially in large towns. With the same object in view, an agreement was concluded on 1 October 1934 between the Confederations of employers and employees in credit and insurance institutions, which also provides for the abolition of overtime.

As a result of these agreements, the number of persons reemployed by 29 December 1934 was 12,000 [1].

Netherlands. — In November 1933, when the 1934 budget was being discussed, the Minister of Social Affairs stated that the adoption of the Bill relating to hours of work for office employees would be postponed until better times returned. He also thought it impracticable to regulate by law the hours worked in hotels, cafés and restaurants.

In December 1934, when the Second Chamber was discussing the 1935 budget, it was proposed that the scope of the 1919 Labour Act should be extended to include persons employed in cafés, hotels and restaurants, and office employees. The Minister declared that the regulation of hours worked in cafés, hotels and restaurants was beset with peculiar difficulties. He was, however, prepared to consider the possibility of introducing a system of rotation and if need be a special scheme for work in the forenoon. As regards office employees, the Minister stated that he was in touch with a number of employers with a view to finding means of affording these workers partial protection at least.

Poland. — A Decree of 20 December 1933, which came into force on 1 January 1934, limits the hours of nurses and persons whose work is connected with the care of the sick to 60 in the week and 10 in the day, including meal-times. If shifts are worked, the time-table of the shifts is to be changed at least once a week.

Portugal. — The Legislative Decree of 24 August 1934 concerning hours of work made no essential change in existing legislation.

[1] By 2 February 1935 the number had risen to 25,000.

The maximum hours of work continue to be 8 in industry and 7 for salaried employees; the hours of hotel employees, which had hitherto not been regulated, are to be limited by special regulations. The National Institute of Labour and Social Welfare may, if it thinks fit, exempt from the scope of the Decree certain commercial undertakings situated in small rural districts, and also persons in responsible positions or engaged in management or supervision. Commercial undertakings are to be open only between 9 a.m. and 6 p.m. Shop hours are to be fixed by the municipal authorities after consultation with the corporative organisations concerned. Overtime is subject to strict regulations. One of the Orders interpreting this legislation states that the Decree does not apply to persons employed in barristers' chambers or in the offices of other members of the liberal professions; such employees are covered by earlier legislation. Another Order defines the cases in which commercial undertakings in small districts may be exempted.

United States. — The reduction of hours of work effected throughout industry by the codes of fair competition adopted under the National Industrial Recovery Act has also been extended to establishments employing salaried employees. Whilst on 12 January 1934 only 15 codes had been adopted covering persons employed in commercial establishments, the professions and services, on 8 August 1934 74 codes were in force for these branches of activity. These covered 8,983,000 persons, of whom 5,092,000, working under 16 codes, were employed in retail distribution; 1,664,000 working under 16 codes, were employed in the professions and services; 1,288,000, working under 32 codes, in wholesale distribution; 490,000, working under 5 codes, in amusement industries; and 449,000, working under 6 codes, in finance. Of all these workers, 0.5 per cent. were under codes providing for a working week of less than 40 hours; 25.9 per cent. under codes providing for a 40-hour week; and 73.6 per cent. under codes providing for a working week of more than 40 hours, this group including in particular persons employed in retail distribution and in the professions and services.

A short summary is given below of the hours provisions of a few of the more important of these codes.

The code for the *retail* trade provides for different schedules of hours of work according to the time during which the establishment is open for business. Thus, in the case of establishments open less than 56 hours a week employees may not work more than 40 hours a week and 8 a day; in that of establishments open from 56 to 63 hours a week, employees may not work more than 44 hours a week or 9 a day; and if the establishment is open for more than 63 hours a week, employees are permitted to work up to 48 hours a week and 10 a day. In each case the daily limit may be exceeded by one hour on one day a week, the weekly limit being respected. An exceptional prolongation limited in extent is allowed for two weeks of the first six months of the year and three weeks for the second six months. The code for the *wholesale* or *distributing* trade provides for a basic 40-hour day. On one day a week the daily limit may be

exceeded by one hour. Outside delivery men, maintenance men, outside repair service men and installation men may work a 48-hour week. Overtime is permitted at the rate of time-and-a-third. The code for the *hotel* industry provides for a basic working week of 54 hours with a 10-hour day and a 6-day week. This may be increased to 60 hours a week and 11 a day at peak times for periods not exceeding three weeks in the first and three weeks in the second six months of the year, or in the case of hotel establishments open for business during not more than six months in any calendar year. An extra hour may be worked, included in the weekly limit, on one day a week. The *bankers'* code provides for a 40-hour week averaged over 13 weeks. An exception allows for a 40-hour week during 16 consecutive weeks in any calendar year in districts or sections of the country where the seasonal nature of commerce, agriculture or industry making necessary the moving of some product within a limited period imposes upon banking facilities an unusual demand. All the above codes exempt certain categories of persons from their scope and contain some exceptions to the normal hours laid down.

Demands of Salaried Employees' Organisations

Salaried employees' organisations continued to devote much of their attention to the hours of work question, and during 1934 several resolutions were adopted demanding the application of the 8-hour day.

In *Rumania* the Association of Shop and Office Employees submitted a memorandum to the Minister of Labour on 17 June 1934, drawing his attention to the fact that shop assistants were the only group of workers whose hours of work were not regulated. The Association asked that the Eight-Hour-Day Act be extended to commercial establishments. In *Sweden* the Commercial Workers' Union requested the Governement to introduce in the Riksdag a proposal for ratification of the Convention concerning hours of work in commerce and offices, and further to introduce legislation based on that Convention. In the *United States* the biennial Convention of the American Nurses' Association (Washington, April 1934) adopted a resolution approving the 8-hour day as the regular working day for nurses. In *Yugoslavia* the Congress held by the Federation of Banking, Insurance, Commercial and Industrial Employees (Belgrade, 20-21 May 1934) adopted a resolution to the effect that hours of work should be reduced to 8 per day for commercial employees and 6 per day for bank employees.

Salaried employees' associations are also pressing for the introduction of a 40-hour week or an even shorter working week.

In *Belgium* the congress held by the General Union of Salaried Employees, Technicians, Warehousemen and Commercial Travellers (Brussels, 16-17 December 1933) urged that hours of work should be reduced in order that available work might be shared between all workers. The fourth Convention of the United Postal Employees of *Canada* (Toronto, 4-6 September 1934) adopted a resolution recom-

mending the establishment of a 40-hour week for day workers and a 35-hour week for night work to begin at 5 p.m. In *Great Britain* the Association of Women Clerks and Secretaries urged at its annual meeting (London, 10 March 1934) that the Trades Union Congress should conduct a national campaign for legal restriction to 35 hours per week in all branches of industry and commerce, with no reduction of wages. In *Poland* the congress held by the Federation of Intellectual Workers' (Salaried Employees) Unions (Warsaw, 11-12 March 1934) resolved to continue the struggle for the reduction of hours of work to 40 in the week. In *Rumania* the Federation of Private Employees' Unions demanded at its congress (Bucharest, 16 March 1934), that maximum hours of work be fixed at 42 in the week for the offices of all commercial and industrial undertakings except shops.

International Regulation

At its Eighteenth Session (June 1934) the International Labour Conference had before it a Draft Convention concerning the 40-hour week in commerce and offices. The Committee responsible for considering this question had first to give an opinion as to the advisability of preparing a special Convention for these occupations rather than a single Convention applicable both to industry and to commerce. After considering the Draft Conventions submitted to it, the Committee held that it would be better to draw up a special Convention for commerce and offices. It introduced certain amendments in the draft submitted by the Office for the purpose of extending the scope of the regulations. In particular it included in the draft three categories of establishments, those for the treatment or the care of the sick, etc., hotels, restaurants, cafés, etc., and places of public amusement, which the Office, following the main lines of the Draft Convention adopted in 1930, had excluded. The Conference did not vote on the Committee's proposals as there was no quorum for the vote on the Draft Convention relating to industry.

Convention No. 30: Hours of Work (Commerce and Offices), 1930 [1].

Chile. — Submitted for approval to the National Congress on 18 December 1934.

Finland. — In a proposal submitted to Parliament in April 1934, the Government asked for authority to ratify this Convention. The Act of 24 October 1919 respecting conditions of employment in commercial undertakings, offices and shops was, in general, in conformity with the Convention and in some respects its provisions were more favourable to employees than were those of the Convention. Since, however, the Convention differed in some points of detail from the legislation in force, the Commission which had been entrusted on 23 October 1930 with the preparation of amended legislation included in its proposals the amendments necessitated by the Convention.

[1] The information given here relates only to 1934. See the tables at the end of the volume for the general situation as regards this Convention.

A Bill respecting conditions of employment in commerce and offices which was submitted to Parliament at the same time as the Convention gives effect to the provisions of the Convention.

Mexico. — Ratification registered on 12 May 1934.

Nicaragua. — Ratification registered on 12 April 1934.

Recommendation No. 37: Hours of Work (Hotels, etc.), 1930.

Recommendation No. 38: Hours of Work (Theatres, etc.), 1930.

Recommendation No. 39: Hours of Work (Hospitals, etc.), 1930.

Finland. — The Government informed Parliament in April 1934 that hotels, restaurants and similar establishments were covered by the Eight-Hour-Day Act of 27 November 1917 and that the regulations concerning hours of work issued under that Act therefore applied to them. On the other hand, theatres and other places of amusement were not covered by this legislation, except independent workshops attached to these establishments, such as carpenters' shops, dressmaking rooms, etc., which were covered by the Eight-Hour-Day Act as being industrial undertakings. The hospitals and asylums covered by the last of these Recommendations also came under the Eight-Hour-Day Act, but regulations issued under section 12, subsection 2, of the Act had annually exempted these establishments from the limitation of hours of work. Special institutions, such as municipal asylums, homes for the aged, etc., were not covered by the Eight-Hour-Day Act.

Since the establishments to which the Recommendations refer were already covered in Finland to a certain extent by the regulations on hours of work, and the application of these regulations to other establishments covered by the Recommendations had already been contemplated, the Government saw no reason not to take part in a uniform international enquiry such as that proposed in the Recommendations. It therefore intended to supply in due course the information for which these Recommendations provide.

In a letter of 4 March 1935 the Minister of Social Affairs stated that the Government had submitted a proposal concerning these Recommendations to Parliament, which had raised no objections to Government action on the lines prescribed in the Recommendations.

Weekly Rest

Weekly Rest in Industrial Undertakings

National Regulations

China — The Factory Act has been amended and now applies to all factories using power-driven machinery and regularly employing thirty workers or more. China is therefore in a position to ratify the International Convention concerning the application of the weekly rest in industrial undertakings.

France. — In November 1933 the Superior Lab our Counci adopted various resolutions concerning the weekly rest. It proposed that loading and unloading in harbours, at wharves and in stations should be removed from the list of undertakings authorised to allow weekly rest by rotation and, on the other hand, that broadcasting stations should be included in the list.

As regards the shifting of the rest-day for skilled workers in plants where operations are necessarily continuous, the Council recommended that so far as possible every worker should be allowed a day of rest on Sunday. It also expressed the hope that public administrative regulations would specify the plants or operations in respect of which exceptions may be made to this rule and would lay down the methods of application for each case.

Germany. — The Act of 27 February 1934 concerning public holidays and the Order of 16 March 1934 bringing it into force contain detailed regulations on the observance of the Sunday rest [1].

The Minister of Labour has informed the Ministers of Social Affairs of the various States that new regulations in regard to the weekly rest are under consideration. Until these are issued, the rules laid down on 6 December 1934 in regard to operations of primary necessity are to be observed. The exceptions allowed apply especially to motor-car factories, newspaper printing works, breweries, mineral water and lemonade factories, ice factories, water-works, and undertakings for the supply of gas and electricity. In each branch of industry certain kinds of work are allowed, either on all Sundays and public holidays, or only on some of these days during the year. Workers employed for more than three hours on a Sunday or public holiday must have at least 18 hours' rest on the following Sunday or 36 hours' uninterrupted rest once every three weeks. Hours of work may not, except in specified circumstances, exceed 8 on any Sunday or public holiday. Finally, whereas the Industrial Order of 1907 prohibited the Sunday employment of young persons of under 16 years of age in undertakings employing not less than ten persons, the new regulations provide that, save in exceptional circumstances, the prohibition shall apply to all undertakings and raise the age limit to 18 years.

Great Britain. — During 1934 a movement was started to secure the prohibition of Sunday baking in bakeries. A deputation representing master bakers, co-operative societies and bakery employees waited on the Under-Secretary of State at the Home Office to request that appropriate legislation be introduced.

Hungary. — The Government has prepared a Bill concerning stoppages of work in industry on Sundays and certain public holidays. This legislation is to take the place of the Act of 1891 on the Sunday rest in industry. Its adoption will enable the Government to consider the possibility of ratifying the international Convention concerning the weekly rest in industrial undertakings.

Italy. — An Act relating to the Sunday and weekly rest was promulgated on 22 February 1934 and came into force on

[1] See below, under " Public Holidays ".

13 April 1934; it removed certain discrepancies of form and substance in existing legislation for the protection of workers, simplified the provisions of such legislation and brought it into harmony with corporative legislation. The new Act is based mainly on Declaration XV of the Labour Charter and gives special recognition to collective contracts of employment. Agricultural labourers are covered by the Act. The only persons excluded from its scope are certain classes of workers who are either already covered by other regulations (crews of vessels, members of the public services, etc.) or engaged in occupations plainly incompatible with such legislation (rice cultivation, tending of animals, sale of perishable products, etc.); workers who are closely related to the employer (to the third degree of relationship) are also excluded from the scope of the Act. Apart from these exceptions, all workers are entitled to a weekly rest of 24 consecutive hours.

In industries where operations are necessarily continuous and in which alternating shifts are impracticable, the rest allowed to skilled workers may be reduced to 12 hours.

Poland. — Conflicting applications in regard to the weekly rest in bakeries were made to the Ministry of Social Affairs. The Poznan Bakers' Guild asked for the right to work on Sundays and public holidays, whereas the corresponding organisation in Lodz requested that the existing regulations be maintained both on grounds of social justice and in order that apprentices may use their spare time rationally with a view to vocational training and to moral preparation for their future occupation.

Portugal. — The Legislative Decree of 24 August 1934 relating to hours of work contains provisions on the weekly rest of all persons engaged in commercial and industrial undertakings. The exceptions allowed are similar to those mentioned in the international Convention concerning the weekly rest in industrial undertakings.

Switzerland. — The Federal Council decided that the Weekly Rest Act of 26 September 1931 should come into force on 1 September 1934. An Order was also issued containing administrative regulations for the enforcement of the Act, and a table published showing which provisions of cantonal legislation will remain in force and which will have to be amended so as to conform to Federal legislation. The Act covers all public and private undertakings in: (*a*) commerce; (*b*) handicrafts and industry (so far as the provisions of Federal legislation in regard to conditions of employment in factories do not apply); (*c*) transport and communications (so far as the provisions of Federal legislation in regard to hours of work in railway or other transport undertakings and in regard to the public officials do not apply). The Act does not cover persons employed as drivers of motor vehicles, whose weekly rest was dealt with in an Order of 4 December 1933. The coming into force of this Act enabled Switzerland to ratify the

International Convention concerning the weekly rest in industrial undertakings.

As mentioned above, the hours of work and weekly rest of drivers of motor vehicles are governed by an Order of 4 December 1933. Persons employed as motor drivers must be allowed 52 days of rest of 24 consecutive hours each in every calendar year, if possible once a week. If compliance with this provision raises serious difficulties, the length of the rest period may be reduced to 20 hours on 17 days at most in the year, but the hours lost on any one day are to be made good during the following three weeks. As a general rule, each day of rest must be directly preceded by a daily rest period of at least 8 hours.

The Christian Textile and Clothing Workers petitioned the Federal Council to suppress the exceptions allowed as regards work on Sundays. In its reply the Federal Council pointed out that such exceptions had always been temporary and that they had been allowed on account of foreign competition, particularly in the artificial silk industry.

United States. — It appears from a report on labour legislation during 1933, published by the Department of Labor, that several amendments have been made in the legislation of various States. The Legislature of Massachusetts has exempted from the weekly rest law persons whose duties do not entail work on Sundays except sponge-setting in bakeries, caring for live animals, caring for machinery, farm service or urgent work. In New Hampshire work on Sundays is prohibited in certain occupations, in which one day's rest in seven has thus been introduced. A South Carolina Act of 1934 prohibits the employment of women and children on Sundays.

Further, out of the 695 codes of fair competition and similar measures adopted up to 8 August 1934, 370 limit the working week to 6 days, 1 to 5½ days, 40 to 5 days, 1 to 4 days, and 1 limits the working fortnight to 13 days.

International Regulation [1]

Convention No. 14: Weekly Rest (Industry), 1921.

China. — Ratification registered on 17 May 1934.

Hungary. — A Bill " respecting the cessation of work in industry on Sundays and certain public holidays ", to take the place of Act No. XIII of 1891 respecting " the Sunday rest in industry ", is in preparation. When the provisions of the new Act have come into force, the Government will examine the possibility of ratifying the Convention.

Nicaragua. — Ratification registered on 12 April 1934.

Switzerland. — The Federal Assembly adopted on 21 December 1934 a Federal Decree authorising the Federal Council to ratify the Convention [2]. A new Federal Act respecting weekly rest which was promulgated on 26 Sept-

[1] The information given here relates only to 1934. See the tables at the end of the volume for the general situation as regards this Convention.

[2] Ratification by Switzerland was registered on 16 January 1935.

ember 1931 and came into force on 1 September 1934 introduced the weekly rest on a Federal scale in all industrial undertakings and handicrafts to which the provisions of the Federal Factory Act do not apply.

The Additional Act of the Protocol of Peace, Friendship and Co-operation concluded between Columbia and Peru in 1934, when the Letician question was settled, contains a number of provisions relating to conditions of work in the Upper Amazon region. One of these provisions is that workers should be guaranteed a weekly rest of at least 24 hours.

The International Federation of Christian Textile Workers' Unions (Lucerne, May 1934) approved a resolution condemning certain attempts that had been made to introduce Sunday work in the artificial silk industry. The Congress called upon the International Labour Office to prepare an international Convention which would take its recommendations into account. The Executive Committee of the International Federation of Christian Factory and Transport Workers' Unions similarly instructed its secretary to approach the International Labour Office with a view to the adoption of an international Convention to secure the Sunday rest in the artificial silk industry.

Weekly Rest in Commercial Undertakings

National Regulations

Argentina. — The Minister of the Interior issued a Decree on 13 November 1934 which provided, among other things, for a weekly rest in the public entertainment industry. The provisions cover the various categories of employees, including musicians and actors. Special regulations are, however, to be issued at a later date in regard to the two latter categories. A Sunday Rest Bill has been submitted to the Santa Fé legislature by the executive authority.

Austria. — The Act of 16 January 1895 relating to the Sunday rest and public holidays was amended by an Act dated 21 December 1934. The prefect (in Vienna, the burgomaster) may allow work on Sundays for not more than two hours in certain branches of trade. In the larger towns work on Sundays must stop at 10 a.m.; in localities with a population of under 6,000 the prefect may allow work in some branches of trade, either every Sunday or on certain Sundays only, for four hours. In order to make allowance for local conditions (holiday resorts, railway stations, exhibitions, fairs, etc.) Sunday work may be allowed for not more than eight hours during certain seasons or in some cases throughout the year. If on certain Sundays a rush of work is expected, the prefect (in Vienna, the burgomaster) may allow retail selling during not more than six hours and on the last Sunday before Christmas, eight hours.

Brazil. — A Decree issued by the Minister of Labour in January 1934, which relates to the conditions of employment of persons engaged in land transport, lays down that these workers shall have a weekly rest of 24 consecutive hours, to be taken on Sundays unless otherwise agreed by employers and employed in the public interest.

The Decree of 11 November 1933, providing that cinemas, theatres and places of amusement are subject to labour inspection, lays down that the day selected for the weekly rest shall be posted up. This regulation covers all persons employed in artistic, technical or manual work.

Canada. — In Manitoba the Weekly Rest Act has been extended to watchmen, gatekeepers and firemen who do not live in the buildings where they work and to second-class hotels and restaurants. Further, a Minimum Wage Order for hotels and restaurants provides that persons, other than cooks and male workers over 18 years of age, employed in these establishments shall have one full day off each week, or two half-days, consisting of not less than five consecutive hours each out of a regular working day.

France. — An Act of 19 December 1934, amending section 44 of Book II of the Labour Code, provides that, in retail trading establishments where the weekly rest is normally allowed on Sundays, it may be suppressed on the Sundays to be specified for each trade in a municipal order (a prefectorial order in Paris) issued after consultation with the employers' and workers' organisations interested. The number of these Sundays is not to exceed three per year. Employees who have lost their Sunday rest in this way are to be allowed some other day of rest in compensation and are to be paid at a higher rate on the Sundays worked.

A Ministerial Circular of 25 August 1934 relating to the weekly rest in bakeries requests prefects to consider the possibility of revoking the orders concerning weekly rest by rotation so as to diminish the consumption of stale bread which the weekly closing of bakeries involves. This measure, which is supported by a number of farmers' associations, met with strong opposition from the workers, who petitioned the President of the Council to annul the Circular in question. Subsequently, the Minister of Labour, replying to a written question submitted by a Deputy in regard to the proposal to suppress the closing day in bakeries with a view to increasing the consumption of bread, stated that there was no cause for action, since the bakers' employees were very anxious that the closing day should be maintained and there was no evidence that the suppression of the closing day would have any influence on the consumption of bread.

In November 1933 the Superior Labour Council adopted several recommendations in regard to retail trading. It suggested that the following classes of undertakings should be removed from the list of those entitled to allow the weekly rest by rotation: drysalters' shops, shops selling medical and surgical appliances,

and circulating libraries. Further, the Council recommended that public administrative regulations should be issued after consultation with the employers' and workers' organisations interested, setting forth the classes of food shops to be allowed to grant the weekly rest in instalments as provided for under the Labour Code. With reference to the provision that for some categories of workers the Sunday rest may be reduced to half a day, the Council also asked that its application should be limited to operations which are absolutely necessary to prevent delay in resuming the normal work of the undertaking, that it should be compulsory to grant watchmen compensation, and that caretakers in industrial and commercial undertakings should be entitled to the weekly rest in full or to a compensatory rest period.

A Bill has been introduced in the Chamber of Deputies to remove discrepancies between various sections of the Labour Code relating to the weekly rest and so to secure this rest day for workers and apprentices under 18 years of age employed in commercial undertakings.

Germany. — The Act of 27 February 1934 relating to the observance of Sundays and public holidays and the Order of 16 March 1934 for its administration lay down rules for the observance of the Sunday rest [1].

The rules which have already been mentioned in connection with the weekly rest in industrial undertakings, and which are to apply pending the issue of new regulations, allow certain exceptions in the case of commercial undertakings, e.g. for cafés, garages, petrol stations, the sale of newspapers, milk and flowers, photographers' shops and bathing establishments. The exceptions made in the case of retail undertakings vary according to the size of the locality and the nature of the business. They apply either throughout the year or only during the summer. The period of work authorised is between two and five hours. The rules as to the length of the rest period and the employment of young persons are similar to those already mentioned in connection with industrial activities.

A Decree issued by the Minister of the Interior on 27 March 1934 provides that chemists' shops in which no assistant is employed may be closed on Sundays and public holidays for 24 consecutive hours starting at 8 a.m., provided that they supply doctors and veterinary surgeons with any articles they may require. If two consecutive days are public holidays, chemists' shops must remain open on one of the two.

In a communication to the Prussian Ministry of the Interior, the Federal Minister of Labour stated that he saw no objection to allowing shops to be open to the public on the Sundays preceding Christmas provided: (1) that the time they were open was not more than five hours on each Sunday; (2) that it did not exceed the time allowed under previous regulations; (3) that persons

[1] See below, under " Public Holidays ".

who had to work after 6 p.m. were allowed an uninterrupted rest of at least 12 hours.

Great Britain. — The movement in favour of prohibiting the baking of bread on Sunday, which was mentioned above in connection with the weekly rest in industrial undertakings, also extends to the sale of bread on Sundays.

Hungary. — The Bill mentioned in connection with industrial undertakings also applies to commercial undertakings. Public opinion has reacted to the proposal in various ways. All the Catholic associations and several salaried employees' associations have informed the Minister that they consider the contemplated regulations inadequate. On the other hand, the retail trading section of the Chamber of Commerce and Industry in Budapest is opposed to any extension of the Sunday rest.

Italy. — The Weekly Rest Act of 22 February 1934, mentioned in connection with industrial undertakings, also covers commercial establishments. As regards the latter, there are special provisions for rural districts; the prefect may, in agreement with the mayor and trade associations concerned, authorise the opening of shops on Sunday morning so as not to depart from established custom, but in such cases the employees are to have an uninterrupted rest period of not less than 12 hours on Sundays and another of not less than 12 hours in the course of the following week. Measures are taken to ensure that undertakings which are not covered by the Act shall not compete unfairly with undertakings which are so covered. For instance, a family undertaking the staff of which is not entitled to the weekly rest must nevertheless be closed if there is any danger of its competing with a similar shop which is not a family undertaking and to which the weekly closing regulations apply. On the same grounds prefects have authority to restrict the activity of itinerant traders.

Netherlands. — Among the changes which the Act of 27 July 1934 and the Order of 28 November 1934 made in the regulations concerning the closing of shops, some apply to the sale on Sundays of fruit, pastry, dairy produce, funeral supplies, pharmaceutical products, and marine stores, and to work in restaurants and hotels.

Portugal. — The provisions of the Decree of 24 August 1934, mentioned in connection with the weekly rest in industrial undertakings, also apply to commercial establishments.

Rumania. — The application of the Weekly Rest Act has met with difficulties. The reports for 1933 communicated to the Minister of Labour by the chambers of labour all recorded contraventions of the Act. The report of the Bucharest Chamber of Labour stated that the Act was not applied as it should be, owing to inadequate supervision. The Minister also received a number of complaints from employees' organisations. The result was that the competent

authorities held a conference to consider the possibility of enforcing the Sunday rest more strictly.

Switzerland. — The Order bringing into force the Federal Act of 26 September 1931, which was mentioned in connection with the weekly rest in industrial undertakings, also applies to public and private commercial establishments. It states that the Act covers open-air stands and stalls, banking, exchange and insurance undertakings, the offices of bathing establishments and estate agents, newspaper offices, the offices and other workplaces of members of the liberal, artistic and technical professions and of private associations, places of entertainment of all kinds, chemists' shops, dentists' laboratories, beauty parlours, bathing establishments, hairdressing establishments, undertakers' establishments, and private undertakings devoted to art, science, applied science, education, and the care of the sick.

A number of protests were made when the Order was issued, chiefly from the hotel industry, which feared that its position would become even worse than before.

United States. — The report published by the Department of Labor on labour legislation during 1933 shows the following changes in the legislation of various States.

Barbers' shops in the District of Columbia are to be closed one day out of seven. In Maine the Sunday labour law has been amended to allow the operation of airplanes on Sundays. A section has been added to legalise Sunday sports. The laws of Maryland have been amended to permit of films being shown on Sundays in Allegany county and the town of Baltimore. In Massachusetts the Legislature has exempted from the operation of the law requiring one day's rest in seven persons employed as janitors and employees whose duties do not involve work on Sundays except preparing or delivering newspapers, personal service or any emergency labour; in future, places of entertainment at amusement parks or beach resorts may be kept open on Sundays. The amendments to the laws of Wisconsin and New Hampshire, mentioned in connection with the regulations applying to industrial undertakings, also cover commercial establishments. A South Carolina Act of 1934 prohibits the employment of women and children on Sundays. In Kentucky telegraph and telephone companies, public service or utility systems, and taxis have been exempted from the provisions of the Sunday law; and the operation of moving pictures and filling stations and the holding of chautauquas and operas are no longer construed as work within the meaning of the Sunday labour law. In Massachusetts the retail sale of ice and fuel is permitted on Sundays.

Further, the codes of fair competition applicable to commerce usually provide that employees shall not be employed for more than six days a week.

Night Work in Bakeries

National Regulations

Argentina. — A Decree dated 16 January 1934 authorises the National Labour Department and the provincial or local authorities responsible for the administration of the Act prohibiting night work in bakeries to issue temporary permits for breadmaking between 9 p.m. and 5 a.m. Between midnight and 5 a.m. three workers only may remain at the workplace and they may be employed only on preparatory work. The factory inspector may authorise the presence of a larger number of workers if the size of the undertaking justifies such a course.

Australia. — The Court of Arbitration of Western Australia issued an award, which came into force on 19 October 1933 and will remain in effect for three years, regulating the hours of work of bakers in the Perth area. For all workers, except dough-makers, the starting time must not be earlier than 12 midnight on Sundays and 5 a.m. on Tuesdays, Wednesdays, Thursdays and Fridays, and not earlier than 8 p.m. or later than 10 p.m. on Friday evenings, and the finishing time must not be later than 6 p.m. on Tuesdays, Wednesdays and Thursdays, 2 p.m. on Fridays and 8 a.m. on Saturdays. The hour at which work is to finish on Mondays is not fixed. Every worker is entitled to six hours' rest between working periods.

In making the award the President of the Court emphasised the need for legislation prohibiting night work. The old arbitration award applied only to workers, so that a baker who employed no labour could bake at night and deliver the bread in the early hours of the morning, thus competing with bakers who employed labour. This state of affairs tended to reduce the number of bakeries which employed labour and were therefore covered by the award prohibiting night work, while it increased the number of bakeries which were not subject to any restriction. As the President pointed out, in 1927 51 bakeries were covered by the award, whereas in 1933 only 40 were so covered; on the other hand, in 1927 27 bakeries were not covered by the award, while in 1933 their number had risen to 63.

Giving effect to these remarks, the Minister for Labour introduced a Bill in the Legislative Assembly during December 1933 with a view to prohibiting night work in bakeries and settling various questions relating to the registration of bakeries and the fixing of bread prices. The Bill was passed by the Legislative Assembly, but was thrown out at the second reading by the Legislative Council.

An award of the Industrial Court of Queensland gazetted on 24 October 1933 fixes the conditions of work of bakers and pastry-

cooks in the Southern and Mackay Divisions of the State. Work in bakeries is prohibited between 5 p.m. and 7 a.m. or between 6 p.m. and 7 a.m. according to district; work in pastrycooks' establishments is prohibited between 6 p.m. and 7 a.m., but may start at 6 a.m. by agreement between employers and workers.

Czechoslovakia. — On 6 December 1933 the Supreme Administrative Court took a decision under which the prohibition of night work, as provided in section 8 of the Eight-Hour Day Act, applies only to wage earners. The decision confirms a previous interpretation of the section by the Court, which had on 14 June 1924 quashed a decision of a lower Court fining an employer for having worked at night. The grounds for the new decision were that the purpose of the Eight-Hour-Day Act was only to protect workers; this appeared from the text of section 1 and of the first paragraph of section 9. The Act therefore did not apply to employers working alone or with members of their family and not employing wage earners at night.

Denmark. — The Ministry of Social Affairs has appointed a committee of experts to draft a scheme for a general Labour Protection Act, to cover the whole of the ground at present covered by several different Acts. The Minister of Social Affairs stated in this connection that the new measure would provide a suitable opportunity for amending the Bakeries Act of 9 June 1920, so as to enable Denmark to ratify the Convention. While the Act of 9 June 1920 as compared with the Convention is more favourable to the workers as regards the period during which work is prohibited (the Act prohibits work during eight hours instead of seven), it fixes the hour for starting work at 4 a.m. and expressly authorises night work by the employer and by shifts.

Germany. — A provisional Act of 25 March 1934 amended, for the period from 1 April to 30 September 1934, the Order of 23 November 1918 prohibiting all night work in bakeries between 10 p.m. and 6 a.m. It prohibited work between 9 p.m. and 4.30 a.m. excepting certain preparatory work, which was allowed to start at 4 a.m. Sale to consumers was prohibited before 6 a.m. and delivery to retailers before 5.45 a.m.

A new Act, dated 26 September 1934, fixes the hour for starting work at 4.30 a.m. even in the case of preparatory work. Sale to consumers may start at 6.30 a.m. and delivery to retailers at 6.15 a.m.

Great Britain. — The annual Scottish Trades Union Congress (Stirling, 25-28 April 1934) adopted a resolution urging the Government to introduce a Factory Bill including therein a clause prohibiting night work in bakeries, and then to ratify the Convention.

The Congress held by the Amalgamated Union of Bakers and Allied Workers (Leicester, August 1934) also adopted a resolution calling on the Government to include in the Factory Act a clause prohibiting night work in bakeries.

Netherlands. — An Act of 1 December 1933 amended certain provisions of the Labour Act of 1919 relating to night work in bakeries. Generally speaking, bakeries employing at least six workers have hitherto been allowed to begin work at 5 a.m., while those employing less than six workers were obliged to wait until 6 a.m. Work may now begin at 5 a.m. in all bakeries whatever the number of workers employed.

International Regulation [1]

Convention No. 20: Night Work (Bakeries), 1925.

Netherlands. — The Act of 1 December 1933 amending the Labour Act of 1919 as regards night work in bakeries does not contain provisions bringing the Labour Act into accordance with the Convention, and the Minister of Social Affairs therefore addressed to the President of the Second Chamber of the States General on 20 February 1934 a letter informing him of the withdrawal of the Bill introduced in the Second Chamber in 1926 for the ratification of the Convention.

Nicaragua. — Ratification registered on 12 April 1934.

The sixth Congress of the International Union of Food and Drink Workers (Amsterdam, 30 August-1 September 1934) adopted a resolution calling upon affiliated organisations to take steps for the prevention of any repeal or modification of existing legislation prohibiting night work in bakeries. An appeal was also made for action in favour of such legislation where it had not yet been introduced.

Shop Closing

Argentina. — The Act of 16 June 1934 relating to the opening and closing hours of commercial establishments in the Federal Capital and the Territories provides that shops may be open from 6 a.m. to 8 p.m. between 1 April and 30 September and from 7 a.m. to 9 p.m. between 1 October and 31 March. Street trading is prohibited during the hours when shops are closed.

Australia. — In New South Wales a Shop Closing Act of 26 November 1934 replaces the legislation in force since 1899 and contains the following provisions. Shops are to be closed four days a week at 6 p.m., one day at 10 p.m. and one day at 1 p.m. Special provisions apply to chemists', flower, fruit, vegetable and confectioners' shops, to the sale of newspapers, to undertakers, hotels, restaurants, refreshment saloons and similar establishments, hairdressers' saloons, butchers', poultry, and tobacconists' shops. The Act

[1] The information given here relates only to 1934. See the tables at the end of the volume for the general situation as regards this Convention.

does not apply to bazaars and fairs, the profits of which are devoted to religious, charitable or public purposes.

Germany. — The Act of 6 July 1934 and the regulations of 14 August 1934 bringing it into force amended the Act of 18 March 1919 which exempted selling by means of automatic machines from the shop-closing provisions. The Order specifies the kinds of goods which may be sold by means of automatic machines (articles for immediate consumption) and the establishments entitled to possess such machines. Department stores, one-price stores and shops selling goods at reduced prices (bargain sales) are not entitled to use this means of selling.

Leeward Islands. — The Governor in Council, in pursuance of the Act of 12 May-14 June 1933 which was mentioned in the *Year-Book* for 1933[1], issued an Order for the island of Antigua on 26 January 1934, prohibiting the opening of drapers' shops before 6 a.m. and after 4 p.m. on four days a week; on Saturdays such shops must be closed at 6 p.m. and on Thursdays at 1 p.m.

Mexico. — A Decree dated 29 December 1933 authorises the Public Health Department to fix the hours during which food and drink may be prepared, handled and served.

Regulations of 17 January 1934 relating to the closing hours for commercial establishments and other services to the public in the Federal District fix 9 a.m. to 1 p.m. and 3 p.m. to 7.30 p.m. (8.30 p.m. on Saturdays) as the hours during which such establishments may generally be open. They also make provision for a certain number of special schemes and for exemptions.

Uruguay. — Under a Decree of 13 April 1934 to establish uniform shop-closing hours, which was supplemented and amended by Decrees of 23 May and 4 August 1934, commercial establishments which are closed on Saturday afternoons and which can interrupt their operations at fixed hours without prejudice to the public must close at 7 p.m. Hairdressing establishments must close at 9 p.m. as a rule, and at midnight on Saturdays. These provisions apply to trading in streets and other public places. By agreement between employers and employees establishments may close earlier. Undertakings which do not fulfil the conditions mentioned above are excepted from these provisions, but during the hours when shops covered by the Decrees are closed they may not sell any goods also sold by such shops. The goods in question must be specified on a notice posted in the shop window and inside the shop.

[1] Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1933*, p. 116.

Annual Holidays with Pay

National Regulations

Argentina. — The Act approved by Congress on 26 September 1933 relating to the contract of employment of employees in commercial establishments provides that persons employed under such contracts shall be entitled to an annual holiday with pay varying from 10 to 30 days according to their length of service. The Act was vetoed by the President of the Republic on 2 October 1933 and Congress will now have to take a decision on the presidential veto.

Australia. — An award of the Commonwealth Court of Conciliation and Arbitration dated February 1934 and applying to the theatrical industry allows certain skilled employees a fortnight's holiday a year with pay or compensation in default.

In New South Wales the collective agreement for printing employees provides for three weeks' annual holiday with full pay. By an award of the Conciliation Commissioner applying to the staffs of boarding houses and hotels permanent caretakers are to have a fortnight's holiday each year, and other permanent employees a week.

The Western Australian Arbitration Court has issued several awards providing for annual holidays with pay. Under an award dated 19 October 1933 butchers' employees in the Perth area are to have a week's holiday after twelve consecutive months' service with the same employer. An award dated 13 November 1933 lays down that boarding and lodging house employees working within a radius of 15 miles of Perth are to have a fortnight's holiday on full pay each year.

On 4 September 1933 an award of the Industrial Court of Queensland came into force giving tramway employees of the Brisbane City Council the right to two weeks' holiday on full pay each year. A number of awards made by the Court and applying to clerks and switchboard attendants, bakers and pastrycooks, coach and motor-body building, mechanical engineering, road transport, and office workers on the staff of Sunday newspapers in Brisbane make provision for an annual holiday with full pay, usually of two weeks, and in some cases only of a week.

Brazil. — A Decree dated 18 January 1934 provides that persons employed in industry, the press, land and air communications and transport, and public services are entitled to holidays with pay, provided they are members of recognised trade unions. Persons employed in the industrial services attached to commercial undertakings and in small offices, laboratories and other industrial workplaces are also covered. The right to a holiday is acquired

after one year's regular employment in the same undertaking. The length of the holiday is 15 days after 250 days' service, 11 days after 200 to 250 days' service, and 7 days after 150 to 200 days' service.

Chile. — An Act of 8 February 1934, amending several clauses of the Labour Code of 13 May 1931, contains new provisions on holidays with pay. The holiday is fixed at 15 days for workers who have been employed in the same undertaking for 288 days in the year and 7 days for those who have been employed from 220 to 288 days.

Estonia. — An Act of 21 December 1934 introduced a system of annual holidays with pay for all persons employed under contracts of employment in industrial undertakings employing five or more workers, except those whose remuneration is calculated by the month or over a longer period. The right to a holiday is acquired after one year's continuous employment in the same undertaking. The length of the holiday is fixed at seven consecutive days. During his holiday, the worker is entitled to the basic wage stipulated in his contract of employment or, where no basic wage is stipulated, an amount equal to his average earnings calculated over a period of three months.

Germany. — A number of regulations issued during 1934 give workers and employees the right to an annual holiday with pay. After one year's service, six days' or a fortnight's holiday is usually allowed, and this is regularly increased until a maximum of 12 to 24 days is reached. In banks and insurance companies the holiday varies with length of service between 16 and 24 days; extra days are allowed to disabled soldiers and to young persons under 20 years of age. The labour trustees have in several cases also issued rules in regard to holidays with pay, which provide for holidays varying between 3 and 6 working days after one year's employment and increasing after several years' employment to a maximum of 14 to 16 days. The service regulations of the Federal Railways which came into force on 1 May 1934 contain new provisions on holidays. The length of the holiday no longer varies with the number of days in employment, but with the number of days actually worked; for workers employed on exceptionally strenuous work the holiday is from 10 to 24 days according to length of service. On 10 July 1934 the Labour Trustee for the economic district of Brandenburg issued rules concerning the employment of domestic servants, which make provision for an annual holiday with pay varying between 4 days after 6 months' service and 14 days after 3 years. Under a collective agreement approved on 10 October 1934 by the special Labour Trustee for home work in the German clothing industry, home workers in the Brandenburg ladies' ready-made clothing industry have an annual holiday with pay of 4, 6 or 8 working days according to their length of service in the undertaking concerned.

Great Britain. — In May 1934 the National Joint Conciliation Board for the Road Motor Transport Industry appointed a sub-committee to examine conditions of work in the industry. The report of this sub-committee was presented to the Board on 1 August 1934 and adopted. As regards annual holidays, the report suggested that a week's holiday with pay be given to all employees who have been in continuous service for a year, provided they have not been absent from employment for more than 7 days in any one year without reasonable cause or previous notification, or for not more than one month if a temporary break of service has occurred for causes outside the employee's control.

Lithuania. — The Act regulating the conditions of employment of industrial workers, dated 11 November 1933 and amended by the Act of 27 September 1934, entitles all workers who have been employed in the same undertaking for not less than one year to an annual paid holiday of 12 days. The wages paid in respect of each day's holiday are equal to the average daily wage during the month preceding the holiday. Whenever a worker is absent on his holiday, the employer may require any other worker whose services cannot be used during that period to take a 12 days' holiday without pay.

Luxemburg. — Under Ministerial Instructions dated 21 May 1927 the right to an annual holiday is acquired only after a minimum number of days have been worked in the year. The minimum was fixed at 270 days for miners and 280 days for other workers. Owing to uncertainty as to the meaning of the term " miner ", a Ministerial Instruction of 17 February 1934 stated that the term applied to " all workers employed underground in mines and to all producers in open mines (miners and haulagemen) "; on the other hand, all other mine workers employed in workshops and depots, or who generally or mainly work in the open air, are included among those who must work 280 days before they are entitled to a holiday.

Poland. — A Decree of 27 October 1933, which came into force on 1 April 1934, regulates the annual holidays with pay of dockers in the port of Gdynia, who are entitled to such a holiday if they have worked in the docks for not less than 200 days during the year. The length of the holiday is 3 days after one year's work and 6 days after three years' work.

Portugal. — Collective agreements in the wine export and cooperage trades stipulate that coopers shall receive 8 days' holiday with pay after 60 weeks' service even if they have not been employed full time on all the working days during that period. Warehouse staffs are entitled to 8 days' holiday after a year's service.

Union of South Africa. — Some of the agreements concluded in 1934 under the Industrial Conciliation Act provide for annual holidays with pay. Thus employees in the wholesale meat trade

of Witwatersrand and Pretoria are allowed two weeks' leave on full pay in respect of each completed period of 12 months' service with the same employer. On 16 March 1934 the Minister of Labour regulated the conditions of work in the baking and confectionery trade in the districts of Durban, Inanda, Pinetown and Pietermaritzburg. Employees in these trades are likewise entitled to 12 working days' leave on full pay for each year of service with the same employer. If the employment has lasted for more than one month, but less than 12 months, the employee is entitled to one day's pay for each completed month of service. A collective agreement concluded in January 1934 for the printing and newspaper industry provides that in order to reduce unemployment the annual leave allowed to journeymen shall be increased from two to four weeks. Payment for the two additional weeks' leave is to be at the rate of half the Agreement wage for the occupation concerned, and is recoverable from the Joint Unemployment Fund. Employees are to receive the wages due in respect of annual leave before proceeding on such leave.

International Regulation

The question of regulating annual leave with pay internationally was raised in the International Labour Organisation as early as 1919. The Swedish Government delegate to the first International Labour Conference, holding it " essential, for the physical as well as the psychical health of employees, that they should enjoy each year a certain period of absolute rest ", proposed that the question of annual holidays with pay be included in the Agenda for the next Conference. Similar proposals were made on several occasions at sessions of the Governing Body of the International Labour Office, in particular by the Polish Government representative. As the enquires made by the Office showed that the practice of allowing annual holidays with pay was spreading rapidly in many countries, the Governing Body decided at its Sixty-fourth Session in October 1933 to place this question on the Agenda of the Nineteenth Session of the Conference in 1935. The Office therefore prepared a report on the law and practice in regard to holidays with pay in the different countries, a report which, in accordance with a decision of the Governing Body in January 1934, does not cover agricultural workers or seamen. In regard to seamen, the Governing Body decided that the question should be treated separately and placed on the Agenda of the Session of the Conference which would deal exclusively with the conditions of work of seamen.

At its Nineteenth Session the Conference will therefore examine the question of holidays with pay within the limits indicated above, with a view to drawing up a list of the points on which the Governments should be consulted.

Public Holidays

Austria. — The provisions of the Act of 21 December 1934, mentioned with reference to the weekly rest in commercial undertakings, also apply to work on public holidays.

Under an Order dated 27 April 1934, 1 May is to be a public holiday in honour of the Constitution. 12 November, on the other hand, is no longer a national festival.

Trading interests seem to be in favour of a reform reducing the number of public holidays.

Danzig (Free City of). — A Decree dated 16 March 1934 appoints the following public holidays: (*a*) national festivals: 1 May (the festival of the State of Danzig and Labour Day), the fifth Sunday before Easter (*Reminiscere*, the day of remembrance for heroes), the first Sunday after Michaelmas (Harvest Thanksgiving Day); (*b*) other public holidays: New Year's Day, Good Friday, Easter Monday, Ascension Day, Whit Monday, Repentance Day (*Busstag*, the Wednesday before the last Sunday after Trinity), Christmas Day and Boxing Day.

Germany. — On 27 February 1934 the Government promulgated an Act on the observance of Sunday and public holidays. The object of the Act was to standardise practice all over the country, for hitherto there had been great diversity. It appoints three national festivals: 1 May (the German People's Day), the fifth Sunday before Easter (*Reminiscere*, the day of remembrance for heroes), and the first Sunday after Michaelmas (Harvest Thanksgiving Day). The following are also public holidays: New Year's Day, Good Friday, Easter Monday, Ascension Day, Whit Monday, the Day of Repentance (*Busstag*, the Wednesday before the last Sunday after Trinity), Christmas Day and Boxing Day. To these must be added Reformation Day in the districts where the majority of the population is Protestant and Corpus Christi where the majority is Catholic.

The provisions of the Act are completed by an Order of the Minister of the Interior and Propaganda. On Sundays and public holidays, all work which might disturb the people's rest is forbidden unless authorised by national legislation. This does not concern railway and postal services and urgent work.

In April 1934, the Government promulgated an Act relating to the remuneration of labour on 1 May, the national festival of the German people. It is provided that if 1 May falls on a weekday, workers must receive their ordinary wage in so far as the collective rules, works regulations or service regulations in force in the undertakings and public departments provide payment for holidays falling on weekdays.

As regards payment for holidays falling on weekdays, the acting Trustee for Saxony stated that workers paid by the hour

need not be paid for such holidays. On the other hand, all workers paid by the week or month are entitled to such payment.

The rules laid down on 6 December 1934, which have been mentioned above in connection with the weekly rest in industrial undertakings, also apply to work and rest on public holidays.

Latvia. — An Act dated 14 December 1934 establishes the following public holidays: New Year's Day, Epiphany (6 January), Independence Day (24 February), Prayer Day, Good Friday, Easter (three days), Mid-Lent, Ascension Day, Whitsuntide (two days), Victory Day (23 June), Midsummer Day (24 June), Reformation Day (31 October), All Saints Day, Christmas (three days). Further, all work is to stop at midday on the days before Easter Sunday, Christmas Day, New Year's Day and Whit Sunday and all work other than agricultural work on the day before Victory Day.

Netherlands. — Several of the amendments to the Shop-Closing Act [1] relate to the retailing of certain products on Jewish festivals. Other exceptions are also made for Sabbatarians.

United States. — According to a report published by the Federal Department of Labor in the course of 1933, several States amended their legislation in regard to public holidays. Alabama appointed 12 October as a public holiday under the name of "Columbus Day and Fraternal Day", and suppressed the public holiday previously known as Fraternal Day. In Arkansas the first Saturday of December is now known as "Arbor Day". In Florida the holiday law was re-enacted to include Armistice Day and Columbus Day. In Massachusetts a law was passed allowing the people of Suffolk County to vote on a proposal to appoint 17 June as a public holiday. In Nevada, Nevada Day, 31 October, was appointed as a public holiday. In New Jersey the law relating to public holidays was re-enacted. In Oklahoma Jefferson Day, 13 April, was appointed as a public holiday. In Wisconsin 12 October was appointed as a public holiday in the name of Landing Day to commemorate the landing of Christopher Columbus. Legislation in regard to public holidays was also amended in California, Colorado and Utah.

In New Hampshire it is now illegal to make good the hours of work lost owing to public holidays.

Industrial Medicine

The year 1934 was marked by very important progress in research and in the consideration or adoption of measures of prevention, medical care and compensation.

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[1] See above, under "Weekly Rest in Commercial Undertakings".

Industrial Physiology

The movement in favour of special protection, on comprehensive lines, of *children, young persons and women* in general, or of certain special categories has received increasing attention. The *World Meeting of Women* (Paris, 4 August 1934) demanded the prohibition of the employment of women at night or in heavy industries or in industries handling chemical products dangerous to health, and the reduction of working hours for girls over fifteen years. Elsewhere proposals were made to prohibit employment not only in underground work (Executive Committee of the *Miners' International Federation*, Brussels, 11 October 1934), but in all unhealthy, dangerous and unduly heavy work. When working hours become thus reduced, efforts will be made to secure a better utilisation of spare time, which among other things will increase the physical endurance of the workers, an aim that finds expression in the report of the *French* General Confederation of Labour.

Partial realisation of such tendencies may be noted in several countries. In the *Argentine Republic* an Act of 25 October 1934 ensures effective protection for working mothers (workers and employees); in *Brazil* (Federal Constitution, 16 July 1934) night work of young persons under sixteen years is legally prohibited, and likewise the employment in unhealthy industries of women and young persons under sixteen; in the *United States* the Conference on Labour Legislation attended by delegates from the State Departments of Labor in 39 States (Washington, 14 February 1934) recommended the States to exclude young persons under eighteen from hazardous occupations and to require a work permit for all young persons from sixteen to eighteen, to prohibit night work for them, and to organise for them shorter working hours than those legally recognised in the case of adult workers.

The carrying of loads, especially by women, has been made subject to limitation in new or consolidated regulations. In *India* the Royal Commission on Labour recommended limitation in quarries, and the amendment of 26 June 1934 introduced it in coal mines and metalliferous mines (maxima of weight, height and distance). In *Italy* regulations for the protection of women and children (26 April 1934) and the protection of women during childbirth (22 March 1934) consolidate the provisions in force and are intended to safeguard in particular the health, safety and morals of the worker, and deal also with physical aptitude and employment in dangerous and arduous work. In *Mexico* the Regulations of 31 July 1934 prohibit the carrying of loads by pregnant women during the three months preceding confinement, and fix maxima for loads to be lifted or carried by young persons. Similar protection is now given in *Portugal* (Legislative Decree, 24 August 1934).

In *Germany* special measures have been taken with regard to medical supervision of apprentices in the printing trades. In *Bulgaria* a whole series of provisions dealing with board, lodging

and employment on arduous work are intended to safeguard young girls from the country who enter domestic service in the towns (22 September 1934).

As regards the protection of *Natives*, regulations in Bechuanaland (Proclamation of 19 September 1934) require a period of acclimatisation of one month's duration for workers starting in the mines, and where necessary, limitation of the hours of continuous employment, and in certain cases withdrawal of labourers from underground work. In the Northern Territory of *Australia* the Government has provided a very comprehensive scheme of medical attention and special rules for the feeding of aborigines on the basis of dietetic principles laid down by the Chief Medical Officer.

Data recently acquired as regards the influence of *unemployment* and of the economic depression on health are not as unfavourable as might have been expected. Whilst the picture was black in 1932, and the general situation only slightly less unfavourable in 1933, the measures taken in a number of countries in 1934 (organisation of labour camps, assistance through provision of work for young people, and care of children of school age and under), and more especially the first signs of economic recovery, justify optimism as to the future. The report of the *British* Ministry of Health, for example, shows that the general state of health of the population has remained favourable in spite of economic difficulties. The health of the unemployed and their families on the whole has not suffered seriously, apart from certain exceptions amongst the unemployed in the depressed areas, where physical signs of the prolonged privation have become manifest, though even these are not comparable to the degree of harm suffered at certain periods in the nineteenth century. The state of nutrition of the British population is in general superior to-day to anything within living memory; and if the death rate may be taken as a criterion, it should be noted that of the six counties most affected by the industrial depression the general death rate in two is below the average for the country as a whole, and in the others only very slightly above that, whilst the infant mortality in almost all these regions has been below the national average. Fairly favourable conclusions were also presented at the Congress of the Royal Sanitary Institute (Bristol, 12 July 1934), which nevertheless recorded a rather disturbing amount of moral degeneration, involving loss of energy and will power, amongst unemployed visited. Investigations in *Switzerland* and in *Czechoslovakia* point to similar favourable conclusions. Nevertheless, however encouraging these indications may be, competent authorities must continue to follow very closely the state of health of the population, and more especially that of young persons entering industry, for they undoubtedly lack the industrial experience of the previous generation.

The problem is closely connected with that of nutrition, since it is evident that the health of the unemployed and of workers on short time is largely conditioned by the means at their disposal

for their maintenance, more especially in the case of large families. In *Great Britain* the British Medical Association and the Industrial Welfare Society have taken up the question of dietetics for the working population and have published important studies on the subject. In *Germany* the Institute of Industrial Physiology (Professor Atzler), which is engaged in the study of the feeding of the industrial population, and more especially that aspect of the problem which is concerned with the choice of foodstuffs and of instruction in household economy, has brought to light the fact that it is more particularly the lack of animal albumins of high nutritive value that constitutes a menace to the physical soundness of the population. It is considered that it would be relatively easy to increase the minimum rate of this element either by the provision of whole milk or of skimmed milk containing phosphates, albumins and nutritive salts. In *Czechoslovakia* the nutrition service of the Social Hygiene Section of the Institute of Public Health has continued its compilation of statistics on the nutrition of the unemployed, as requested by the Health Organisation of the League of Nations. The problem of the nutrition of the working population has been very closely followed in the *U.S.S.R.*, where the task of supervising it has since 1934 been entrusted to the trade unions.

Other aspects of industrial physiology have attracted the attention of experts in the matter, and indirectly that of employers and workers. In *Germany* Professor Atzler's Institute held a " day " at Dusseldorf (30 May) entirely devoted to the study of the " influence of climate " (working surroundings—heat, damp, noise) on the constitution and efficiency of the worker. The effect of working tools and the influence of heavy work on the body (muscles, heart, blood vessels) and hence on fatigue has been the subject of continuous research; in *France* the creation of an Institute of Industrial Physiology is contemplated, and in the *U.S.S.R.* the Conference of the heavy industries (Moscow, September 1934) demanded mechanisation of the more strenuous processes. The interest raised by these problems provides a ready explanation of the action of the Correspondence Committee on Industrial Hygiene of the Office in placing on its agenda the problem of light, medium and heavy work, despite the fact that the technical and practical obstacles to such a study are fully realised.

This constitutes, furthermore, one of the aspects of *scientific management*, a subject of frequent discussion between its partisans and opponents, more particularly between those directly interested. Employers and workers are everywhere engaged in defending and attacking the Bedaux system, against which the workers' organisations continue to manifest unwavering hostility. Authorities on physiology and hygiene who have for a long time past devoted close attention to technical progress and the proposed systems of rationalisation have certainly something to say in regard to modern conditions of work—specialisation carried to the extreme, monotony, ever-increasing precision of processes, and the very consider-

able acceleration of working rhythm. In their task of safeguarding the worker against excessive fatigue, more readily met with and more serious in its effects amongst adolescent workers and women than amongst men, they have drawn attention to the influence of rhythm and of monotony of movement in accident causation where the working time-table is badly adapted to the work in hand. The Medical Commission of the *German* Association on Industrial Hygiene (October) called for better regulation of hours of work from the point of view of the health of the worker, for rest periods, restitution of the two hours' interval at midday, Sunday as a day of rest, a shorter working day on Saturday, and annual leave in summer. The Bedaux system was discussed by the General Council of the *British* Trades Union Congress, and at the Annual Convention of the *American* Federation of Labor (Washington, 1933), which referred a proposed investigation to its Executive Council. In *Czechoslovakia* the National Scientific Management Committee set up a special committee to study the part played by the human factor in production, and in *Italy* the Fascist Confederation of Industrial Trade Unions proposed that wherever technically possible the work of machines should be regulated with a view to safeguarding the workers' health (Rome, 30 July 1934). The question was also dealt with in the annual report of the Swiss factory inspectors and again at Lucerne at the Congress of the *International Federation of Textile Workers* (7 May 1934), which, though offering no objection to any methods of rationalisation that may indirectly diminish fatigue and render work more pleasant and hence contribute to improvement of the workers' health, placed on record that methods of rationalisation are liable to turn the worker into an automatic machine, overlook the human element, and thus lead to an increase in bodily and mental fatigue. Whilst in fact such methods have perhaps been wrongly designated " rationalisation ", it is nevertheless true that at the present time the principles underlying them suffer from faulty application. The subject therefore remains open to discussion, and it is for this reason that certain workers' organisations are considering the advisability of instituting a commission of experts in industrial hygiene and psychiatry to study the effects of the Bedaux system on health.

It is a matter for congratulation that there has been created within the Federal Department of Labor in the *United States* a Division of Labor Standards to study in particular problems of industrial health and safety; its efforts will be directed not only to the establishment of a " minimum " in regard to conditions of work, but to what may be properly designated an " optimum " standard of such conditions.

In the field of *vocational guidance* the need for the collaboration of medical men is being constantly emphasised, as for instance at the *International Congress on Psychotechnics* (Prague, 11 September 1934), which studied the relationship between guidance experts and medical men and passed various resolutions relative to occu-

pational pathology, stressing the necessity for collaboration between experts in psychotechnics and medical men. In *Great Britain* the National Advisory Council on the employment of young persons has discussed the useful results in the field of placing that might be achieved by the co-ordination of health, educational and industrial services and organisations concerned with vocational guidance.

The intervention of medical men in this movement, and above all in accident prevention, becomes indispensable as economic conditions improve, and the number of industrial accidents, as is borne out by several publications of 1934, naturally increases. It is currently believed that this increase is at least partly explained by the fact that the re-engaged workers have to a certain extent lost their skill, being as a result of protracted privation in a lowered state of health and lacking their habitual occupational dexterity. It was noted at the *American* Safety Congress (2 October 1934) that 90 per cent. of accidents are to be attributed to the human factor, that 90 per cent. of the workers suffer from defects ranging from the slightest to the most serious types, and that 75 per cent. of these defects are capable of treatment and cure. The report submitted to the Congress also stressed the fact that a male worker classed as third grade owing to physical defects is twice as prone to accidents as one belonging to the first grade, whilst women workers of the third grade are nine times as prone as those belonging to the first grade. The disease forms met with were, in order of importance, eye troubles, dental affections, throat and ear troubles, deformities of the limbs, diseases of the heart and arteries, and latent venereal disease.

Industrial Pathology

Lead Poisoning

In *India* draft rules—the Hazardous Occupations (Lead and Lead Compounds) Rules 1935—incorporate the wording of the Washington Recommendation relative to the protection of women and children against lead poisoning.

White Lead

The following action was taken in 1934 on the 1921 Convention:

Convention No. 13: White Lead (Painting), 1921 [1].

Netherlands. — A new Act respecting the safety of workers, promulgated on 2 July 1934, contains among other matters the provisions needed to bring Netherlands legislation into conformity with the Convention; it has not yet come into force. The right to ratify the Convention was reserved to the Crown by an Act of 10 June 1926.

Nicaragua. — Ratification registered on 12 April 1934.

[1] This information relates only to 1934. See the tables at the end of the volume for the general situation in regard to this Convention.

In *Germany* a decision of the Minister of National Economy prohibits the construction of new factories for the manufacture of products with a white lead basis. In Victoria, *Australia*, a Bill to amend the Factories and Shops Act requires that places in which any manufacturing process involving the use of lead compounds is carried out shall be registered. In Queensland the attention of doctors has for some years past been drawn to the number of children in hospitals suffering from acute lead poisoning, and particularly to the very high death rate from chronic nephritis amongst persons under forty years of age. These morbidity and mortality rates have been attributed to the very widespread use in Queensland of paints with a lead content for fences and verandas. Under the action of the sun the paint peels off, and the toxic dust is set free and carried to the mouth by the hands of children touching the painted surfaces. An official report has confirmed this theory. Since the substitution of non-toxic pigments for white lead a remarkable decrease has been recorded in the number of cases of lead poisoning amongst children.

In *France* several Decrees dated 26 November and 4 December 1934 modify the Decrees in force concerning those industries in which the staff is exposed to lead poisoning and concerning the use of white lead in the painting industry.

In *Greece* an Act of 29 January 1934 modifies that of 1921 dealing with the use of white lead.

In the *Netherlands* a Bill of 13 February 1934 contains a special paragraph bringing the legislation into conformity with the 1921 Convention on white lead.

In the *Baltic countries* the first Conference of Factory Inspectors *(Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania)* (Riga, 12 March 1934) considered a report on poisoning by white lead and passed a resolution suggesting that a list of industries and trades involving a danger of lead poisoning should be drawn up. In *Denmark* the medical expert attached to the Factory Inspectorate carried out a series of investigations into cases of lead poisoning in foundries, printing works, factories for the production of slot machines, accumulator factories, pottery works, toy factories, and among workers employed on painting a bridge with red lead, and in the use of tetra-ethyl lead. The danger was found to be greatest in foundries, accumulator factories, and spray-painting. The *Scottish* Trades Union Congress (Stirling, 25 April 1934) also expressed grave concern regarding the risk for workers due to the rapidly extending use of cellulose in painting, and called upon the Government to adopt the regulations proposed by the Congress in 1930. In *France* the National Council of the Federation of Metal Industries (Paris, 20 October) instanced spray-painting as an example of dangerous work. The Prefect of the Department of the Seine, however, who made a study of this technical process, reported that he had not met with any special troubles in the state of health of persons using the small pistol, very frequently employed in private undertakings.

In *New Zealand* an enquiry into the use of motor fuel containing

tetra-ethyl lead introduced recently into the country showed that effective measures had been taken to cope with the risk.

At the instance of the Ministry of Defence in *Norway*, an official enquiry was instituted (November) to investigate reported cases of lead poisoning at the naval construction yard at Horten.

Enamel Works

In its report for 1932 the French Factory Inspectorate showed that in the Ardennes, where the industry of enamelling on metal is highly developed, there had been a marked decrease in the frequency of cases of lead poisoning (the index for 1931, on the basis of 1930 = 100, was 46.4, and for 1932 it was 24.2). Of 18 enamel works, 10 had abandoned the use of enamels with a lead content and of the remaining 8, 7 used lead-free enamels in a proportion varying from 35 to 75 per cent. of the total used by them; only one factory used enamels with a lead content for all its work.

Phosphorus

One case of phosphorus poisoning was reported in *France*, the victim being a worker who had always been employed in places in a chemical factory where amorphous phosphorus was handled. It was impossible to provide compensation, since the Act makes provision only for diseases due to white phosphorus.

Mercury

The *International Federation of Hatters* passed a resolution urging the prohibition of the use of mercury. This resolution would appear to imply that a new method of carroting without mercury is considered satisfactory.

Manganese

In *Denmark* the first case of poisoning affecting a worker in a dry-battery factory has been reported. Several cases have likewise been reported for the first time in *France*. The Correspondence Committee on Industrial Hygiene of the Office, after having considered the question of including this disease in the schedule of diseases for compensation, passed a resolution instructing the Office to continue to collect all the available information on the subject, and requesting medical experts in the various countries to make known the data already obtained and to call the attention of those directly interested to this question of occupational pathology.

Other Toxic Substances

Chronic poisoning by *sulphuretted hydrogen* came under discussion during the meeting of the Correspondence Committee on Industrial Hygiene, which, in consideration of the fact that the information at present available on the subject did not permit of establishing a

characteristic syndrome of chronic poisoning by sulphuretted hydrogen, did not feel justified in proposing its inclusion in the international schedule of diseases entitling workers to compensation.

Observations as to the risks involved in the use of *hydrocarbons of the aromatic series* or the *aliphatic series* are becoming more and more numerous. *Benzene* in particular has been the subject of a series of measures: in *Germany* the treating of waterproof clothing with rubber solution as a home industry is prohibited (10 August 1934); in *Austria* the employment of women and young persons is prohibited, and quarterly or half-yearly blood tests for detecting poisoning in the initial stages have been introduced in all establishments producing or employing benzene or its homologues, trichlorethylene, tetrachlorethane, tetrachloride of carbon, or carbon bisulphide (28 March and 19 June 1934). In *France* the Congress of the Postal, Telegraph and Telephone Workers' Union (Paris, 7 June 1934) urged that measures of protection should be taken as regards the maintenance of telegraph poles impregnated with creosote in large quantities.

Protection against occupational risks due to the use of *solvents* has been provided for in Manitoba, *Canada*, by an Order in Council of 25 August 1934 containing regulations applicable to dry-cleaning; in *Greece*. by the Act of 19 February 1934 prohibiting the employment of women and young persons in painting where certain organic colouring agents are used; and in the Canton of Geneva, *Switzerland*, by an Order of 29 March 1934 dealing with the installation of apparatus for the cleaning of clothes and the utilisation of chlorinated hydrocarbons.

A very important means of prevention consists in the *labelling of containers* of toxic products. The question was raised at the meeting of the Correspondence Committee on Industrial Hygiene, which expressed itself in sympathy with the principle, but decided, in view of the difficulties surrounding the simultaneous ratification of an international Convention on the lines proposed—and simultaneity was held to be essential—to reconsider this suggestion later when the Office should have collected information on the subject.

Various trade union congresses have discussed *skin diseases*, and the International Union of Food and Drink Workers (Amsterdam, 30 August 1934) asked the International Labour Office whether scientific research into dermatitis caused by wheaten flour was sufficiently advanced to justify demanding, with any chance of success, the inclusion of this disease in the international schedule of occupational diseases. In *Great Britain* the National Council of the Pottery Industry (Stoke-on-Trent, 8 October 1934) studied the question of dermatitis due to turpentine, the influence of the constitution on the outbreak of the disease, and the possible substitutes for turpentine that would be free from deleterious effects on pottery workers. It also urged the Government to institute an enquiry with a view to specifying a standard quality of turpentine which would not affect the skin.

The high incidence of dermatitis among workers has been a matter for serious concern on the part of responsible authorities. Thus in the *United States*, where the annual number of such cases is calculated roughly at 100,000, the Public Health Service has organised an extensive enquiry, the first results of which have now been published. The Correspondence Committee on Industrial Hygiene, after discussion of the question of dermatosis from the aspect of compensation (1926 and 1928), decided to resume consideration of this problem. Finally the *International Congress for Dermatology* has placed on its agenda (Budapest, 1925) skin diseases of occupational origin.

Silicosis

The addition of silicosis to the schedule of occupational diseases by the revision of the 1925 Convention (1934 Session of the Conference) has been followed by a wealth of studies and enquiries in various countries concerning pulmonary injuries due to dust.

In *Canada* the National Health Council has organised an enquiry into the incidence of silicosis; in *Czechoslovakia* the Industrial Hygiene Section of the Association of Czechoslovak Physicians discussed at its first meeting the connection between silicosis and tuberculosis. In *Denmark* the Medical Factory Inspectorate examined 798 porcelain workers, 361 of whom (chiefly throwers) were found on X-ray examination to be suffering from pulmonary lesions; 186 metal grinders (51 cases); a number of workers in quarries, where the risk of silicosis was found to be great among those engaged in crushing; and workers in cleaning-powder factories. In *France* enquiries have been effected in coal mines (Pas-de-Calais) and in iron-ore mines. A meeting of the National Congress of Medical Jurisprudence (Lille, 30 May 1934) was devoted to the occurrence of pneumoconiosis among miners. In *Germany* numerous studies have been published, and enquiries are organised frequently by medical factory inspectors; a discussion also took place at the meeting of the Industrial Hygiene Association (Bochum, 8 November 1934) on pathological anatomy in serious silicosis, the importance of the nasal filter with regard to inhaled dust, silico-tuberculosis, and draft prophylactic measures for workers in the porcelain industry, in the stone industry, in metal grinding, and for miners.

In *Great Britain* a report published by the Committee on Industrial Pulmonary Diseases of the Medical Research Council concludes that the examinations effected did not lead to the finding of evidence that the inhalation of anthracite or other coal dust caused fibrosis of the lungs. The report adds that research is being pursued, however, not only in Great Britain and the United States, but possibly also in other countries, for the question will come up for consideration by the Correspondence Committee on Industrial Hygiene of the International Labour Office. A Conference of sections of the South Wales coal industry (Swansea, 16 June 1934) considered the question of silicosis among miners, particularly in

its medical aspect, and the preventive measures to be taken. In *India* (Mysore) a preliminary enquiry organised by the Government showed that cases of silicosis had occurred among underground workers in the Kolar gold mines. In *Italy* research into silicosis, begun last year by the Institute of Medical Jurisprudence at Siena, is being continued; the Corporative Medical Inspectorate is organising investigations in the metal industry (cleaning of castings). In the *Netherlands* the Medical Inspection Service has continued the medical examination of stone-cutters and has dealt in particular with the incidence of silicosis among workers engaged in the preparation of emery powder. In *Sweden* the Government has instructed the Social Board and the General Directorate of Medical Services to undertake a joint enquiry into the possibility and means of carrying out the research work proposed by the International Silicosis Conference (Johannesburg, 1930). In the *United States* (New York) the Industrial Hygiene Division of the State Labor Department, in collaboration with a prophylactic institution, an insurance institution and the employers' and workers' organisations concerned, undertook a joint investigation among 125 granite cutters with a view to determining the incidence of silicosis. Eleven workers were found to be free from the disease, 83 showed fibrosis in various stages and 31 suffered from silicosis complicated by tuberculosis [1].

Workers' organisations everywhere have likewise directed their attention to the situation. A deputation from the Miners' Federation of *New South Wales* interviewed the Minister of Mines, and urged the appointment of a commission to investigate the advisability of abolishing stone-dusting in mines, and the possibility of improving ventilation and the removal of coal dust, thus rendering stone-dusting unnecessary. The deputation recalled the fact that about 20 per cent. of the miners in a certain district were affected by pneumoconiosis, and that 40 cases were pending before the High Court, no provision being made to cover them by the Workmen's Compensation Act. An amendment was, it was stated, under consideration for placing coal miners on the same footing as all workers suffering from the effects of stone-dusting with regard to compensation.

The Executive Committee of the *International Federation of Christian Miners* (Geneva, 4 January 1934) also passed a resolution in favour of statutory compensation for silicosis. In *Belgium* the National Technical Committee of the Pottery Industry (6 May 1934) likewise demanded similar recognition for those of its workers affected.

The opinion so far accepted that silicosis is due to the action of free silica has been attacked by William R. Jones, London, as the result of research which leads him to regard sericite contained in the inhaled dust as the specific cause of pulmonary fibrosis.

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[1] It was calculated in March 1934 that claims for compensation for the effects of inhaling siliceous dust (incapacity or death) amounted in the United States to at least 300 million dollars.

Where sericite is not present, danger is said to be slight. It is possible—according to certain experts—that in the long course of evolution of the theories advanced in explanation of the genesis of pulmonary fibrosis, undue attention has been paid to the chemical action of dust, and that it would be advisable once again to take into account the physical form of the particles.

A controversial problem that is more difficult to solve is whether the injury caused by the inhaled dust containing silica or sericite can develop only in the presence of latent tuberculosis, or whether it may, on the contrary, evolve as a pure form of silicosis.

The opponents and the supporters of these two theories are still in disagreement; confronted with the new sericite theory still *sub judice*, they have been stimulated to pursue their researches and tests, which will have the distinct advantage of throwing light on the problem and stimulating the study of preventive methods, since on all sides there is proof of the serious risk from the medical point of view and the heavy economic burden of compensation.

Prevention has already been organised, moreover, even voluntarily by several industries, not only in the form of improvement of apparatus and machines, and adequate capturing and removal of dust, but also of preventive and periodical examination of the workers.

Another disease very similar to silicosis, namely *asbestosis*, due to asbestos dust, has also been the subject of very close study, with a view to arriving at means of diagnosis and prophylactic measures. According to a statement in the *British* House of Commons, the number of deaths from asbestosis reported to the Home Office up to 15 November 1934 was 60. As a result of investigation, the cases in question were attributed to exposure to dust prior to the coming into force of the 1931 scheme covering the asbestos industries. An enquiry effected in 1932 in regard to risks involved in work in warehouses and certain departments of asbestos factories did not indicate the necessity for extending the regulations in force. Naturally, however, strict supervision is constantly indispensable.

The Correspondence Committee on Industrial Hygiene has requested the Office to draw up a note on the asbestosis problem, and also to collect data relative to silicosis insurance with a view to making known the measures at present in force and thus paving the way for ratification of the 1934 Convention. In the *Union of South Africa* the Conference between representatives of the Government and of the Chamber of Mines has had the effect of furthering the employment of silicotic beneficiaries in suitable occupations—especially in surface occupations—on the mines, and 1,100 of these workers in the ante-primary and primary stage have in this manner found employment in 1934.

Anthrax

In *France* 23 cases of anthrax were notified in 1933, 9 of them in the hide and leather industry, 13 in the woollen industry, and 1 in

the horsehair industry; 20 were cases of malignant pustule, 3 of œdema. Two of the cases were fatal.

Cases of anthrax caused by goat-hair of foreign origin occurred in *Great Britain;* an Order in Council requiring all such hair to be disinfected was promulgated early in 1935.

Ankylostomiasis, etc.

Notification, prophylaxis, and free treatment of *ankylostomiasis* are provided for by the Social Insurance Bill (28 August 1934) in the *Argentine Republic.* Compensation was made legal during 1934 in the *Union of South Africa, Kedah* and *Bechuanaland.*

In *Italy* the prevention of *malaria* among workers engaged in land-reclamation schemes was made the subject of provisions, which deal also with compensation (already outlined in 1933) in serious and fatal cases (Act of 27 July 1934). The *Pan-American Health Conference* (Buenos Aires, 12-22 November 1934) discussed among other subjects measures to be taken in the campaign against ankylostomiasis and malaria.

Ictero-haemorrhagic spirochetosis (Weil's disease) has been reported as affecting a certain number of workers engaged in sewers, in suger-cane growing, and in draining land; the question has therefore arisen whether this disease should not be compensated in such circumstances as an occupational disease.

Cancer

In *Great Britain* the efforts of Dr. Twort, Director of the Cancer Research Laboratory of the Manchester Cancer Committee, which has for long been engaged in research with a view to discovering measures for preventing cancer due to mineral oil used by mule spinners in the cotton industry, have finally been crowned with success. It is stated to be possible henceforth to advise employers in the cotton industry and those in other industries using mineral lubricating oils as to which oils are or are not carcinogenic, and to place on the market a product fulfilling technical requirements which will not cause the serious damage so far encountered. Dr. Twort's research has also enabled him to make certain observations, within fairly wide limits, in regard to factors favouring the production of cancer: constitution, pigmentation of the skin, sex, weight, etc. Future research will be devoted to a study of tar with a view to discovering here too a non-carcinogenic product. This work has been to some extent facilitated by the results obtained by other English experts, according to whom certain cyclic carbides and their derivatives possess carcinogenic action on the animal organism. The studies pursued by several scientific institutes confirm and impart ever-increasing precision to these observations, and some light is thus thrown on the obscure problem of cancer. In *Czechoslovakia* the Committee appointed by the Government is pursuing its research into the problem of cancer of the lungs among the miners in Joachimstal.

Tuberculosis

It would indeed be gratifying to be able to report equally favourable results from research undertaken in regard to this serious disease. Whilst it is true that a slow and obvious improvement may be recorded in the incidence of tuberculosis, it must be remembered that such improvement is to be attributed to the progress of health legislation, more particularly in its industrial aspect. Available statistics show that tuberculosis is undoubtedly stimulated in its development by the phenomena accompanying puberty and aggravated by occupational or physiological conditions (pregnancy, etc.) or social conditions (under-nourishment, bad housing, etc.). Tuberculosis more particularly affects men in urban areas and in industries where working conditions are less hygienic, and the rate is highest for the age-group over 35—especially among unskilled workers and employees. Mortality among women is highest in rural districts where the standard of housing and nourishment is low and where women have to assume the double burden of field work and domestic work. Nevertheless, the mortality rate for the two sexes tends to become closer as industry extends into the agricultural areas. The campaign against tuberculosis at present has several very effective weapons at its disposal: knowledge of epidemiology, greater immunity of the population, improvement of health conditions in industry, shorter working hours, supervision in unhealthy industries, good medical organisation, and general prophylactic measures.

Medical Assistance

The importance of having a health service in factories and, more especially, its great utility in the campaign against wastage among workers is being more and more widely recognised. It is unfortunately impossible to demonstrate the advantages of a well-organised medical service statistically, for the statistics for lost time in factories with and without a medical service are not very numerous. It has been estimated, however, that British industry loses 29 million working weeks annually through absences of workers.

Medical services, though well-organised in large-scale industry, are certainly less so in medium-sized and small-scale industries, and it is precisely towards the discovery of a practical method of organising them for the latter that efforts are tending at present. A similar spirit inspires the studies made in this connection by the Office and will doubtless guide the Correspondence Committee, before which the question has now been brought.

In the *Argentine*, in a Message of 4 July 1934 to Congress, the President recommended the approval of a Bill concerning the building of a clinic at Buenos Aires; a Bill introduced in November would make it compulsory for all industrial and agricultural undertakings, shops and offices to have a first-aid box. In Victoria,

Australia, a Bill makes provision for the compulsory equipment of an ambulance room in charge of a qualified person in factories where upwards of 600 workers are employed, or upwards of 300 in the case of work of a hazardous nature. In *Germany* various authorities have demanded that a factory doctor should be attached to all establishments with a view to assuring daily medical care. The use of a first-aid box is required in *Great Britain* at docks (Order of 25 September 1934). In *Hungary* the National Social Insurance Institution opened at its central office a dispensary for periodical medical examination of workers exposed to the risk of lead poisoning (every 2 years for printers, painters in the building trade and plumbers; every 6 to 12 months for other occupational categories). A large clinic comprising all branches of clinical research and capable of treating 30,000 workers was opened in *Italy*, in the industrial district of Sesto S. Giovanni (Milan). In *Nicaragua* a Draft Labour Code treats of medical care and first-aid in factories. In *Poland* the First Congress of Safety Engineers (December) declared itself in favour of the organisation of first-aid in industrial undertakings. In *Turkey* a Labour Code in preparation will contain measures of protection for workers, including a permanent medical service for all factories employing upwards of 100 workers, whilst those employing under that number will be required to make arrangements with a doctor in private practice.

In the *United States*, in Maryland, the physical examination of sub-standard workers is prescribed in specified industries with a view to determining the extent to which physical handicaps or infirmities constitute a disability for certain industrial operations.

Hygiene

Numerous new recommendations on general hygiene were made throughout 1934. In *Germany*, for instance, the activities of the Society for Scientific Lighting (Essen, 16 September 1934) demonstrate the influence of various factors (temperature, radiation) on efficiency, and point to the necessity for adaptation of lighting to different classes of work and for suitable lighting on railways and in mines, etc. In several countries proposals have been made to attenuate and suppress noise; this problem is becoming more and more urgent and demands the collaboration of architects, engineers and health authorities with a view to avoiding not only aural injuries but also nervous troubles, at times of the most serious order. A report on aural injuries due to accidents was read at the *French* Ear, Nose and Throat Congress (Paris, October 1934), and a report on occupational damage to hearing will be presented at the forthcoming *Italian* Congress on Occupational Diseases (Naples, 1936).

Hygiene problems affecting certain categories of workers are receiving increased attention. Industrial hygiene should, it is held, occupy a much more important place than it has done hitherto in

the programme of legislation affecting craftsmen: it is not sufficient to organise a simple scheme of medical care for diseases designated "craftsmen's diseases", unless at the same time adequate prophylactic measures are applied.

Similarly, attention is being directed to the protection of home workers handling toxic substances, especially solvents. This is one of the reasons for the recommendation of compulsory labelling of containers.

Special regulations dealing with disinfection and disinfestation were issued in *Brazil* (12 April 1934), *Denmark* (28 February 1934) and *Germany* (17 July and 16 November 1934).

Finally, workers' canteens were the subject of discussion in the *Argentine* at the First National Social Welfare Conference (Buenos Aires, November 1934) and in the *U.S.S.R.* at the Conference of Heavy Industry, where they were described as the most practical means of securing satisfactory nutrition of workers unable to leave the factory.

Hygiene in Various Occupations

In *Canada*, Ontario, an Act of 3 April 1934 contains provisions relating to hygiene in labour camps, and to nutrition, housing and the prevention of occupational risks in lumbering.

In *Germany* a new Act contains detailed measures for the provision of adequate accommodation for workers engaged in outdoor construction (dormitories, canteens).

Special measures of protection have been issued affecting the building trade in *France*, and the National Federation of Building Trades Operatives in *Great Britain* sent a deputation to the Home Secretary to request special legislation for more effective regulation of building operations from the point of view of safety and health. In *Poland* a Ministerial Decree of 6 December contains measures of industrial hygiene and safety for agriculture and forestry.

In *France* the Shipbuilders' Association organised an enquiry into the risk of poisoning from soldering galvanised sheet iron, and it was found that cases of this type are very infrequent and that fairly simple methods of prevention suffice.

Chemicals. — The Association of Professional and Technical Workers in *Belgium*, comprising foremen, engineers, chemists, etc., has devoted attention to the protection of these categories in unhealthy industries (sugar factories, sulphuric acid factories, manufacture of candles, of white lead, etc.). In *Great Britain* a Welfare Order proposed by the Home Office demands the provision of suitable protective clothing for workers in the waste materials reclamation trade.

Mining. — Conditions of work in mines have in several countries been the subject of enquiries and resolutions. The executive committee of the *International Miners' Federation* (Brussels, 11 October 1934) discussed the increase in the number of notified cases of occupational diseases. In *Australia* the Mines and Metals

Association (Melbourne, 7 February 1934) stressed the necessity for greater attention to mine hygiene and safeguarding of the health of workers, expecially underground workers. In *France* the National Congress of the Miners' Federation (Mulhouse, 14 July 1934) called attention to the fact that the present technical organisation of mining has an adverse effect on the workers' health and increases the number of cases of premature invalidity and disease. In *Great Britain* the National Association of Colliery Managers (Cardiff, 6 June 1934) discussed the position in South Wales as regards silicosis and the importance of gas-detection in mines. The Safety in Mines Research Board analyses in its report for 1933 the results of its enquiries into dust, lighting, high temperature, and atmospheric conditions in mine galleries. The Midland Institute Committee on Mine Ventilation (Leeds, 1 November 1934) presented a study in which it concludes that the temperature in underground work should be improved. In *India* a Committee appointed by the Government has been instructed to investigate the dangers resulting from coal dust in mines. In *Turkey* a Committee of Investigation visited the coal mines of the Eregli (Heraclium) Basin and reported on conditions of ventilation, danger from toxic gas, etc., and proposed a number of preventive measures (ventilation, temperature, etc.) for underground work.

Much research has been effected in regard to lighting in mine galleries in *Germany* and in *Great Britain*. With a view to combating miner's nystagmus in the latter country, whitewashing of surfaces is provided for, as well as an increase in the number of electric lamps in roadways (Regulations of 1 June and 31 July 1934). In certain countries the attention of the competent authorities has been drawn to the injuries resulting from the use of the combined hammer and pick.

In *Bechuanaland* (19 September 1934) and in *Brazil* (10 July 1934) health and safety regulations were issued. Similar measures were taken in *Spain* (regulations for the inspection of mines and metal works of 23 August 1934).

The Executive Committee of the *International Miners' Federation* (Brussels, 11 October 1934) made representations to the Office in order that steps might be taken to ensure better protection of miners against occupational diseases, the growing rate of which was noted with apprehension. A report on this question was read before the Congress of the Federation (Lille, 6 August 1934), which voted a resolution concerning measures for preventing occupational diseases; in view of the lack of uniformity of opinion on this matter in various countries, the necessity was stressed of instituting enquiries with a view to the recognition of diseases which might be covered by national legislation, prior to any attempt to provide for compensation in international regulations.

Compressed air. — In *France* the protection of caisson workers is the subject of an amendment, dated 26 November 1934, to the Decree of 1913.

Maritime transport. — In *Australia* wheat-trimming in ships' holds was described in an arbitration award as work " accompanied by extreme discomfort ", calling for a substantial extra rate of pay. In *Great Britain* the Docks Regulations (5 March 1934) cover the operations of loading, unloading, moving and handling goods.

In *France* Decrees of 30 June and 1 September 1934 on inspection in maritime navigation lay down provisions concerning health and hygiene on board merchant ships, fishing vessels and pleasure craft (mess rooms, washing and sleeping accommodation, ventilation, medical staff, and medical and pharmaceutical requisites). In *Japan* regulations were issued on 1 February 1934 dealing with hygiene on board ship (living quarters, measures of personal cleanliness).

In the *U.S.S.R.* regulations of 27 May 1934 provide for the medical examination of applicants for employment in sea and river transport.

At the meeting of the *International Union for Combating Venereal Diseases* (Madrid, 19 May) reports were presented on propaganda in the mercantile marine, and on venereal diseases.

The new *international code of signals* in seven languages came into force on 1 January 1934. It embodies a medical section permitting of medical consultations by wireless in case of illness at sea (based on the pathological symptoms recorded by captains of ships without a doctor). At the *Italian* National Congress on Occupational Diseases (Turin, 29 October 1934), the pathology and health conditions of seamen and bargemen were the subject of a special report.

Railways. — An enquiry into the incidence of heart disease among railway staff was carried out in the *Netherlands.*

X-rays. — The protection of workers working with X-rays and radio-active substances, which was the subject of special recommendations (1921, 1923 and 1927) by the *British* X-rays and Radium Protection Committee, again came under consideration in the fourth report of the Committee (November), which advocates measures connected with working hours and working conditions. In *France* a Decree and Orders dealing with the protection of workers in contact with radio-active substances and X-rays were issued on 5 December 1934.

Salaried Employees. — That hygiene in offices should be made subject to legislation dealing with the protection and safety of workers and should be strictly supervised by labour inspectors and medical inspectors was urged by the *International Confederation of Professional Workers* (Geneva, 3 November 1933). The view was also expressed that plans for new offices as well as for the transformation of existing premises should be submitted for the approval of public health authorities prior to construction.

In *Great Britain* an Act of 25 July 1934 regulates work in shops and warehouses. A Bill dealing with sanitary conditions,

overcrowding and other conditions in offices did not pass its second reading. In *Czechoslovakia* certain hygiene regulations were included in the Act of 11 July 1934 concerning salaried employees' contracts.

In *Germany* (district of Brandenburg, 10 July 1934) and in *Bulgaria* (Order of 22 September 1934), provisions on hygiene were issued governing the work of domestic servants. In the *Netherlands* the National Association for Working Women petitioned the Minister for Social Affairs in regard to similar measures. In *France*, the Municipal Council of Paris passed a motion urging that the Decree of 1913 on health and safety (cubic air space) should be extended to the housing of hall porters and guardians of property.

Home work has been regulated in *Belgium* (Act of 10 February) and *Germany* (Ordinance of 10 August).

Legislation

In the *United States* new basic labour codes have been drawn up by the delegates of 39 States, who met at the Conference on Labor Legislation (Washington, 14 February 1934). These take account, not only of the " minimum " in regard to conditions of labour, but also of the " optimum ". For example, during the discussion of the report on industrial hygiene, it was suggested that the separate States should be empowered to establish regulations calculated to improve safety and health conditions (temperature, humidity, cubic air space, removal of dust, fumes and gases, etc.), and that the measures in question should be periodically revised.

A similar aim led to the drafting of the Office publication entitled *Standard Code of Industrial Hygiene*, which appeared during the year and met with a most favourable reception amongst those concerned, that is to say, workers and employers, more especially in those countries which are at present engaged in drawing up labour legislation.

In *Austria* an Order of 6 February 1934 amended the industrial hygiene and safety provisions relative to apprentices in industrial establishments.

The Committee of the *Balkan* Conference (Athens, April 1934) placed on the agenda of its meeting the question of collaboration in regard to questions of hygiene, more especially in agriculture.

In *Denmark* labour legislation is in course of reform in order to meet the demands of continued progress in technique and hygiene, and the Labour Protection Act is to be framed on broad lines, being confined to the enunciation of general principles, and leaving details to be settled though administrative regulations.

Regulations concerning workers' housing were issued in *Iceland* on 29 December 1933.

In *India* an Act of 20 August 1934 makes provision for health and safety measures, and lays down the procedure to be followed

by factory inspectors. Local governments have been empowered to make rules prescribing standards of artificial humidification in the textile industry, protection against excessive heat, provision of adequate shelter for the use of workers during rest periods in factories employing upwards of 150 workers, etc.

In *Italy* the consolidated Public Health Act of 27 July 1934 contains a chapter dealing with hygiene in rural housing.

In *Mexico* the Health Code of 20 August 1934 details hygiene measures connected with migration, with labour in general and with certain occupational categories.

In *Peru* a draft Labour Code provides for industrial hygiene measures; regulations of 19 October 1934 deal with medical examination on engagement and periodically during employment.

In *Siam* legislation is being drafted concerning the health of workers.

In the *United States* an Industrial Hygiene Division was set up within the Department of Labor and Industry of Massachusetts.

In *Uruguay* the Minister of Public Health was empowered (12 January 1934) to issue regulations governing conditions of work in industrial establishments.

Compensation for Industrial Diseases

The following action was taken in 1934 on the 1925 Convention, which, it will be remembered, came up for revision at the Eighteenth Session of the Conference:

Convention No. 18: Workmen's Compensation (Occupational Diseases)[1].

Denmark. — Ratification registered on 18 June 1934.

Italy. — Ratification registered on 22 January 1934.

Nicaragua. — Ratification registered on 12 April 1934.

Poland. — A Bill for ratification of the Convention was communicated by the Minister of Social Welfare to the Ministry of Foreign Affairs for submission to the Council of Ministers.

The question thus came again before the Conference in 1934, and long before the Session opened a number of resolutions were passed in favour of the adoption of the new Draft Convention drawn up by the Office.

Moreover, national and international workers' federations, as well as stressing the inadequacy of the legal protection in force, more particularly in certain countries, demanded the adoption of yet more extensive measures against occupational diseases. Not only did the *American* Conference of Labor Legislation mentioned above propose the definition of injuries to include occupational diseases, so that the victims of all such diseases may claim compensation, but scientists, both in Europe and America, reiterated

[1] The information given here relates only to 1934. See the tables at the end of the volume for the general situation in regard to the Convention.

their demands for full compensation for exposure to " occupational risk ".

The International Labour Conference, having decided to apply the single-discussion procedure, and having adopted the conclusions of its Committee on Occupational Diseases, voted by 104 votes to 11 for the extension of the 1925 Convention to include the following diseases:

Silicosis with or without pulmonary tuberculosis, provided that silicosis is an essential factor causing resultant incapacity or death;
Phosphorus poisoning by phosphorus or its compounds, and its sequelae;
Arsenic poisoning by arsenic or its compounds, and its sequelae;
Poisoning by benzene or its homologues, their nitro- and amido-derivatives, and its sequelae;
Poisoning by the halogen derivatives of hydrocarbons of the aliphatic series;
Pathological manifestations due to (*a*) radium and other radio-active substances, (*b*) X-rays;
Primary epitheliomatous cancer of the skin;

when such occur in industries or processes corresponding to those enumerated in the second column of the schedule.

Further, the Conference adopted by 72 votes to 1 a resolution stressing the fact that compensation for silicosis should not be considered apart from prohylactic measures (prevention of dust), that preliminary and periodical medical examination (for exposure to silica) were necessary, that diagnosis and certification of the disease should be exclusively in the hands of specially qualified medical men, and that a central controlling body should be set up in each country. The resolution also called for special investigation into the incidence of silicosis, as well as for further scientific and clinical research on the subject.

A recommendation to the Governing Body of the Office proposed adding ankylostomiasis and poisoning by carbon bisulphide to the revised schedule.

The text of the new Convention was transmitted to the Governments of States Members of the International Labour Organisation. A few of the States reported before the end of 1934 on the action they had taken.

Convention No. 42: Workmen's Compensation (Occupational Diseases) (Revised), 1934.

Australia. — Presented to the Commonwealth Parliament on 13 December 1934; also referred to the State Governments for any legislative or other action which they see fit to take.

Belgium. — Compensation is already provided for all the diseases added to the schedule, except silicosis. The enquiry undertaken by the medical authorities into silicosis is proceeding. The attitude of the Government to the revised Convention will depend on the findings of this enquiry.

Colombia. — Submitted to the competent authorities for examination.

Dominican Republic. — Submitted to the Department of Labour and Communications for examination.

Great Britain. — Presented to Parliament in October 1934.

Hungary. — A Bill for ratification of the Convention submitted to the Chamber of Deputies on 27 November 1934.

New Zealand. — Presented to the House of Representatives on 30 October 1934 and to the Legislative Council on 5 November 1934.

Rumania. — Referred to the chambers of labour, employers' and workers' associations and competent public authorities for examination.

Spain. — Submitted to the Labour Council for examination.

Venezuela. — Submitted to the competent services for study.

The Correspondence Committee on Industrial Hygiene reconsidered the resolution relating to silicosis, and proposed the means most adequate for giving effect to it.

In *Australia* an Ordinance of 14 May 1934 amends those of 1931 applying to the Northern Territory. In Western Australia an Act of 27 December 1933 amends the legislation relating to miner's phthisis and to compensation for silicosis, in order to cover workers so far excluded from compensation on administrative grounds. In Queensland Regulations of 19 July 1934 provide for compensation for lead poisoning in the Mount Isa district; an Order in Council of 25 October 1934 added Weil's disease to the list of diseases covered by workmen's compensation legislation, and another, of 20 December 1934, added dermatitis, due to X-rays and cancer of the skin. In *Bechuanaland* a Proclamation of 19 September 1934 provides for compensation for silicosis and tuberculosis in mines, ankylostomiasis, cyanide rash, lead poisoning and mercury poisoning. In *Brazil* a Decree of 10 July 1934 deals with compensation for certain diseases, a list of which will be published by the competent authority. In *Canada* measures for the Province of Ontario relative to silicosis cover also pneumoconiosis and stone cutter's or grinder's phthisis (24 February 1934). In Saskatchewan an amendment (7 April 1934) adds to the schedule dermatitis venenata. In *Ceylon* an Ordinance of 22 December 1934, on the lines of the Indian scheme, provides compensation for diseases due to lead, phosphorus, mercury, arsenic, chrome ulceration, and compressed-air diseases. *Costa Rica* issued Regulations on 24 September 1934 under the Act of 1925, classifying as accidents for purposes of compensation occupational diseases contracted as an immediate, direct and indubitable result of employment. In the *Free City of Danzig* an Order of 3 November 1933 extends the schedule in force, the administration thereof being regulated by Orders of 3 February and 31 March 1934. In *France* draft resolutions were submitted to Parliament in December 1934 inviting the Government to extend insurance for occupational diseases to cover silicosis or pulmonary diseases due to the absorption of siliceous, calcareous or argillaceous dust. In *Great Britain* an amendment of 4 August 1934 to the Silicosis and Asbestosis (Medical Arrangements) Scheme alters the conditions governing medical examination on engagement for certain operations. Another, of 22 October 1934, extends compensation for silicosis to " any operation underground in any coal mine "; and, finally, an Order of 28 May 1934 adds to the schedule in force poisoning by diethylene dioxide (dioxan) or its sequelae. In the *Irish Free State* the Act of 22 March 1934 and the

Order of 28 July 1934 require compensation for the following diseases: anthrax; lead poisoning; mercury poisoning; phophorus poisoning; arsenic poisoning; ankylostomiasis; poisoning by benzene and its homologues, by nitrous fumes; epitheliomatous cancer of the skin due to tar and mineral oils; glass-worker's cataract; cataract caused by exposure to rays from molten or red-hot metal; poisoning by nitro- and amido-derivatives of benzene, by dinitrophenol, by substances used as or in conjunction with a solvent for acetate of cellulose (dope poisoning), by tetrachlorethane, by carbon bisulphide, by nickel carbonyl, by gonioma kamassi (African boxwood), by manganese; ulceration of the skin produced by dust or liquids; ulceration of the mucous membrane of the nose or mouth caused by dust; ulceration of the corneal surface of the eye due to tar, pitch, bitumen, mineral oil or paraffin or any compound, product or residue of these substances; chrome ulceration; scrotal epithelioma (chimneysweep's cancer); compressed-air illness; miner's nystagmus; sub-cutaneous cellulitis of the hand, knee or elbow; inflammation of the synovial lining of the wrist joint and tendon sheaths; glanders; telegraphist's cramp; writer's cramp; twister's cramp; inflammation, ulceration or cancer of the skin due to X-rays or radio-active substances; a localised new growth of the skin, papillomatous or keratotic, due to mineral oil affecting mule spinners. The provisions of the British Silicosis Act of 1918 are likewise included in the new Act. In *Greece* the Social Insurance Act of 10 October 1934 repeals the 1932 Act and provides compensation for the diseases listed in the 1925 Convention. In *Italy* the Compensation Act of 1929 came into force on 1 July 1934. In the unfederated Malay State of Johore an Enactment of 17 October 1934 provides for compensation for diseases due to lead, phosphorus, mercury, arsenic, benzene and its homologues, and chrome. In *Kedah* the Act of 30 June 1934 and the Notification of 8 September 1934 extend compensation for industrial accidents to cover diseases due to lead, phosphorus, mercury, arsenic and benzene as well as ulceration due to chrome and its sequelae. In *Malta* (Ordinance of 17 August 1934 and Government Notice of 20 August 1934), compensation is provided in the case of lead poisoning, inflammation and ulceration of the skin and mucous membranes produced by dust, liquids, vapours and other agents, and inflammation of the joints due to repeated trauma. In Peru a draft Labour Code provides for insurance against occupational diseases; compensation for miner's pneumoconiosis was introduced at the end of 1934. In *Rumania* a Bill on accident compensation contains the schedule of the 1925 Convention. In the *Union of South Africa* the new Act of 8 June 1934 covers ankylostomiasis among workers other than Asiatic and Native workers employed in mines, and empowers the Minister to consider extension to other diseases. Act No. 60 amends the provisions in force relative to compensation for silicosis, and in particular maintains under certain conditions the right to compensation for silicosis in the case of miners who do not give up their work. It creates a special indemnity fund for silicotic

miners and necessitous dependants who are no longer entitled to allowances in virtue of Compensation Acts, and provides that certain underground operations may, on the advice of the Medical Bureau, be authorised as non-dangerous for miners formerly pensioned off and now recognised as free from the disease. These measures are intended to meet the situation created by the unemployment of silicotic miners suspended from work. In the *United States* the Act of 1930 for the State of Kentucky, amended in 1934, provides compensation for cases of disease or death due to inhalation of toxic gases and fumes in mines, as well as those due to the inhalation of any gas. Further, it makes proposals for an agreement between employers and employed as to a scheme of voluntary insurance against silicosis in the glass industry, quarries, mines and the production and handling of sand. In Massachusetts a Commission appointed in 1933 to carry out an investigation into the incidence of occupational diseases furnished in February 1934 a very full report, which in conclusion calls for a series of preventive measures and for compensation, more particularly for respiratory diseases due to dust. In New York an Act which came into force on 1 September 1934 extends compensation to dermatitis due to the use of brick, cement, lime, concrete or mortar, etc. In Pennsylvania a committee of enquiry submitted a report in 1934 recommending special compensation legislation. In Wisconsin the definition of the term " accident " has been amended by the addition of the words " mental or physical harm ". A Committee set up by employers to study silicosis with a view to compensation under the Accident Compensation Act proposed that the schedule of risks covered should include diseases caused by silica dusts and other harmful or toxic dusts. In *Uruguay* the insurance scheme for occupational diseases now covers lead poisoning and mercury poisoning; Orders may be issued adding other diseases to the schedule.

Statistics

It would be desirable to include in this chapter statistics of cases of occupational diseases notified or compensated, at least in those countries which publish such statistics in their periodical reports. For this first attempt, however, all that can be given are the figures which reached the Office in time for the drafting of this section of the *Year-Book*.

Austria. — According to the factory inspectors' reports, the following cases were notified in 1933: lead poisoning, 73 cases (29 of impregnation); mercury poisoning, 2 slight cases; poisoning by hydrocarbons of the aromatic series, 110 cases (2 acute); pneumoconiosis, 12 cases; about 60 cases of skin lesions due to various products. These statistics are not complete, and only cover cases mentioned in the report.

Belgium. — The Welfare Fund for victims of occupational diseases granted compensation in 1933 for 43 cases of lead poisoning

(4 fatal); 2 of mercury poisoning (1); 3 of anthrax—a total of 48 cases, as compared with 75 in 1932, out of 118 cases notified, with 29 still pending.

Czechoslovakia. — Up to 30 August 1934, the number of cases compensated was 130 (8 fatal) plus 92 compensated voluntarily (22 fatal); they were due to the following diseases: lead poisoning, 37 (5); mercury poisoning, 8; pneumoconiosis, 104 (13); cataract, 29; cancer of the lungs, 13 (12); benzene and aniline poisoning, 4; carbon bisulphide poisoning, 2; nystagmus, 13; eczema, 3; chromates, 3; muscular troubles due to the pneumatic hammer, 1; poisoning by carbon monoxide, 1; deafness, 4.

France. — The cases notified in 1933 include 704 of lead poisoning (232 in accumulated factories, 230 in metal enamelling works); 13 of mercury poisoning (6 among hair cutters); 45 of benzene poisoning (41 in a shoe factory); 2 of X-ray disease.

Germany. — In 1933, 1,258 (out of 7,133 notified) cases were compensated, as compared with 1,742 in 1932—a decrease of about 29 per cent. The cases in question were distributed as follows: poisoning due to lead 116 (1,082) [1], phosphorus — (4), mercury 9 (47), arsenic 10 (41), manganese 2 (2), benzene, its homologues and nitro-amino derivatives 26 (208), sulphuretted hydrogen 9 (84), carbon bisulphide 5 (42), carbon monoxide 35 (472); X-ray disease, etc., 1 (19); chronic and relapsing skin disease (due to exotic woods, paraffin, tar, etc.) 35 (433); diseases of the bones, muscles and joints due to work with compressed-air tools 69 (119); respiratory diseases due to Thomas slag 11 (11); silicosis 681 (1,509); cancer of the lungs 1 (9); deafness due to noise 11 (37); cataract 16 (36); miners' ankylostomiasis — (3); tropical diseases 5 (351); infectious diseases 216 (1,434).

Great Britain. — The cases of occupational disease notified to the Factory Inspectorate in 1934 were as follows: lead poisoning, 168 (19 fatal); mercury poisoning, 1; arsenic poisoning, 1; aniline poisoning, 12; benzene poisoning, 2; chrome ulceration, 73; epitheliomatous cancer, 143 (40); anthrax, 21 (2).

Hungary. — In 1933, 54 cases of lead poisoning were reported (25 compensated, 29 pending) and 5 cases of anthrax. In agriculture compensation was granted in 9 cases of anthrax, 43 of hydrophobia, and 13 of poisoning of various kinds.

Netherlands. — In 1933, the Factory Inspectorate received 244 notifications of occupational diseases, 2 of which were due to chromates; 10 to carbon monoxide; 9 to lead poisoning; 2 to nitrous fumes; 1 to carbon bisulphide; 63 to dermatosis; 42 to miner's nystagmus; 13 to eye diseases; 3 to forms of cramp; 42 to purulent bursitis of the knee; 2 to pneumoconiosis; etc.

[1] The figures in brackets give the number of cases notified.

In 1932, 9 cases of lead poisoning and 1 case of anthrax were compensated.

Poland. — The number of cases of occupational disease notified in 1933 was 112, including 57 of lead poisoning, 20 of silicosis, 23 of affections due to tar, paraffin, etc., 5 due to chrome, 4 of anthrax, and 1 of carbon monoxide poisoning.

Sweden. — From October 1933 to September 1934, notification of 95 cases was received. In 1931, 52 cases were notified, 30 of which received compensation (15 lead poisoning; 1 mercury poisoning; 1 anthrax; 13 silicosis).

Switzerland. — From 1 October 1932 to 30 September 1934, compensation was granted for 64 cases of lead poisoning (1 fatal), 16 cases of mercury poisoning, and 1 case of anthrax.

Yugoslavia. — In 1933, 2 cases of lead poisoning and 2 of mercury poisoning received compensation.

Medical Inspection

The development of measures for the protection of workers must of necessity be accompanied by effective organisation of application and control. Hence the movement in favour of medical inspection in industry, in regard to which the Washington Conference adopted a Recommendation with a view to safeguarding the health of the workers.

The whole problem of medical inspection was examined afresh by the Correspondence Committee on Industrial Hygiene, which unanimously approved the following guiding principles in regard thereto:

1. It is essential that each country should possess a medical inspectorate charged with the duty of protecting the health of the workers, and with the prevention of accidents, in so far as the human factor is concerned in accident causation.

2. The officials of that inspectorate should devote their activities entirely to the task with which they are entrusted by the Government authorities.

3. The industrial medical inspectorate is an essential part of the supervision of working conditions, but it should be separate from the technical inspectorate while working in close collaboration with it.

It is desirable to maintain contact between the officials of the industrial medical inspectorate and those of the public health service.

4. The members of the industrial medical inspectorate should have the same rights of entry as the members of the technical inspectorate.

5. It is necessary that medical university instruction should provide for all students a general training in industrial medicine, and that technical instruction in technical schools and universities should provide a general training in industrial hygiene and safety; moreover that provision should be made, in such a manner as may be considered most applicable to national conditions, for advanced instruction for such medical men as may desire to qualify themselves for specialising in the field of industrial medicine and hygiene.

The publication which the Office hopes to issue in 1935 on *research methods in factories* originated in a desire to give effect

to these same principles. Drafted on the suggestion of the Correspondence Committee on Industrial Hygiene, this brochure will form an essentially practical handbook for the factory doctor and inspector, containing a simple account of the methods generally accepted as the best for testing working conditions from the health aspect (lighting, ventilation, dust, gas and fumes, etc.).

In *Australia* the report of the New South Wales Division of Industrial Hygiene for 1931 and 1932 contains the results of enquiries into the danger due to dust and spray painting, the incidence of arsenic poisoning and of baker's dermatitis. In *Canada* an amendment of 1 May 1934 to the Saskatchewan Public Health Act set up a Health Service Board, which will have power, amongst other things, to confer with and advise employers and employees in cities with regard to the institution of health services. In *Denmark* the Medical Inspector of Factories in the course of 1933-1934 pursued research into silicosis, lead poisoning, eczema and risk from exposure to cobalt, manganese, etc. The report draws attention to the importance of and the necessity for compulsory notification of occupational diseases. In *France* a Bill has been introduced with a view to the reorganisation of factory inspection. The preamble discusses the hygiene and safety questions that constitute the most practical and important aspects of the task of factory inspection. In *Great Britain* the report of the Senior Medical Inspector of Factories draws attention, among other matters, to the risk presented by dioxan, poisoning by which has recently been added to the schedule of occupational diseases for purposes of compensation. In *Italy* the number of medical factory inspectors was increased by three new appointments, while two further nominations are to be made. In the *Netherlands* the annual report of the Inspectorate—medical service—contains an account of occupational diseases notified, and of various health enquiries, especially in dusty trades where the workers are frequently submitted to X-ray examination. In *Portugal* the Medical Factory Inspector has extended the range of his activities. In *Spain* the Decree of 19 April 1934 creates a single advisory body to deal with health questions and public relief; one section will be devoted to tuberculosis, malaria, industrial hygiene, etc. The Decree of 23 August 1934 provides for the establishment, under the Department of Public Health, of a medical inspection service for factories, the organisation of which forms the subject of an Order dated 29 September 1934. In the *United States* the Pennsylvania Department of Labor and Industry is conducting an enquiry into the incidence of occupational diseases, including: physical examination of 2,800 anthracite miners in co-operation with the United States Public Health Service to obtain data relative to the incidence of asthma among miners; sampling and chemical analysis of air in industrial plants in order to detect the presence of poisonous dust, gas and fumes; and finally, visits of registered nurses to workers' homes to determine whether absence from work is due to causes arising out of employment. In *Uruguay* a Decree of 17 February

1934 gives effect to Public Health Regulations entrusting the Health Inspectorate with factory inspection, etc.

Education and Publicity

In the *Argentine* a Council of Social Medicine has been instituted at the Faculty of Medicine at Buenos Aires. In *Canada* the National Health Council is directing its attention to industrial hygiene. In *Czechoslovakia* the section for the study of industrial hygiene, organised within the Association of Czechoslovak Physicians, comprises not only the Prague Faculty of Medicine but also leading physicians of provincial hospitals and the medical departments of the most important industrial corporations. The social hygiene section of the Institute of Public Hygiene has also dealt with questions connected with industrial physiology (nutrition). In *Germany* instruction in occupational diseases has received official recognition at Berlin University in that the clinic for occupational diseases, which held its tenth anniversary in 1934, has been raised to the status of Institute. In *Great Britain* the University of Birmingham has instituted a Department of Industrial Hygiene and Medicine. In *Japan* the Institute for the Science of Labour at Kurasiki is conducting research into environmental conditions and physio-pathology, and in addition began during 1934 to deal with health and hygiene conditions in relation to agriculture. In *Mexico* a message issued by the President of the Republic promised the creation of a section of industrial hygiene under the Scientific Labour Institute. In *Poland* the medical factory inspectors have been organising their first Conference for January 1935. The Institute of Social Problems organised in November 1934 a course of hygiene and safety for miners, and the very active interest aroused by this course has suggested to those directing it the advisability of instituting similar courses for other occupational categories. In *Spain* an association for industrial medicine has been founded, with its office at Madrid near the industrial clinic of the National Insurance Institute. In the *U.S.S.R.* an Order of 14 October 1934 reorganises the system of institutions for scientific research; questions of industrial hygiene, physiology, pathology and industrial medicine are assigned exclusively to the scientific institutions under the jurisdiction of the Commissariats of Public Health of the different Republics, whilst on the other hand research relating to standards of efficiency and sanitary engineering in industry and to safety fall within the scope of the scientific institutions maintained by the General Council of Trade Unions of the U.S.S.R.

Congresses or " days " devoted to industrial medicine have been held in several countries: in *Belgium* at Brussels (6 December) on pneumoconioses; in *Canada* at Ontario, where a report was read before the Association of the Chemical Industry on the majority of toxic products utilised in industry; in *France* at Lille (30 May) during the Congress on Medical Jurisprudence, a meeting

of which was devoted to the discussion of pulmonary fibroses; at Lyons (20 and 22 October) a congress of workers' social insurance funds met, at which a report on cancer, syphilis and occupational diseases was discussed; in *Germany* at Dortmund (23 March) at the Institute of Industrial Physiology; at Essen (16 September) on industrial lighting; at Bochum (8 November) on silicosis; at Düsseldorf (29 May) the Technical Committee of the German Association on Industrial Hygiene; in *Great Britain* at Oxford (7 September) at the Industrial Welfare Society's Conference; at Bristol at a meeting of the Royal Sanitary Institute; in *Italy* at Turin (29 October) the Congress on Occupational Diseases; in *Geneva* (21 June) the Correspondence Committee on Industrial Hygiene of the International Labour Office; in the *United States* at Cleveland (11 June), where at the annual session of the American Medical Association problems of industrial pathology were discussed both by a special section and in numerous sections of the Congress; in the *U.S.S.R.* at Moscow on 6 June, the All-Russian Congress on physiology, bio-chemistry and pharmacology, where problems of industrial toxicology were discussed and where fatigue formed the subject of discussion at a plenary session.

Prevention of Industrial Accidents

National Regulations [1]

General Regulations

Belgian Congo. — An Administrative Order of 6 August 1934 amended the regulations concerning the health and safety of workers.

Egypt. — A Bill drafted in 1933 to deal with industrial accidents has been recast in certain respects after consultation with the International Labour Office. The Minister of Home Affairs has now submitted it to the Advisory Committee on Legislation.

France. — A Decree of 6 January 1934 amended the public administrative regulations concerning the general safety and health measures to be taken in all the undertakings falling within their scope.

Germany. — The safety regulations of the mutual insurance associations have been amended and in great measure made uniform. The new provisions came into force on 1 April 1934.

Greece. — A Decree of 12 January 1934 issued detailed regulations concerning accident prevention in open-air work.

[1] For details, see under the heading: " Acts and Regulations, Safety Codes " in the *Industrial Safety Survey.*

India. — The regulations concerning work in factories were codified and supplemented by the new Factories Act of 20 August 1934.

Mexico. — Regulations concerning the employment of women and young persons on dangerous and unhealthy work were promulgated on 31 July 1934.

Morocco. — An Order of 13 October 1933, amended by an Order of 7 August 1934, issued a schedule of dangerous, unhealthy and disagreeable occupations.

Netherlands. — An Act was promulgated on 2 July 1934 concerning the safety of workers in general, and more especially in factories and workshops.

Rumania. — General industrial safety regulations were promulgated on 13 June 1934.

United States. — A number of minimum standards of hygiene and safety in industrial and commercial establishments were drafted by a special Commission appointed by the Secretary of Labor. These standards, which apply to the whole of the industries in question, are intended to be incorporated in the codes of fair competition promulgated by the National Recovery Administration.

It should also be noted that several countries amended or supplemented during 1934 their regulations concerning the nomenclature of undertakings scheduled as dangerous.

Special Regulations

Steam boilers. — The regulations concerning boilers and other steam appliances were amended or supplemented in the following countries: *Austria*, 22 November 1933; *Canada* (Saskatchewan), 7 April 1934; *Free City of Danzig*, 19 March 1934; *Estonia*, 3 October 1934; *Germany*, 23 February 1934; *Mauritius*, where an Order of 28 September 1934 to consolidate the existing legislation contains very detailed provisions concerning safety in the use of boilers; *Norway*, by Royal Order of 12 October 1934 amending the provisions in force concerning boilers and steam piping; *Uruguay*, where a Decree concerning safety in autogenous and electric welding processes for the repair of steam generating plant was promulgated on 24 July 1933.

Electricity. — In the *Belgian Congo* an Order of 29 December 1933 regulates work with electrical plant. A *French* Order concerning electric plant on board passenger vessels was promulgated on 24 December 1934. In *French Indo-China* an Order concerning plant for the transmission of electricity was issued on 5 December 1933, while detailed regulations concerning electrical plant were promulgated in *Martinique* on 27 September 1933 and in *Nigeria* on 12 March 1934.

Gas-pressure apparatus. — Regulations concerning the installing and use of gas-pressure appliances were passed in British Columbia

in *Canada* on 8 June 1934. In *Denmark* a Notification concerning the installing and use of compressed-air containers was made public on 2 August 1934.

Hoisting apparatus. — New provisions or amendments to existing regulations concerning hoisting appliances were issued in: *Austria*, 6 February 1934; *Free City of Danzig*, 18 December 1933; *Finland*, 15 February and 8 October 1934; *Greece*, 27 December 1933; *Italy*, 3 May 1934. A Decree concerning the safety of workers and employees working on ladders was also promulgated in *Greece* on 22 December 1933. In *Switzerland* the Federal Council issued an Order on 3 July 1934 concerning agricultural cable railways on which the transport of persons is permissible without Federal concession. Regulations concerning harbour cranes were issued in the *Free City of Danzig* on 20 January 1934.

Fire prevention. — Fire regulations issued in *Finland* on 30 December 1933 provide for the annual inspection of all buildings. In *France* an Order was issued on 28 November 1934 concerning the bulkheads and internal arrangement of passenger vessels with a view to preventing fires; an Order of 7 November dealt with the paint, varnish and other similar substances used on such vessels. In *Germany* (Prussia) new fire prevention regulations were issued by Ministerial Order of 30 August 1934. In *Hong Kong* an Ordinance of 4 October 1933 dealt with the measures to be taken to prevent fires in factories and workshops.

Inflammable and toxic liquids. — An Order concerning the storage of inflammable liquids was issued in *French Equatorial Africa* on 10 August 1934. General regulations on inflammable oils were promulgated in *South Australia* on 28 June 1934. An *Austrian* Ministerial Order of 28 March 1934 prescribes the measures to be taken to safeguard the life and health of workers in factories manufacturing or handling benzol, toluol, trichlorethylene, carbon tetrachloride, etc. In *France* the regulations concerning the handling and transport of hydrocarbons, inflammable liquids and other dangerous substances were amended by Decrees of 21 December 1933 and 17 May and 19 July 1934. The storage and handling of hydrocarbons and other inflammable substances were dealt with in *India* by an Act of 6 September 1934, in *French Indo-China* by an Order of 28 November 1933, in *Palestine* by Regulations of 25 May 1934, and in *French Somaliland* by an Order of 30 December 1933.

Acetylene. — In *Bulgaria* an Order of 10 February 1934 dealt with the safety of workers engaged in autogenous or electric welding. New regulations concerning the construction and use of acetylene generators were promulgated in the *Free City of Danzig* on 28 March 1934, in *Denmark* on 9 August 1934, in *Poland* on 29 August and 20 September 1934, in *Switzerland* on 10 April 1934, and in *Yugoslavia* on 18 May 1934.

Explosives. — The general provisions concerning explosives were amended in *Finland* on 2 March, in *France* on 18 June, and in the *Union of South Africa* on 17 August 1934. In *Hungary* an Order of 26 September 1933 dealt with the use of explosives containing liquid oxygen.

Regulations for Special Industries

Mines and quarries. — The amount of legislation passed in 1934 concerning conditions of work and safety in mines was unusually large. In *Australia* (South Australia and Western Australia) new safety regulations for mines were promulgated on 22 March 1934 and 14 November 1933 respectively. In *Bechuanaland Protectorate* a Proclamation of 19 September 1934 contained detailed provisions concerning work and machines in mines. A *Brazilian* Decree of 10 July 1934 dealt with health and safety conditions. The existing regulations were amended in the *Canadian* Provinces of Quebec (16 May 1934), Saskatchewan (26 March 1934), and Yukon Territory (28 May 1934). The mining regulations were amended in the *Federated Malay States* on 20 April 1934 and in the *Fiji Islands* on 4 July 1934. New regulations for electrical plant in mines where firedamp exists were issued in *Germany* on 13 April 1934. In *Great Britain* an Order of 1 January 1934 dealt with the use and storage of explosives in coal mines, while lighting in mines and safety lamps were the subject of general regulations of 1 June and Orders of 11 and 31 July 1934. The existing provisions concerning mines were also amended in *India* on 26 June 1934 and in *Northern Rhodesia* on 7 June and 15 August 1934. Detailed regulations were promulgated in *Spain* on 23 August 1934, and a new Mining Act in *Venezuela* on 21 July 1934.—Safety and hygiene in quarries were dealt with in *Japanese* regulations of 3 May 1934.

Spray painting. — Regulations were issued in *Great Britain* on 13 September 1934.

Celluloid and films. — In *Canada* (British Columbia) regulations of 22 December 1933 prescribe that films with a nitro-cellulose basis should be used for radiographic purposes in hospitals, clinics, etc. In *Finland* the storage, handling and transport of inflammable celluloid were regulated by an Order of 25 February 1934, while in *Germany* the existing regulations were amended by a Decree of 20 July 1934.

Docks. — The Dockers' Convention (revised) was ratified by *Spain* and *Mexico* in 1934. New or amended regulations concerning the loading and unloading of ships were promulgated in *Western Australia* on 12 September 1934, in *Great Britain* on 5 March 1934, in *Greece* on 4 March 1934, in *India* on 19 August 1934, in *Northern Ireland* on 1 May 1934, and in *Poland* on 27 October 1933.

Shipping. — A Decree concerning safety at sea and hygienic conditions on board commercial, fishing and pleasure vessels was promulgated in *France* on 1 September 1934.

Transport. — The transport of explosives in *Annam* was regulated by an Order of 11 January 1934. In *France* two Decrees, of 17 May and 19 July 1934 respectively, dealt with the transport of dangerous substances by land, by inland waterways and in seaports. The *German* regulations concerning the training of motor drivers were amended by an Order of 5 October 1934. In *Norway*, an Order of 26 October 1934 laid down certain precautions to be taken when transporting explosives. In *Southern Rhodesia* new regulations concerning the loading, transport and unloading of explosives were issued on 22 June 1934. The *Swiss* regulations for the transport of dangerous substances on the Rhine were amended on 27 July 1934.

Finally, provisions concerning the *marking of the weight on heavy packages transported by vessels* were adopted in *Australia* (Queensland) on 12 July 1934, in *Belgium* on 29 May and 27 September 1934, in *Estonia* on 10 October 1934, in *Italy* (for the islands in the Aegean Sea) on 9 October 1933, and in *Switzerland* on 28 March 1934.

Building. — In *France* two Decrees of 26 November 1934 dealt with the special health and safety measures to be taken in building yards, on public works, and in workplaces where compressed air is used.

Agriculture and forestry. — In *Australia* (Victoria) an Act of 29 December 1933 prescribed, *inter alia*, a scale of fines for using chaff-cutters without guards. In *Canada* an Act of 27 March in New Brunswick and one of 3 April 1934 in Ontario provided for the issue of regulations concerning the health and safety of forestry workers. An *Estonian* Act of 7 September 1934 dealt with the prevention of accidents in agriculture.

Food and drink trades. — In *Uruguay* a Decree of 5 November 1934 made it compulsory to fit guards to machines for the preparation of macaroni and similar products.

The Progress of Safety Movements and Institutions

The safety movement is steadily gaining ground. Not only have new accident prevention associations and institutions been set up, but a variety of other activities (congresses, exhibitions, " safety weeks " and the like) have been organised by other institutions in practically every country—often under the auspices or with the collaboration of the authorities.

Another equally striking sign of the progress of the Safety First movement is the increasing number of articles appearing in the daily press of several countries with regard to the loss of life through accidents and the need for combating this evil. In many countries, broadcasting has also been used as a weapon for safety propaganda, with far from negligible results.

In Poland an Industrial and Technical Museum, one section of which is devoted to industrial hygiene and safety, was inaugurated in December 1933.

International Activities

Correspondence Committee on Accident Prevention. — This Committee, which consists at present of 25 members representing 15 countries, held its Seventh Session in Geneva from 22 to 24 November 1934. It examined, at a first reading, a draft monograph on the protection of abrasive wheels. The draft monograph on safety in the construction and use of lifts came up for a second reading and was approved for publication. The Committee selected for study in 1935 the questions of safety in the use of ladders, and masks for protection against harmful dusts and gases.

The Committee also had before it the preliminary report of the Office on its enquiry, carried out during 1934, into the protection of building workers. In the light of the report, the Committee recommended that this question be put on the agenda of the International Labour Conference in 1936, and that the Committee meet at an early date to discuss draft safety regulations for the building industry.

International Regulation

Ratification and Approval of Conventions and Recommendations adopted by the International Labour Conference [1]

Convention No. 27: Marking of Weight (Packages transported by Vessels), 1929.

Belgium. — Ratification registered on 6 June 1934.

Bulgaria. — The Council of Ministers authorised ratification of the Convention; Royal Ukase No. 109, ratifying the Convention, was published in the Official Journal of 10 September 1934.

Czechoslovakia. — Ratification registered on 26 March 1934.

France. — The Chamber of Deputies adopted on 3 July 1934 a Bill for the ratification of the Convention and on 18 December 1934 a Bill to insert in the Labour Code special provisions bringing French legislation into conformity with the Convention.

Latvia. — The Minister of Social Affairs stated that his Government had decided to take the necessary action for the ratification of the Convention.

Lithuania. — Ratification registered on 28 September 1934.

Mexico. — Ratification registered on 12 May 1934.

Nicaragua. — Ratification registered on 12 April 1934.

Switzerland. — Ratification registered on 8 November 1934.

Convention No. 28: Protection against Accidents (Dockers), 1929.

Nicaragua. — Ratification registered on 12 April 1934.
(In accordance with Article 23, paragraph 2, of this Convention, it ceased to be open for ratification by States Members from 30 October 1934, on which date the *Protection against Accidents (Dockers) Convention (Revised), 1932, No. 32*, came into force).

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[1] The information given here relates only to 1934. See the table at the end of the volume for the general situation as regards the Conventions on the prevention of accidents.

Convention No. 32: Protection against Accidents (Dockers) (Revised), 1932.

Belgium. — A draft Royal Order regulating employment on board vessels is in preparation. When this Decree has been published the procedure of ratification of the Convention can be opened.

Chile. — Submitted to the National Congress on 18 December 1934 for approval.

Finland. — In a proposal submitted to Parliament in April 1934 the Government recalled the fact that in a report submitted to Parliament in 1930 on the subject of the original Convention adopted by the Twelfth (1929) Session of the Conference, it had thought it desirable that the Convention should be applied in Finland, since its object was to augment safety in the loading and unloading of ships. Application of the Convention required no amendment of the existing Workers' Protection Act as regards the loading and unloading of ships and could be put into force by regulations which were in preparation. The Government considered that there was equally good reason to apply the revised Convention, subject to the condition already mentioned in the report referred to, that suitable international reciprocity should be attained. The Government therefore asked Parliament to authorise ratification, on the understanding that it would not exercise its right to ratify until this condition had been fulfilled.

France. — The Government informed the Chamber of Deputies on 8 March 1934 that although the revised text of the Convention no longer offered certain difficulties which the old text contained, it nevertheless required, for its application on several points, previous agreement between the countries concerned. The competent services are examining the question and it seems that ratification of the Convention can be requested from Parliament in due course.

Great Britain. — In a Command Paper (No. 4724) presented by the Minister of Labour to Parliament in October 1934, it was stated that the Government proposed to proceed with the ratification of the Convention. In order that the provisions of the Convention could be applied in the United Kingdom it was necessary to revise the Docks Regulations of 1925. The necessary alterations having been made in the revised regulations, which came into force on 1 June 1934, and corresponding regulations having come into force on the same date in Northern Ireland, there was no further obstacle to ratification[1].

India. — A Bill to give effect to the Convention in British India was adopted by the Legislative Assembly on 30 July 1934 and by the Council of State on 13 August 1934 and received the assent of the Governor-General in Council on 19 August 1934. The Act, which is entitled the Indian Dock Labourers' Act, will come into force on a date to be fixed by the Governor-General in Council.

Japan. — The Privy Council decided on 20 December 1933 not to ratify the Convention immediately.

Mexico. — Ratification registered on 12 May 1934.

Spain. — Ratification registered on 28 July 1934.

Yugoslavia. — Submitted to the Council of Ministers on 16 January 1934.

Recommendation No. 40: Protection against Accidents (Dockers), Reciprocity, 1932.

Finland. — The Government informed Parliament in April 1934 that the subject-matter of this Recommendation chiefly concerned the principal maritime countries, but that even from the Finnish point of view it seemed desirable. The practical application of the Recommendation, however, was dependent on ratification of the corresponding Convention.

France. — Submitted to the Chamber of Deputies on 8 March 1934.

[1] Ratification of the Convention by Great Britain was registered on 10 January 1935.

Great Britain. — In a Command Paper (No. 4724) presented by the Minister of Labour to Parliament in October 1934, it was stated that the British Government intented to accept this recommendation.

Yugoslavia. — Submitted to the Council of Ministers on 16 January 1934.

Women's Work

Employment and Unemployment

While the position of women on the labour market naturally reflected the trend on the general market during 1934, it continued, as in previous years, to present certain special characterictics.

For a more detailed study of unemployment among women reference may be made to the table showing the general level of unemployment [1], which, for the first time, separates the figures by sex wherever national statistics allow, that is to say, in the case of Austria, Czechoslovakia, Finland, France, Germany, Great Britain, Irish Free State, Italy, Latvia, Poland, Sweden and Switzerland. But it must be remembered that these statistics are based on information which is not always equally complete and that the comparison between men's and women's unemployment is also affected by the methods of compiling the data and the regulations governing unemployment relief and placing, factors which in certain cases mean that the records leave out of account a more or less considerable number of unemployed women. Setting aside cases where these factors have too great an influence, the present analysis of the unemployment situation during 1934 is confined to the five countries for which comparison is probably most accurate.

In *Austria* unemployment reached its peak for both men and women in January, when 342,202 men and 98,143 women were registered with the employment exchanges. The total volume of unemployment decreased noticeably during the summer months, the lowest point being reached for both sexes in September, when 241,579 men and 83,968 women were on the employment exchange registers, but during the two following months the figures again rose gradually. It is to be noted that the fall in unemployment figures during the summer was proportionately smaller for women than for men, being barely 15 per cent. as against over 30 per cent. for men. This phenomenon, which had already been witnessed in previous years, is attributed to the fact that there are fewer openings for women on the public utility works undertaken to help the unemployed, such as building work carried out mainly during the summer months.

In *France* placing and unemployment relief statistics bore witness in the early part of the year to a steady increase in unemployment

[1] Cf. Vol. II: "Labour Statistics", table I.

among both men and women. The relative increase was practically the same for both sexes, since the number of women registered with the employment exchanges rose from 74,815 to 93,414, or by 19 per cent., and the number of men from 295,468 to 360,882, or by 18 per cent.

In *Italy* the unemployment figures for both sexes fell considerably during the early months of the year, from the highest point in January (919,904 men, 238,514 women), to the lowest in June (689,100 men, 141,765 women). From then on they rose again until November, when, however, the level reached was considerably lower than in January (793,925 men, 176,019 women). It may be noted that, as in the previous year. the movement was much sharper for women. Between January and June, women's unemployment figures fell by 40 per cent., as against only 25 per cent. for men, while during the following months they rose much more sharply than those for men (about 20 per cent. as against barely 13 per cent.). The phenomenon is probably due to the employment in early summer of a large number of women in seasonal agricultural work such as the weeding of ricefields.

In *Czechoslovakia* and *Poland*, on the other hand, the seasonal fall in unemployment during the summer was relatively smaller for women (25 per cent. in Czechoslovakia and 24 per cent in Poland) than for men (34 per cent. in Czechoslovakia and 30 per cent. in Poland).

In the changes made in the legislative provisions governing unemployment relief for women under public insurance and relief schemes, a distinction may be made between those which reduce women's rights and those which extend them.

In *Belgium*, for example, the position of unemployed women was improved in certain respects by the Order of 29 December 1934 which re-established the right of married women supporting a family to the statutory benefit in case of complete unemployment (in case of short time, they were already entitled to compensation under the former rules). The contrary is the case in *Germany*, where under an Order issued on 30 November 1934 by the National Institution for Employment Exchanges and Unemployment Insurance, compensation for short time may be refused to women who were employed in domestic service for a period of 52 weeks during the three years immediately preceding the introduction of short time in the industry in which they are actually employed, if there are reasons for believing that they can find employment in their previous occupation. This measure is in conformity with the policy of encouraging women to engage in domestic occupation, which is referred to in another part of this chapter. In *Great Britain* the 1934 Unemployment Assistance Regulations make provision for the payment of allowances to persons not entitled to assistance; the rates of these allowances vary with sex, age and family responsibilities.

In *New Zealand*, where women, unlike men, are not covered by the Unemployment Fund but are helped only through public

assistance, the Unemployment Board made grants totalling £11,410 to women's unemployment committees during the financial year ended 31 March 1934.

Among measures to alleviate unemployment among women, attention may be called to those taken in several countries to develop openings for their employment. The most noteworthy efforts in this field were those in the *United States*, where a Women's Work Division has been set up in the Federal Emergency Relief Administration, as also in the administrations of most of the States, to provide new employment possibilities for women. These divisions, each of which is under a woman director with special knowledge of women's work, have set on foot numerous schemes for providing suitable employment for women, and the number of women employed on relief works has risen rapidly since their establishment. The work provided varies greatly in character and includes research work, especially into methods of fighting the depression, office work, social work, sewing and mending, cleaning, overhauling and renovating public buildings, etc. During the summer of 1934, thirty-one educational and vocational training camps were opened in various parts of the United States, and some of these camps were maintained throughout the winter.

In *Great Britain* the Central Committee on Women's Training and Employment, which works in close co-operation with the Ministry of Labour, trains for domestic work unemployed women from the distressed areas where all hope of finding further industrial work for them must be abandoned.

A similar tendency to direct women into domestic work is apparent also in other countries, but the objective is somewhat different. The idea is not merely to find new avenues of employment for unemployed women but to direct girls towards such work so as to prevent them taking other situations on leaving school and thus to make jobs at present held by women in industry and commerce available for men. In *Germany* the opportunities given for a year's training in domestic service, and in the *Netherlands* the lectures on housewifery arranged by the Employment Office are typical of this tendency.

Another example of measures aiming ultimately at the reduction of unemployment among women is to be found in the official enquiries into unemployment which certain countries have made in regard to occupations traditionally exercised by women, such as the enquiry carried out by the *Finnish* Ministry of Social Affairs in October 1934 into unemployment in certain intellectual occupations, in particular nursing.

Place of Women's Work in the Economic System

Reference was made in the *Year-Book* for 1932 and 1933 to the stern struggle which is being waged between two conflicting tendencies with regard to women's work. On one side, it is held

that women's work is a perfectly normal phenomenon and that everything should be done to open up new avenues of employment for women as their qualifications extend and improve, while the opposing tendency considers that women's activity should be limited to the household or at least that men should be given priority in the overcrowded labour market.

The continued prevalence of unemployment has naturally strengthened the second tendency and many measures have been introduced to restrict the scope of women's work.

In *Austria* the Decree of 15 December 1933 and the Federal Act of 8 June 1934 stipulate that a woman engaged as a public servant or worker in the service of the State must give up her post if she is married to an official whose salary exceeds a minimum fixed in proportion to the social position of the household and its family responsibilities; if the couple have more than three children, the wife may retain her post. The Decree regulates the methods of calculating pensions. The same legislation also states that women employed in Federal undertakings must, with certain provisional exceptions, be retired on a pension (if they have acquired the necessary rights) or dismissed, and that married women may not be engaged under a contract of service governed by public law, or even by private law if the husband is in the service of the State. Exceptions to these various provisions are made in the case of actresses, postmistresses of the third class, women employed in the State tobacco factories, and female agricultural or forestry workers on State lands. The Minister of Education may also grant exemption to women teachers in certain State educational institutions of an artistic character when such persons are indispensable because of their special knowledge. Exemptions are also granted to women who are divorced through the fault of the husband provided they do not again take up their married life. In order to prevent any circumvention of the law, it is provided that officials who are not legally married, but who cohabit, will be dismissed.

Similar Orders concerning the dismissal of married women have been adopted in various Austrian provinces with regard to women employed in the teaching profession (Burgenland, Order of 19 March 1934; Upper Austria, Order of 23 March 1934; Salzburg, Order of 29 January 1934).

In *Belgium* a Bill submitted to the Senate by a representative of the Catholic Party at the beginning of 1934 proposed to limit the employment of married women in factories, workshops, workyards and offices whether of a public or private character. This Bill did not come up for discussion during the year, but restrictive regulations have been introduced through other channels.

A circular issued by the Prime Minister on 12 August 1934 informed the various Government departments of a decision taken by the Council of Ministers under which all posts in public administrative departments, including those of typist and shorthand-typist, must in future be reserved for men as long as a sufficient number of qualified male candidates are available. Any proposed

exceptions to this rule must be submitted for approval to the Minister of Finance. The prohibition to recruit women does not, however, cover staff employed in cleaning offices.

As regards private undertakings, an Order of 8 December 1934 empowers the Minister of Social Welfare to fix the quota of married or unmarried women who may be employed in industrial or commercial undertakings, such quota to be fixed for any industry, trade or occupation for the whole of the country or by districts. In exercising the powers thus conferred on him, the Minister is required to consult the most representative employers' and workers' associations or the competent industrial joint board, and the final decision must be taken in agreement with the Minister responsible for the administration of the industry concerned. This Order, which merely lays down a principle, does not therefore imply any immediate application. In reply to certain protests, the Government stated in a communication issued on 30 December that its intention was to apply the Act with caution and to ensure that no dismissals are recommended in undertakings where economical working normally depends on the employment of women.

In *Germany* the measures taken during the preceding year were revised in certain respects, and were further added to. The system of marriage loans was remodelled by the Act of 28 March 1934, which abolished the limit of household earnings below which the paid employment of the wife was previously authorised. At the same time, a number of Orders were issued to change the actual rate of the loans, which was first of all lowered and then raised again slightly. The Order of 10 August 1934, and the Administrative Order of 28 August 1934 relating to the distribution of labour, granted priority of employment to male workers over 40 years of age and thus restricted the employment of women; however, women with family responsibilities are also granted priority. Administrative regulations were issued under the Act relating to the dismissal of married women officials. Towards the end of 1933, a number of Orders had been issued applying to the administrative departments of certain specified States, but an Order published on 22 June 1934 covers all classes of women officials and school teachers in the employment of the States and local authorities. The Act of 5 July 1934 concerning the administrative reorganisation of social insurance contains similar provisions applicable to women doctors of insurance funds; married women doctors may practise only when this is absolutely necessary for the maintenance of their family.

The policy of directing women into occupations considered to be of an essentially feminine character was continued. Thus the organisation of the system of a year's domestic training, mentioned above, tends to direct them towards domestic careers. Similar measures are taken in connection with agriculture; the women's labour service centres *(Frauenarbeitsdienst)* for unemployed women train women for certain branches of agricultural work and animal husbandry. At the same time efforts are made to ensure that

women already employed in agriculture do not leave such work for other fields of activity. For example, the Order of 17 May 1934 limiting the placing of agricultural workers in non-agricultural undertakings and occupations categorically forbids the engagement of female farm servants and agricultural workers in canning factories, hotels, restaurants and cafés. Another occupation open to women is that of welfare worker and attention may be called here to the regulations issued in October 1934 by the Women's Department of the German Labour Front concerning the training of women welfare workers for employment in industrial undertakings. Women welfare workers may be employed even in undertakings where there are no women workers.

In *Italy* restrictive provisions have been issued in connection with the employment of women in public departments. The Legislative Decree of 28 November 1933 empowered the various administrative departments to lay down rules for the exclusion of women or the limitation of their number. Various departments subsequently fixed the quota of women to be employed at 5 per cent. for higher grades, 15 per cent. for intermediate grades, and 20 per cent. for lower grades.

Steps to limit the employment of women in private undertakings have been taken by means of corporative agreement. An agreement signed on 11 October 1934 by the National Fascist Confederation of Industrial Workers and the National Fascist Confederation of Manufacturers, for the purpose of spreading employment over a larger number of workers, restricts the employment of women and young persons in favour of men. The national federations must examine the situation with a view to permanently replacing women by men in all work of a physically or mentally exhausting character for which male labour is better qualified, and in work in which the use of female labour appears dangerous to health. For work ordinarily done by women, the federations must examine the possibility of substituting male labour, as an exceptional measure, for female labour. As regards salaried employees, the employment of women must be restricted to work definitely within their sphere in the light of the requirements of undertakings and services.

An agreement between the Confederations of commercial employers and employees stipulates that the employment of female staff is to be kept down to a strict minimum; apart from specified exceptions and cases in which women are indispensable, female labour will be limited in undertakings employing more than twenty persons to a percentage to be fixed for each branch of commerce by the national federations concerned, but in no case to exceed 20 per cent.

Finally, an agreement between the Confederations of employers and employees in banking and insurance institutions similarly requires that where the institution has a staff of over twenty, the maximum number of women employees must be limited to 12 per cent. of the total in banks and 15 per cent. in insurance offices.

A large number of agreements between the federations of em-

ployers and workers in particular branches of industry have applied the above principles.

In *Luxemburg* a Grand Ducal Order of 14 April 1934 states that the engagement of female clerical staff by public and private administrative departments and establishments, and their continued employment if they marry after the date on which the Order comes into effect, requires a special permit from the Director of Labour and Social Welfare.

In the *Netherlands* a Ministerial Circular to provincial and municipal administrative departments requires them to dismiss all women officials who marry and to refrain in future from engaging married women; both rules have been in force in central Government departments since 1924. A Bill providing for the dismissal of women school teachers on marriage was discussed by the States-General during the year.

In *Yugoslavia* an Order published in 31 March 1934 fixes the proportion of female staff in the postal services at 30 per cent. in higher grades, 25 per cent. in intermediate grades, and 10 per cent. in lower grades. Certain lower grades are now closed to women, without prejudice to those engaged in such work before the Order came into force.

On the other hand, however, it is to be noted that in *Canada* a Bill to limit the employment of married women was rejected by the Quebec Parliament.

As a counterpart to these restrictive measures—and in spite of the depression, which in the eyes of some may tend to make them appear a facile remedy for the evils of the hour—may be cited a fairly large number of measures for the extension of women's economic activities.

In the first place, women's access to State employment has been facilitated in certain countries, including *Brazil*, where the new Constitution, promulgated on 16 July 1934, states that employment under the public authorities is open to all suitably qualified Brazilians, irrespective of sex and marital condition. In *Turkey*, too, women became eligible for Government service when they acquired political equality.

In *Great Britain* a considerable improvement in the status of women employed in the civil service was proposed in the reports submitted by the Joint Committee of official and staff representatives appointed to consider the recommendations of the Royal Commission on the Civil Service on questions of particular interest to women. The Committee recommended equality of opportunity to enter the service for both sexes and the aggregation of male and female staff (which the staff side of the Committee held must have as its logical accompaniment equal pay as between men and women in the same class or grade) and the admission of certain exceptions to the " marriage bar " regulations hitherto in force. As a result of the last recommendation, new regulations were issued, giving the authorities discretionary powers to make individual exceptions on

account of a woman's special qualifications or the requirements of the department in which she is serving.

An official Committee has been appointed in Great Britain to consider the possibility of admitting women to the diplomatic and consular services. In *Norway* a Bill was introduced by the Minister of Justice at the beginning of 1934 to enable women to take up similar careers.

The admission of women to other branches of employment has also been facilitated in a number of countries.

In *Ceylon*, for example, Ordinance No. 25 of 14 November 1933 entitles women to enter the legal professions. In *Lithuania* the Act of 11 November 1933, relating to conditions of employment in industry, authorises a married woman to take up industrial employment even without her husband's consent. In *France* a Bill to authorise the admission of women to the profession of barrister is under consideration.

In the *U.S.S.R.* the increase in the number of women employed, and in particular the rising standard of efficiency shown by them in the highest posts in industry, commerce and science, are becoming more and more evident. This may be said to be the direct result of the Decrees of 1931, which gave a long list of skilled occupations in which women were to be engaged in preference to men. While continuing to favour the progressive development of women's work, the authorities are taking steps to ensure that the proportion of male to female labour employed in the branches of activity conforms to social requirements. Thus, the Order of 20 August 1934, establishing social welfare sections in the municipal soviets for the purpose of supervising the application of social legislation, requires the inclusion of women in each section. Again, the Order of 3 September 1934 provides for the doubling of the number of male medical students in three years, as the excessive number of women students (74 per cent. of the total number in 1934) is causing anxiety lest in some years' time there will not be enough doctors available for the more exhausting posts which are therefore unsuitable for women.

The question of the employment of women, and in particular the restrictive measures taken or contemplated in this domain, continued to attract public attention during the year. They gave rise to numerous Parliamentary debates, which cannot, however, be discussed here in so far as they led to no practical proposals. But women's organisations have taken every opportunity to protest against the measures adopted or under contemplation and to censure publicly the motives inspiring them. In the international field, attention may be called to the resolutions relating to married and unmarried women's right to work adopted by the International Council of Women (Paris, July 1934), the International Federation of Business and Professional Women (Geneva, July 1934), the Pan-Pacific Women's Conference (Honolulu, August 1934), the World Meeting of Women (Paris, August 1934), the International Federation of Soroptomist Clubs (Paris, August 1934), the Inter-

national Federation of University Women (Budapest, September 1934), and the British Commonwealth League (London, June 1934).

Similar resolutions were adopted by a number of national women's organisations, including the British Women's Civil Service Association (London, April 1934), the National Alliance of Swiss Women's Organisations (Geneva, October 1934), the National Council of Belgian Women (December 1934), the French Women's States General and the French Association for the Rights of Women (December 1934), and by meetings held in the Netherlands on 8 December 1934 to protest against measures taken or under contemplation which were attended by representatives from a large number of women's organisations of a professional, political, or independent character and resulted in the foundation of a permanent Committee for the protection of women's rights. Similar meetings were held in Belgium, at Brussels and Liége, in December 1934. It may also be noted that a number of mixed workers' organisations protested against measures to restrict women's right to work, for instance, in Belgium the Belgian Clothing Workers' Congress, and in France the Executive Committee of the General Confederation of Labour and the Clothing Trades Federation (December 1934). In France successful steps were taken by the Transport Workers' Federation against the dismissals of women conductors on the Paris district tramway services and by the Federation of Tobacco Workers against the dismissal of women on reaching 50 years of age. Special attention must be called also to the protest made by the Luxemburg Workers' delegate to the International Labour Conference in 1934 against measures for the limitation of women's work, and in particular, against those which had then just been taken in the Grand Duchy.

The movement to encourage working mothers to return to their homes has continued to develop, but two distinct tendencies are to be observed. Some organisations demand the statutory limitation of women's work (National Committee of Christian Women's Leagues of Belgium, in January and July 1934; Central Council of Christian Salaried Employees of Belgium, July 1934), while others merely urge that the return of working mothers to their homes should be facilitated by increasing the family income. In France, the Christian Workers' Confederation (May 1934), the National Committee of the "Back to the Home" movement, and the Congress of the Federation for Family Allowances urged an increase in family allowances when the mother remains at home and a reduction in allowances when she goes out to work.

Noteworthy, too, are a number of resolutions of a similar nature advocating the legal recognition of domestic occupations and their semi-occupational organisation, e.g. those adopted by the Conference of the International Co-operative Women's Guild (London, August 1934), the Industrial Conference held during the World Meeting of Women (Paris, August 1934), and the French Women's States General (Paris, December 1934).

General Protection of Women Workers

In addition to the special arrangements made for the protection of women before and after childbirth and the abolition of night work, which are discussed in separate sections, a number of legislative measures were adopted in 1934 for the general protection of women workers.

International Regulation

The Eighteenth Session of the Conference had on its Agenda, for first discussion, the question of the employment of women in underground work in mines of all kinds. It approved the draft Questionnaire prepared by the special committee set up to examine this matter and decided that the question should be placed on the Agenda of the Nineteenth Session of the Conference (June 1935) for second and final discussion.

National Regulations

The legislative protection afforded to women workers was extended in various respects during 1934 by a number of general laws.

In *Canada* an Act adopted by the Quebec Legislature in 1934 amended the Industrial Establishments Act by widening its scope to include commercial establishments, and thus extended to additional groups of women workers the provisions dealing with women's work. The new Act shortens women's working hours and empowers the Lieutenant-Governor in Council to prohibit the employment of women in work deemed dangerous or harmful to their health. In *India* the Factories (Consolidation) Act of 20 August 1934, which came into force on 1 January 1935, reduces statutory working hours for women. It empowers the Governor-General in Council to prohibit the employment of women upon hazardous operations. In *Italy* Act No. 563 issued on 26 April 1934 to consolidate and amend legislation for the protection of women and children considerably widens the protection afforded by the earlier measures, by extending to commercial establishments certain provisions hitherto applicable only to industry and by authorising the extension of protective measures to other branches of activity by way of Decree. The provisions relating to the medical supervision of the health of girls are extended.

A number of laws have been adopted to prohibit or regulate the employment of women in unhealthy or dangerous work. In *Germany* an Order issued by the Bavarian Ministry of Economy in November 1933 prohibits the employment of women in the lifting and carrying of heavy loads and in the handling of poisonous substances. In *Austria* the Order of 28 March 1934 relating to benzol prohibits the employment of women in various unhealthy operations. In *Greece* the Act of 19 February 1934 concerning

certain organic dyes prohibits the employment of women in the use of such products. In *India* an amendment of 26 June 1934 to the Mines Regulations makes it illegal to require women employed in mines to carry heavy loads likely to endanger their health. In *Mexico* regulations issued on 31 July 1934 under the Federal Labour Act gives a list of the dangerous or unhealthy operations on which women may be employed only under certain conditions; the employment of adult women in the carrying of loads is limited to four hours a day and maximum weights are laid down for loads which girls are allowed to carry or draw. In *Poland* the Decree of 27 October 1933 relating to dock work in the port of Gdynia prohibits the employment of women as dockers, but exceptions may be made to this rule by a ministerial Order defining the nature of the work which may be carried out by women. In the *Union of South Africa*, Act No. 26 of 1934 relating to work in slaughterhouses prohibits the grant of a licence to women.

As regards the prohibition of the employment of women in underground work in particular, regulations were issued in the following British colonies: *Federated Malay States*, Mines Regulations of 20 April 1934; *Fiji Islands*, Mines Regulations of 4 July 1934.

Women's hours of work were the subject of fresh regulations in *Germany* (Hours of Work Order of 26 July 1934) and *India* (see above).

In the *United States* the State of Oregon issued an Order fixing women's hours of work in needlecraft and in laundries at 44 in the week, the shortest hours hitherto established by any of the States; another Order fixed their hours in mercantile establishments at 48 in the week. In order to maintain by permanent legislation the reduction of working hours introduced provisionally by means of codes, a model Bill drafted by the Division of Labour Standards for submission to the competent authorities of the States makes provision for the limitation of hours of work, either for all workers, or at least for women workers where a general reduction is deemed to be impossible. The length of the statutory working day is not specified, this being left to the various State authorities, whose attention is however called to the desirability of fixing working hours at less than 48 a week and not more than 8 a day.

Special attention must be called to the growing movement for the legal protection of domestic servants. This is a logical consequence of the steps taken in numerous States to guide women towards domestic employment. In the past, this class of work has seldom been regulated and unless the omission is rectified, one of the effects of directing women into this branch of employment must be to deprive them of protection. Regulations relating to domestic work, covering various conditions of work and life (annual holidays, weekly rest, conditions of dismissal, housing conditions, etc.) have been promulgated in certain provinces in *Germany:* Brandenburg, 10 July 1934; East Prussia, 2 November 1934; Westphalia, 12 November 1934; Hesse, 20 November 1934; Silesia and Pomera-

nia, 27 November 1934. In *Bulgaria* an Order issued in November 1934 regulates the conditions of employment of domestic servants and provides special protection for young girls coming from the country to work in the towns.

In various countries, preliminary investigations are in progress. An enquiry into the conditions of employment of domestic servants has been undertaken by the Swedish Social Board. An enquiry has been undertaken in the United States among official employment agencies and the agencies of certain private bodies with a view to ascertaining what standard conditions of employment can be demanded by the agencies when supplying servants. The Employment Office of the Netherlands organised a course of study on such matters in June 1934.

The general protection of the health of women workers continues to form the subject of a large number of recommendations and resolutions, but only a few typical examples chosen from various parts of the world can be given here. For example, towards the end of 1933 the Women's Congress of Mexico discussed the practical application of Federal legislation to improve the working conditions of women. The All-India Women's Conference drafted a memorandum, addressed to the Eighteenth Session of the International Labour Conference, which embodied its claims for the improvement of women's working conditions. Later, in December 1934 it approved the report of the committee which it had appointed to investigate the conditions of women's work in mines; the report is in favour of prohibiting underground work for women provided that other work is found for them. The Industrial Conference of the World Meeting of Women, held at Paris in August 1934, put forward a number of demands for the protection of the health of women workers.

The conditions of domestic employment and the necessity for the legal regulation of this occupation were the subject of petitions to the public authorities by the Domestic Servants' Union of Yugoslavia and the Netherlands Association for Women's Work. This subject was also discussed at study courses organised by a number of women's associations in Belgium.

Night Work of Women

International Regulation

The year 1934 was noteworthy for the revision of the Convention of 1919 concerning employment of women during the night. During the course of the year the original Convention was the subject of the following measures:

Convention No. 4: Night Work (Women), 1919 [1].

Brazil. — Ratification registered on 26 April 1934.

[1] The information given here relates only to 1934. See the tables at the end of the volume for the general situation as regards this Convention.

China. — The Legislative Yuan decided on 19 January 1934 to postpone ratification of this Convention.

Nicaragua. — Ratification registered on 12 April 1934.

Revision of the Convention. — As pointed out in the *Year-Book* for 1933, the Eighteenth Session of the International Labour Conference, which met in June 1934, had on its Agenda the revision of the 1919 Convention concerning employment of women during the night.

The first point to be revised was that of the scope of the Convention with regard to persons. It was decided to insert a new Article according to which the Convention "does not apply to women holding responsible positions of management who are not ordinarily engaged in manual work."

The second point to be considered with a view to revision was the meaning to be given to the word "night". The 1919 Convention states that the term "night" signifies a period of at least 11 consecutive hours, including the interval between 10 o'clock in the evening and 5 o'clock in the morning. The following clause was added:

Provided that, where there are exceptional circumstances affecting the workers employed in a particular industry or area, the competent authority may, after consultation with the employers' and workers' organisations concerned, decide that in the case of women employed in that industry or area, the interval between 11 o'clock in the evening and 6 o'clock in the morning may be substituted for the interval between 10 o'clock in the evening and 5 o'clock in the morning.

The new Article and the revised Article were included in the text of the 1919 Convention at the same time as the new standard clauses; the draft Convention in its new form was adopted by the Conference on a final vote, by 121 votes to 1.

This draft Convention has been communicated to the Governments of the States Members of the International Labour Organisation. Before the end of 1934 a certain number had already informed the Office of the measures which they had taken in this connection:

Convention No. 41: Night Work (Women) (Revised) 1934.

Australia. — Presented to the Commonwealth Parliament on 13 December 1934; also referred to the State Governments for any legislative or other action which they may see fit to take.

Belgium. — A Bill for the ratification of the Convention is in preparation.

Colombia. — Submitted for examination to the authorities concerned.

Dominican Republic. — Submitted for examination to the Secretariat of Labour and Communications.

Great Britain. — Presented to Parliament in October 1934.

New Zealand. — Presented to the Chamber of Representatives on 30 October 1934 and to the Legislative Council on 5 November 1934.

Rumania. — Referred for examination to the chambers of labour, the employers' and workers' organisations, and the public authorities concerned.

Spain. — Submitted for examination to the Council of Labour.

Venezuela. — Submitted for examination to the services concerned.

National Regulations

In *Japan* the Ministry of Social Affairs is studying draft proposals for amending the Factories and Mines Acts, with a view to authorising ratification of the revised draft Convention of 1934.

In the *British Empire* the 1919 Convention was made applicable by a series of Ordinances to the following colonies and protectorates: Kelantan (Nos. 16 and 17 of 1933), Straits Settlements (No. 33 of 1934), Grenada (4 July 1934), Mauritius (No. 37 of 1934), Santa Lucia (No. 22 of 1934).

In several other countries, legislative provisions supplemented or clarified the regulations in force in respect of night work. Some of these provisions aimed at a more comprehensive application of the 1919 Convention, while others introduced new measures.

In *Egypt* an Order of 31 December 1933 defined the seasonal industries in which, in accordance with the 1933 Act analysed in the previous edition of the *Year-Book*[1], women may be employed temporarily during the night (sorting of onions, sorting and packing of vegetables, fruit and eggs).

In *France* the Bill referred to last year was sent back to the Chamber of Deputies for the adoption of certain amendments made in it by the Senate.

In *India* the Factories Act of 1934 completed the legislation for the application of the 1919 Convention by introducing a provision which ensures that a working woman will have an uninterrupted period of 11 consecutive hours' rest at night.

In *Lithuania* the Act regulating conditions of employment in industry, published on 11 November 1933, forbids the employment of women between 10 p.m. and 5 a.m. except on premises where only members of the same family are employed. Provision is made for exceptions in unavoidable circumstances and in connection with the treatment of perishable materials when such work is necessary to prevent their loss.

In *Portugal* Legislative Decree No. 24,402 of 24 August 1934 relating to hours of work forbids the employment of women in industrial establishments between 8 p.m. and 7 a.m. Permission to employ women at other hours may be authorised in exceptional cases by the National Labour Institute and on the basis of labour contracts approved by the Under-Secretariat for Corporations.

In *Spain* an Order of 9 November 1934 authorises exceptions to the prohibition to employ women during the night in the case of women employed in places of entertainment.

In the *United States*, where 19 States already possess legislation regulating the employment of women during the night either for all economic branches, or for the whole of industry or for certain branches of industry only, two States—Wisconsin and Massachusetts—have recently amended their legislative provisions with a view to making them more flexible and adapting them to new

[1] Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1933*, p. 153.

requirements. The period during which night work was forbidden was too long to enable the introduction of the two shifts authorised by certain codes for industries employing women, such as the various textile codes; this legislation has accordingly been amended since the introduction of the codes to make the two-shift system practicable. A model Bill was prepared towards the end of 1934 by the United States Department of Labor for submission to the legislatures of the various States in 1935. This Bill aims at establishing general regulations for night work to apply to all workers if possible, and at any rate to women, who should not be allowed to work after 10 p.m. or before 6 a.m. except where work is organised in two shifts, when women over 21 years of age might be employed after 10 p.m. but in no case after midnight.

Employment of Women before and after Childbirth

International Regulation

Convention No. 3: Childbirth, 1919 [1].

Brazil. — Ratification registered on 26 April 1934.

China. — The Legislative Yuan decided on 19 January 1934 to postpone ratification of the Convention.

Nicaragua. — Ratification registered on 12 April 1934.

National Regulations

A considerable amount of progress is to be recorded in this branch of social legislation. Some of the reforms introduced in connection with the protection of women at childbirth tend to secure the application of the 1919 Convention, while others lead the legislation of certain States towards a standard hitherto never attained.

Argentina. — The Act of 15 October 1934 supplements the previous legislation relating to maternity protection by establishing a maternity insurance fund which will provide allowances on confinement. Women workers and salaried employees from 15 to 45 years of age, employers and the State will contribute equally towards the cost of such allowances. The fund provides allowances during 30 days before and 45 days after confinement; such allowances are equal as a rule to the woman's earnings, but in no case may they exceed 200 pesos. Another Act issued on the same date brings existing legislation into harmony with the Convention by increasing the statutory nursing periods, previously fixed at 15 minutes, to half-an-hour twice a day, while more frequent periods may be sanctioned on production of a medical certificate.

[1] The information given here relates only to 1934. See the tables at the end of the volume for the general situation as regards this Convention.

A Decree issued on 3 August 1934 extends to women public servants in national administrative departments the right to a holiday of six weeks before and six weeks after childbirth, with full pay.

Australia. — Act No. 16 of 1934 amends legislation on maternity allowances (1) by raising the previous income limit of £208 a year by £13 a year for each surviving child under 14, up to a maximum of £299 a year, and (2) by increasing the former allowance of £4 progressively by 5s. in respect of each surviving child under 14, up to a maximum of £5.

Brazil. — The new Constitution promulgated on 16 July 1934 extends to women public servants the right at childbirth to three months' leave with full pay and all the rights and privileges attached to active duty. A Decree issued in May 1934 applies the same principles to women employed in the municipal services of the Federal District. The rules of the Superannuation and Pension Institution for Persons Engaged in Commerce provide for the payment of maternity allowances to women insured with the Institution, which are paid throughout the period of maternity leave fixed by the Employment of Women Decree of 1932 and are equal to the usual salary, but may not exceed 75 milreis a week.

Chile. — The Decree of 26 May 1934 lays down rules for the application of the provisions of the Labour Code concerning the protection of working mothers. The rules define the publicity to be given to the legal provisions regulating working women's rights, and deal with the production of a medical certificate by persons applying for maternity leave or for the prolongation of such leave in case of illness, the payment by the employer of an allowance in addition to that granted under the insurance scheme, protection against dismissal during pregnancy, the length of maternity leave, the installation of day nurseries in factories, and a special rest period for nursing purposes.

Cuba. — Legislative Decree No. 152, of 18 April 1934, entitles women employed in industrial and commercial establishments to rest periods before and after childbirth in accordance with the provisions of the Washington Childbirth Convention, and to special rest periods for nursing purposes. It also prohibits the dismissal of women on account of pregnancy and the employment of pregnant women in work of an arduous or harmful character, and requires undertakings employing more than 50 women to set up and maintain a day nursery. The same Decree makes provision for the establishment of a special maternity fund from which maternity benefit will be paid; all fines imposed for infringement of the Decree will be paid into this fund. Regulations for the organisation of the maternity fund were published in Decree No. 1568 of 17 June 1934. The fund is maintained by employers' contributions amounting to 1 per cent of the total wages bill and by workers' contributions equalling 0.5 per cent of the wage earned. Maternity benefit is granted to all insured women who have completed at least ten

months' contributions; it includes, in addition to medical treatment, cash benefit equal to the wage earned, plus a sum of 10 pesos paid by the State from the fund derived from fines for infringement of the Decree.

Czechoslovakia. — Under the Act of 11 July 1934 regulating conditions of employment in commerce and offices women employees have the right in case of childbirth to a rest period of six weeks with full pay after at least two years' uninterrupted service with the same establishment. During this period, which may be prolonged by a further two weeks, the woman may not be dismissed. A woman who is housed by the establishment may not be ejected from her quarters until her state of health permits.

Social insurance legislation, which makes provision for maternity allowances, underwent a number of changes which took effect from 1 July 1934. Under the revised legislation, maternity benefit includes the free services of a midwife or doctor or an inclusive cash allowance, and for persons who have been insured at least 180 days (a period which may be prolonged up to 270 days by decision of the funds). a daily allowance equivalent to sickness benefit during six weeks before and six weeks after confinement; a nursing allowance equal to one half the sickness benefit, during the 12 weeks following confinement; an allowance equal to one quarter of the sickness benefit may be granted for a maximum of 26 weeks, while a sum not exceeding 300 kč. may be granted as voluntary benefit to pregnant women.

Greece. — The Social Insurance Act, No. 6298 of 10 October 1934, entitles insured women who have paid 50 days' contributions during the twelve months preceding confinement to free medical treatment or an inclusive cash allowance and cash benefit equivalent to one-third of their daily wage for a maximum period of six weeks before and six weeks after childbirth. On expiry of this period, the allowance may continue to be paid for 60 days in the form of a nursing allowance.

India. — The Factories Act of 1934 empowers the local Governments to require that any factory employing more than 50 women shall reserve a suitable room for the use of the children under six years of age belonging to such women, and to prescribe the standards for such rooms.

In the Province of Bombay the Maternity Benefit Act was amended by an Order passed on 19 March 1934, which increases from six to nine months the period for which a woman has to work in order to be entitled to benefit, and reduces the statutory daily benefit (8 annas) to the equivalent of the daily earnings when such earnings are less than that amount. The maximum period during which a woman is entitled to benefit is however increased from seven to eight weeks. In the Province of Madras a Maternity Benefit Act was passed in October 1934.

Italy. — A Legislative Decree of 22 March 1934, which was converted into an Act on 16 July 1934, consolidates and amends the laws relating to the protection of women workers during

childbirth. The most important change is the extension from one month to six weeks of the statutory rest period following confinement, the compulsory rest period prior to confinement remaining fixed at one month. At the request of the woman concerned, these periods may be reduced to three weeks in each case on production of a medical certificate showing that the woman is fit to perform her work. The woman's post must be kept open for her during the whole of the statutory rest period, which may be prolonged by one month in the case of illness resulting from childbirth. The employment of women in lifting and carrying loads is forbidden during the three months preceding the expected date of confinement. Compulsory maternity insurance, which covers all women workers in industrial and commercial undertakings and women salaried employees earning not more than 800 lire a month, is extended to women home workers. The childbirth allowance paid by the National Maternity Fund is increased from 150 to 300 lire for all women who cease work during the statutory rest periods; the daily allowance hitherto paid by the Unemployment Insurance Fund to women on maternity leave is abolished, but in future the Unemployment Insurance Fund will pay an annual inclusive contribution, to be fixed by Royal Decree, to the National Maternity Fund.

Attention may also be called to the Legislative Decree of 5 July 1934, which ratifies the Treaty concluded in 1932 between France and Italy concerning equality of treatment for nationals of the two countries in respect of social insurance legislation and in particular of maternity insurance.

Japan. — Sickness insurance legislation, under which childbirth allowances are provided, was extended by the Act of 24 March 1934 to the staff of undertakings employing more than five persons. Previously only establishments employing over ten persons came within the scope of the legislation.

Lithuania. — An Act published on 11 November 1933 to regulate conditions of employment in industry entitles a woman worker to remain away from work for a total period of eight weeks before and after confinement without breach of contract.

Mexico. — Regulations issued on 31 July 1934 prohibit employers from employing pregnant women in work which requires a considerable physical effort or in the carrying of loads during the three months preceding confinement.

Poland. — A Decree of 24 October 1934 modifies to some extent the scope of the Social Insurance Act of 1933. This Act, which was analysed in the 1933 *Year-Book*, makes provision for maternity allowances. An Order published on 24 July 1934 concerns the organisation of the loan and assistance fund of the sickness and maternity insurance scheme.

A new system was established for agriculture by the Order of 24 October 1933, which among other things requires the employer to pay maternity benefit to his women employees.

Attention may also be drawn to a number of new institutions and to developments in existing institutions. For example, in *Brazil* a Decree of 22 May 1934 set up a Directorate for the protection of maternity and childhood, an independent institution which is intended to promote such protection throughout the whole country. In *Germany* the Maternity and Childhood Assistance Institute set up in 1934 centralises the various social services concerned with the protection of mothers and children. In *Uruguay* the Miners' Code approved by the Act of 4 April 1934 lays down rules for the organisation of hostels for mothers with young children, working mothers' canteens, day nurseries, etc.

In the *U.S.S.R.* the increase in the number of day nurseries—which has been very rapid in recent years, thanks to the steady rise in the estimates included for this purpose in the social insurance budget (in 1934, 281 million roubles)—is to be still more rapid during the second five-year period, between 1933 and 1937. The credits voted for the distribution of milk are also increased year by year. The sums voted for the protection of childhood are to rise from 140.9 million roubles in 1932 to 713 millions in 1937. Regulations issued on 23 April 1934, concerning house-building in towns, state that all new buildings are to be provided with crêches and day nurseries.

A certain amount of progess is also to be noted in connection with the grant of allowances to mothers with families to support. In the *United States* the Economic Security Bill recently submitted to Congress aims at the general adoption of this method of assistance, which already exists in a certain number of States. In *Uruguay* the Administrative Regulations of 24 May 1934, issued under the Pensions Act, which deal with the superannuation and pension system for persons employed in commerce, industry and public utility undertakings, brings mothers with dependent children under 14 within the scope of the pension scheme, although the amount of the pension has not yet been fixed.

Economic Protection of Women Workers

The *Year-Book* for 1933 showed how, in times of world-wide economic depression like the present, the question of the protection of wages, and in particular women's wages, liable as they are to be more easily affected, is of essential importance, if only on account of the competition which ensues between the various classes of workers when their wage rates are different. This explains the steadily growing tendency to give an important place in social legislation to the question of keeping up the level of wages by the introduction of minimum rates, and to that of equal pay for equal work.

Although equally applicable to both sexes, the measures taken to safeguard wages in home industries—the more important

of which are discussed in detail in another chapter [1]—must here be the object of brief reference in view of their effects on women, who, after all, form the bulk of the workers in this class of industry. Fresh legislation of this nature was introduced in *Belgium*, the *Netherlands* and *Uruguay*, while amendments and additions to existing laws were made in *Austria*, *Germany* and the *United States*. In the last-named country it is not merely the regulation but the actual abolition of home work as an element of unfair competition with organised industry that is aimed at in most of the trades where such work has always been common, that is to say in trades traditionally exercised by women. Of the various industrial codes, 65 provided for the abolition of home work with their entry into operation, 18 abolished it within a certain time limit, 10 abolished it in part and introduced supervisory measures, while 7 provided merely for supervision. Under a Presidential Order of 15 May 1934, invalids and persons employed in attending invalids are, however, authorised to work at home, except in the food industries for reasons of hygiene, provided that their remuneration is equal to that fixed by the corresponding code for workers in factories. In order to ensure that the provisions of the codes abolishing home work will be maintained after the codes expire, the Conference on Labour Standards, held on 14 December 1934 by representatives of the Department of Labor and the occupational and social organisations concerned, recommended that the legislation of the various States should be used more widely than in the past to abolish home work, and that inter-State compacts should be concluded to render such legislation more effective. Radical changes of this sort in branches of labour so traditionally feminine as home work must assuredly have far-reaching effects on the position of large numbers of women.

The measures for the introduction of minimum wages, which extend far beyond the field of home work, continue to develop from year to year; the reader will find information on this subject in the chapter dealing with wages [2]. Too much insistence cannot be laid on the importance of such measures for women workers, especially when rates are fixed, as they are in Mexico for example, in accordance with the principle of equality.

In the field of special legislation to protect women's wages a number of outstanding events are, however, to be noted.

Australia. — When deciding on 26 November 1934 to grant increases in the salaries and wages of Government servants, the Industrial Court of Queensland stated that it would ensure the observance of the principle of equal pay for both sexes, for which provision is made under the Industrial Act.

Brazil. — The new Constitution promulgated on 16 July 1934 stipulates in Article 142 that equal pay must be given for equal work, irrespective of sex.

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[1] See below, Chapter VIII, under " Home Work ".
[2] See below, Chapter IV: " Wages ".

Canada. — The *Year-Book* for 1933[1] drew attention to the peculiar situation which had arisen in Canada, where, as a result of the economic depression, women workers for whom minimum wage rates had been fixed by legislation in most of the provinces were being replaced by unprotected workers of the other sex. This situation has had a number of noteworthy consequences. For example, with a view to remedying the prejudice caused to female labour by the competition of the other sex and in order not to hinder the placing of women, steps were taken in 1933 to readjust temporarily the minimum rates fixed for women, which were reduced by about 10 per cent. generally and by 15 per cent. in certain cases. In 1934, a much more favourable measure was adopted in five provinces, which prohibited the employment of men at a lower rate than women: the Women's Minimum Wage Acts of British Columbia, Manitoba, Ontario, Quebec and Saskatchewan were amended by the insertion of a provision stipulating that when minimum wages are fixed for women, no male worker may be employed on the same work for a lower wage.

Further, in British Columbia a Male Minimum Wage Act was adopted in 1934 in place of the corresponding legislation of 1925, to which but little effect had been given. The scope of the new Act is the same as that of the Female Minimum Wage Act, and it therefore covers all paid work with the exception of farm work and domestic service. The two Minimum Wage Acts are administered by a joint Board of Industrial Relations, which ensures that both Acts are applied along parallel lines. In Ontario, the Government announced in October 1934 that it intended to replace existing legislation by a single Act which would provide for the fixing of minimum wages in each industry for both men and women and would thus ensure more complete harmony in such matters.

The question of the introduction of a Federal Minimum Wage Act is at present under consideration and the Prime Minister has stated that he considers the time suitable for the establishment of a general law applicable to the whole Dominion and to workers of both sexes.

As a result of the changes made in the minimum wage fixing machinery of the above-mentioned provinces, a number of Orders have been issued, covering various industries, which are applicable to both sexes (Manitoba, Order of 26 August 1934 concerning employees in hotels, restaurants, etc.), or which can at least be applied to men replacing women (Quebec, Order relating to laundries and dye-works and Order relating to shops etc.). It has thus been possible by abolishing competition between the various classes of workers to restore the cuts made in women's minimum wage rates, and Orders re-establishing the former rates altogether or in part have been issued in Manitoba, Quebec, Ontario and Saskatchewan.

A number of Orders applying to industries hitherto unregulated have also been issued in these same provinces and in Nova Scotia.

[1] Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1933*, p. 158.

Other changes are to be recorded, as, for example, the inclusion in the 1934 laws of provisions fixing hours of work or reducing the hours in respect of which minimum wages are fixed (Ontario, Quebec, British Columbia), the extension of the legislation to new activities (Manitoba), the imposition of more severe penalties (Quebec, Ontario, Saskatchewan), and the establishment of a maximum quota of girls who may be engaged as apprentices (Quebec).

New Zealand. — The Finance Act, No. 41 of 22 December 1933, authorised, among other things, the prolongation of orders of the Arbitration Court fixing minimum wages for women workers.

Union of South Africa. — A committee of enquiry appointed by the Government of the Union to report on the working of the Wages Act has drawn attention to the disastrous effect of inequality of wages between the two sexes. The competition thus caused tends to lower conditions of existence, and the committee declares that the only equitable principle for fixing wage rates is that of equal pay for equal work. Following on this enquiry, the Cape Federation of Labour Unions declared itself in favour of the same principle and, should unjustified inequalities continue to exist, for a limitation of the employment of women.

United States. — The *Year-Book* for 1933[1] drew attention to the new situation created by the codes, about seventy-five per cent. of which lay down uniform minimum wage rates for both sexes, while those which provide different rates for men and women all stipulate that when the work done is the same, the wages paid must be the same. An important feature to be recorded for 1934 is the increasingly frequent introduction (in about fifty codes, nearly all among the more recent ones) of a provision under which the code authority must within ninety days file with the Administrator a report on the occupations in which both men and women are employed in the industry, and are therefore entitled to the same rates.

Quite apart, however, from the measures taken through the codes, legislation regulating women's wages has continued to develop. In 1933, measures of this sort were adopted in Connecticut, Illinois, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New York, Ohio and Utah. In 1934, the legislation of Massachusetts, which previously provided only for the publication of the names of employers who did not conform to the fixed rates, was amended so as to make Minimum Wage Orders binding for all.

Orders relating to various industries were issued under the legislation of the various States, such as the mandatory Orders for laundries and dry-cleaning works in Ohio and New York, following on enquiries showing the urgent need of such regulations, while in Oregon the Order for the same industry was amended with a view to reducing hours while maintaining wage rates. In the same State, an Order covering the " needle " trades was promulgated.

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[1] Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1933*, p. 158.

The realisation of the need for close co-operation between the States if the regulations are to be fully effective led to the conclusion of a compact on 29 May 1934 between representatives of the States of Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, New York, Pennsylvania and Rhode Island, for the purpose of establishing uniform regulations for the fixing and enforcement of minimum wage rates.

Attention may also be called to the Additional Act of the Protocol of Peace, Friendship and Co-operation, signed between Colombia and Peru in 1934, which regulates conditions of work in the Upper Amazon region; it provides for equal pay for equal work, irrespective of sex.

Noteworthy, too, are the measures which have been taken to organise certain branches of women's work by requiring the production of a vocational training certificate and the registration of persons admitted to exercise such branches. Both these measures tend to raise trade standards.

A large number of measures have been adopted to regulate the profession of midwife or nurse or both professions at the same time: *Australia* (Queensland), Act No 31 of 18 December 1933; *Denmark*, Order of 9 March 1934; *France*, Decree of 22 September 1934 for the Upper Rhine, Lower Rhine, and Moselle Departments; Decree of 10 September 1933 for Madagascar; Decrees of 23 August 1934 and 15 December 1934 for French Indo-China; *Italy*, Royal Decree of 27 July 1934 approving the consolidated text of the Public Health Act; *New Zealand*, Act of 6 December 1933; *Norway*, Act of 15 June 1934.

The wage question was the subject of a number of resolutions adopted during the year by private organisations. The demand for equal wages for men and women was discussed in Great Britain at a mass meeting organised by some thirty women's organisations in February 1934, and resolutions to the same effect were adopted by the following organisations: the British Commonwealth League (London, June 1934), the Association of Women Clerks and Secretaries (London, March 1934), the National Union of Women Teachers (January, 1934), and the Union of Distributive and Allied Workers (Edinburgh, April 1934). Similar action was taken by a number of national women's organistions in different countries and by the Trade Union Youth Association of Brussels during its study course in July 1934. The Swiss Federation of Trade Unions has included this reform in its plan of action.

The establishment of minimum wage rates for all workers was demanded by a large number of trade union organisations: the General Federation of Japanese Labour (October 1934) and the Federation of Trade Unions of Japan (December 1934), the Czechoslovak Trade Union Federation (December 1934), the Yugoslav Trade Union Federation (December 1934), etc. In Canada, the

Union of Canadian Municipalities pronounced in favour of the same principle in December 1934.

The rational organisation of home work, and the recognition of home workers as wage earners so as to bring them under social legislation, was urged by the French Clothing Workers' Federation (August 1934).

The organisation of the profession of midwife, with special reference to the standards of vocational training required for the exercise of that profession, was discussed in detail at the Congress of the International Union of Midwives (London, May 1934), and the question of the organisation of skilled employment in offices (shorthand-typists, book-keepers, etc.) was studied by the Congress of the French Federation of Women's Trade Unions (February 1934).

The Protection of Children and Young Persons

National Regulations

National legislation relating to the employment of children and young persons is tending to become wider in scope and to cover all, or the chief, forms of non-industrial as well as industrial employment. There is, too, a steady, if in some cases slow, improvement in the quality of this legislation. Among the legislative measures passed in 1934, or still under consideration, which affect the work of children and young persons, are the following:

Albania. — A Bill to prohibit the employment of children in industry and in night work has been drafted.

Brazil. — The new Federal Constitution requires labour legislation to conform to the following principles: prohibition of all work for children under 14 years; prohibition of night work for young persons under 16; prohibition of employment in unhealthy occupations for young persons under 18. No distinctions are to be drawn between industrial and technical work or between one occupation and another.

Canada. — In the Province of Quebec the Industrial Establishments Act (now the Quebec Industrial and Commercial Establishments Act), by which the employment of children and young persons in industry is governed, was amended and its scope extended to commercial establishments, i.e. places where merchandise is sold, excluding hotels, restaurants and shops in which only members of the same family are employed. The hours during which night work (other than in shops) is normally prohibited were extended, the hours of overtime permitted for young persons were reduced, and the employment of boys and girls under 18 years may be prohibited in establishments where the work is dangerous or injurious to health.

Great Britain. — A new Act relating to the employment of young persons in shops came into force on 30 December 1934. The maximum working week permitted by law for young persons of 14 to 18 years was on that day reduced from 74 to 52 hours, a limited amount of overtime being allowed, on certain conditions, for those over 16 on occasions of exceptional or seasonal pressure. Other provisions require young persons under 18 to have a night's rest of eleven consecutive hours, including the interval between 10 p.m. and 6 a.m., or, in the case of certain kinds of delivery work, 10 p.m. and 5 a.m. A new Act relating to unemployment insurance lowered the age for entry into such insurance to coincide with the school-leaving age, usually a little over 14 years. Young persons receiving benefits under the Act must attend juvenile instruction centres (in the larger areas) or classes (in the smaller areas), intended to keep them mentally and physically fit and so facilitate re-entry into employment. Persons between the school-leaving age and 18 years may be required to attend courses of instruction, whether receiving benefits or not; hitherto only young persons claiming benefits could be required to attend courses. The new Act does not apply to employment in agriculture or domestic service.

A number of laws have been passed to apply, with or without modifications, certain of the Conventions relating to children or young persons to *British Colonies* or *Protectorates.*

India. — The Factories Bill referred to in the *Year-Book* for 1933[1] became law on 20 August 1934 and took effect on 1 January 1935. As regards children and young persons, the principal changes are as follows: the new Act reduces the hours of children under 15 years from six to five daily, with a spreadover of seven and a half hours; young persons of 15 to 17 years may not work as adults without a certificate of fitness, and they may be certified as fit to work either as adults or children.

Italy. — A new Act to regulate the employment of women and children was promulgated on 26 April 1934. It greatly extends the scope of the law, which now applies to all employed children except those performing domestic or other work in their own homes, or employed by their near relatives (unless the work is harmful), or working in State undertakings where the regulations are at least equal to the provisions of the Act, or in agriculture, or on board ship. Children under 14 years may not ordinarily be admitted to employment, but the Minister of Corporations may, after consultation with the trade associations concerned, authorise the employment of children who are not less than 12 years old when special circumstances require it and provided that certain conditions relating to health and morals, physical fitness for the proposed employment, and education are fulfilled. For specified dangerous or unhealthy occupations the age is raised, and young

[1] Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1933*, p. 160.

persons under 16 may not be employed in public entertainments or in the taking of cinematograph films. Other provisions regulate employment in itinerant trades, hours of work and night work. The Act will facilitate the ratification of the Minimum Wage (Industry) and the Minimum Wage (Non-Industrial Employment) Conventions.

Mexico. — A new Decree specifies a large number of dangerous or unhealthy occupations in which young persons of various ages over 14 years may not be employed, or may be employed only after specified precautions have been taken. The Decree applies throughout the Republic.

United States. — A Federal Act which included sugar beets and sugar cane as basic agricultural commodities under the Agricultural Adjustment Act provides that agreements under the Act may contain clauses to limit or regulate child labour.

A revision of the Kentucky School Code prohibits the granting of work permits to children under 16 years, with limited exceptions applicable to children of 14 or 15 in case of need.

The New York Act relating to hazardous occupations was extended by prohibiting the employment of young persons under 16 years in certain forms of building work, and of male young persons under 21 in distributing messages or goods in any city during certain night hours. A new continuation school law requires minors under 17 years who are temporarily unemployed to attend a continuation school for not less than twenty hours a week. Such minors are deemed to be " temporarily unemployed " until they re-enter regular employment, or return to full-time day instruction.

The new South Carolina law relating to hours of work prohibits the employment of children on Sundays in manufacturing or mercantile establishments.

At the present time the employment of children and young persons in the United States is governed by codes of fair competition under the National Recovery Administration rather than by State laws. These codes would appear to have virtually brought about the disappearance of the employment of young persons under 16 years in industry. It is estimated that about 100,000 have been so barred, and that another 50,000 young persons over 16 have been excluded from hazardous occupations. Over 500 codes have been approved, and of these only 13 (all relating to non-industrial employment) permit some sort of employment under 16 years.

Uruguay. — A Children's Code provides, among other things, for a minimum age of 14 years for admission to employment, with some exceptions for school attendance, and for the enforcement of the school attendance provisions.

INTERNATIONAL REGULATION

Ratification and Approval of Conventions and Recommendations adopted by the International Labour Conference [1]

Convention No. 5: Minimum Age (Industry), 1919.

Austria. — The Federal Government decided to propose to the President of the Confederation the ratification of the Convention when national legislation had been brought into accordance with its provisions.

Brazil. — Ratification registered on 26 April 1934.

Finland. — A Bill to amend the Act of 31 July 1929 respecting the employment of children and young persons in industry was prepared. It takes into account the provisions of the Convention and was submitted to Parliament in April 1934; the adoption of this new legislation will make it possible to ratify the Convention.

Lithuania. — The Minister of Foreign Affairs stated that he had referred the Convention to the competent authorities for approval.

Nicaragua. — Ratification registered on 12 April 1934.

Convention No. 33: Minimum Age (Non-Industrial Employment), 1932.

Austria. — The Federal Government decided to propose to the President of the Confederation the ratification of the Convention when national legislation had been brought into accordance with its provisions.

Belgium. — Ratification registered on 6 June 1934.

Finland. — In a proposal submitted to Parliament in April 1934 the Government asked for authority to ratify the Convention. The forms of employment covered by the Convention are dealt with by the Act of 24 October 1919 regulating conditions of employment in commercial undertakings, offices and shops, which fixes the age for admission to employment in these kinds of undertaking. As regards commerce and offices, the provisions of the Convention are already in force in Finland and are even more strict. The forms of employment covered by the Convention which do not fall under the Act mentioned above are very few, particularly as regards the employment of children. The chief are employment in hotels, restaurants and cafés, theatres and cinemas, and hospitals and similar establishments. In these undertakings and in similar undertakings and establishments the prohibition of the employment of children under 14 years of age would not encounter any greater difficulties than in commerce and offices, where the prohibition exists already.

Since, for the reasons given above, the Convention can be applied without difficulty in Finland, account was taken of its provisions in the Bill to amend the Act of 31 July 1929 respecting the employment of children and young persons in industry, which was submitted to Parliament at the same time as the Convention.

France. — Submitted to the Chamber of Deputies on 8 March 1934. The Government explained that the age for admission of children to non-industrial employment was at present fixed by the Labour Code at 13 years. It was therefore necessary, to make ratification of the Convention possible, to amend the Labour Code by raising the age of admission to 14 years. Alteration in the age of admission of children to employment involved a corresponding alteration in the school-leaving age. A Bill respecting school attendance and the raising of the school-leaving age to 14 years was adopted by the Chamber on 30 May 1933 and sent to the Senate.

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[1] The information given here relates only to 1934. See the tables at the end of the volume for the general position as regards the Conventions concerning the employment of children.

Great Britain. — A Command Paper (No. 4731) presented to Parliament by the Minister of Labour in November 1934 stated that the proposals in the Convention in certain material points went beyond the law relating to the employment of school children. As the new law only came into operation on 1 November 1933 it was too soon to form any opinion as to how it would work in practice. The Government did not therefore propose to take a final decision on the question of the ratification of the Convention and of the enabling legislation which would be required, but intended to keep the matter under consideration for the time being.

Japan. — The Privy Council decided on 20 December 1933 not to ratify the Convention immediately.

Netherlands. — An Act reserving to the Crown the right to ratify the Convention was promulgated on 17 November 1933.

Poland. — The Minister of Social Welfare communicated to the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, for submission to the Council of Ministers, a Bill for the ratification of the Convention.

Spain. — Ratification registered on 22 June 1934.

Yugoslavia. — Submitted to the Council of Ministers on 16 January 1934.

Recommendation No. 41: Minimum Age (Non-Industrial Employment), 1932.

Finland. — The Government informed Parliament in April 1934 that the main provisions of this Recommendation were already applied in Finland. The consent of the parents or guardians is required for the admission of children to employment; a medical certificate is also required if the nature of the employment makes it necessary. The employment of children in public entertainments is so unusual in Finland that legislation on the subject would be of no practical value. If such legislation were contemplated, it should be based on the principles of the Recommendation. As regards dangerous employments, section 8 of the Act respecting the employment of children and young persons already provides that they may not be employed upon work which is beyond their strength, involves a risk of accident, or is dangerous to their health or morals. As regards enforcement, section 4 of the Act lays down that employers must keep, in a given form, a register of the young persons whom they employ; this register contains the information which the Recommendation considers desirable. The Labour Inspectorate has moreover power to enter premises and workshops in which children and young persons are employed. There is, however, no provision requiring children and young persons to wear special badges, since this measure is not considered necessary for the purpose of enforcing the law.

France. — Submitted to the Chamber of Deputies on 8 March 1934.

Great Britain. — A Command Paper (No. 4731) presented by the Minister of Labour to Parliament in November 1934 stated that the proposals in the Recommendation were generally acceptable, but that as they were integrally bound up with the Convention, no useful purpose would be served by formally accepting the Recommendation without previous ratification of the Convention.

Yugoslavia. — Submitted to the Council of Ministers on 16 January 1934.

Convention No. 6: Night Work (Young Persons), 1919.

Brazil. — Ratification registered on 26 April 1934.

Finland. — A Bill to amend the Act of 31 July 1929 respecting the employment of children and young persons in industry has been prepared which takes into account the provisions of the Convention and was submitted to Parliament in April 1934; the adoption of this new legislation will make it possible to ratify the Convention.

Nicaragua. — Ratification registered on 12 April 1934.

The International Labour Organisation continued to collaborate in the work of the Advisory Commission for the Protection and Welfare of Children and Young Persons. The representative of

the Office submitted to this Commission, which met from 4 to 17 April 1934, a report on those aspects of the work of the International Labour Office in 1933 which were of special interest to it. The Office also communicated to the Commission at its request a report on recent progress in the development of the family allowance system. The Committee adopted a resolution on the effect of the economic depression and unemployment on children and young persons.

Factory Inspection

General Inspection

Brazil. — By the Decree of 26 October 1933, five additional regional factory inspectorates with the necessary staff were attached to the Ministry of Labour, Industry and Commerce.

Bulgaria. — Regulations relating to technical supervision and the supervision of safety measures in undertakings were published on 6 October 1933.

Chile. — The Decree of 15 November 1933 codified the various Decrees concerning the General Factory Inspection Service. The Decree of 2 April 1932 concerning the organisation of the Factory Inspection Service was amended by a Decree dated 4 October 1934.

China. — Regulations governing the organisation of the Central Factory Inspection Office were issued on 29 September 1933 by the Ministry of Industry.

Denmark. — A Notification of 15 August 1934 amended the Regulations of 14 June 1921 concerning factory and labour inspection as also the Regulations of 27 February 1919 concerning printing works and iron and steel works.

French West Africa. — An Order of 10 October 1934 provides for the inspection of dangerous, unsuitable and unhealthy establishments in the territory of Dakar and Dependencies.

Germany. — By an agreement of 14 July 1934, the Factory Inspection Service was placed under the authority of the Federal Ministers of Labour and National Economy.

Iceland. — Regulations issued on 19 January 1934 supplemented the Regulations of 16 February 1929 concerning the inspection of factories and machinery.

Lithuania. — An amendment to the Factory Inspection Act was published in November 1933.

Netherlands Indies. — An Order of 14 October 1933 amalgamated the Factory Inspection Service for the Outer Provinces with that for Java and Madura.

Poland. — A Decree relating to the inspection of steam boilers was promulgated by the Minister of Industry and Commerce on 9 May 1934. In Silesia, the Sejm issued an Order on 12 Decem-

ber 1933 sanctioning the entry into operation in that province of the Act of 24 March 1933 concerning the supervision of containers under pressure. A similar Order of 22 December 1933 authorised the application of the Boiler Inspection Act of 31 May 1921 to that part of Upper Silesia which belongs to the Province of Silesia.

Tunis. — A Decree of 23 August 1934 extended the powers of the Factory Inspectorate.

Special Branches of Factory Inspection

Aerial navigation. — In *France* a Decree of 10 April 1934 dealt with the organisation of the General Technical Inspectorate of Aviation Equipment, Safety, and Materials. In *India* an Act promulgated on 19 August 1934 introduced new provisions concerning the supervision of the manufacture, ownership, use, working, sale, exportation and importation of aerial navigation equipment.

Mining. — In *Czechoslovakia*, a new Mines Inspection Act adopted on 10 July 1934 defines the organisation and functions of the Mines Inspectorate. An Order of 19 October 1934 fixed the areas and headquarters of the mines inspectors. In *French Equatorial Africa*, an Order of 14 March 1934 established a Government Mines Inspection Service.

Ports and maritime navigation. — In *Brazil* a Decree of 20 October 1933 established maritime labour offices responsible for the inspection, discipline and supervision of labour in the ports; the rules for the port labour offices were approved and brought into operation by the Decree of 24 May 1934. In *Denmark* the Act of 29 March 1920 concerning the inspection of vessels was amended by an Act issued on 27 March 1934. In *France* a Decree of 30 June 1934 concerning the inspection of navigation supplements section 30 of the Act of 16 June 1933 concerning the safety of maritime navigation and hygiene on board mercantile, fishing and pleasure craft. In *Sweden* the Act of 16 October 1914 concerning the inspection of vessels was amended by an Act of 31 May 1934. In *Turkey* Regulations for the Port of Istanbul were issued in September 1933.

Railways. — In *Spain* the competence of the factory inspectors with regard to railways was defined by a Decree issued on 6 December 1934.

Safety delegates. — In *Czechoslovakia* service regulations for assistant worker inspectors of mines were published on 19 October 1934. In *Germany* guiding principles were published on 7 December 1933 concerning the permanent participation of workers' representatives in accident prevention work in mining undertakings.

CHAPTER III

SOCIAL INSURANCE

" The fortunes of social insurance are of course still closely bound up with the development of the economic situation and the state of the labour market, but there is reason to hope without undue optimism that the phase of restriction and retrenchment will shortly give way to one of consolidation and development, signs of which are already definitely visible in an appreciable number of countries. "

In these words the *Year-Book* for 1933 described the general impression to be obtained from a review of social insurance schemes at the end of that year. It must now be asked to what extent events in 1934 justified this forecast and enabled social insurance to find new strength and regain its position in the social and economic structure.

As usual, this chapter of the *Year-Book* will take a number of countries in turn and describe the principal features of the legisation issued or proposed there. It will also call attention to a few striking facts and figures as evidence of the progress towards consolidation made during the year. Social insurance schemes have adapted themselves rapidly to the many new requirements born of the profound changes in economic and social structure; and the duties they should perform with a view to general recovery are better understood and more clearly recognised now than they were a year ago.

National Schemes

Argentina. — Act No. 11726, promulgated by Decree of 28 September 1933, having provided for ratification of the Convention concerning the employment of women before and after childbirth, the Chamber of Deputies fulfilled the obligations thereby assumed by passing a Maternity Protection Act on 30 November 1934. Under this Act the employment of women in industrial and commercial establishments of every sort is prohibited for 30 days before and 45 days after confinement, and during this statutory rest period a woman may not be dismissed from her post; further, she is entitled to free attendance by a doctor or midwife, and an allowance equal to her full earnings, but not exceeding 200 pesos. The cost of benefit is met by contributions from the State, employers and women workers. The rate of contribution

fixed for each woman worker between the ages of 15 and 45 years is equal to one day's wages every 3 months, and the employers and the State each pay a similar amount. The financial management of the scheme is in the hands of the National Superannuation and Pension Fund, the body responsible for administering the officials' insurance scheme.

Act No. 11729 of 22 September 1933, promulgated on 21 September 1934, amended certain sections of the Commercial Code concerning the protection of commercial employees or their relatives in case of accident, sickness and death. Any person—salaried employee, agent, traveller, representative or manual worker—who is engaged in commercial work and in receipt of a salary, wage, commission, or any other form of remuneration and who is incapacitated by accident or sickness not due to his own fault, now retains his right to his monthly remuneration, calculated on an average over the last half year, for not more than 3 months if he has been employed in the undertaking for less than 10 years, and 6 months if he has been employed for over 10 years. This provision does not apply to cases of absence on account of accident or disease for which the Workmen's Compensation Act prescribes a higher rate of compensation. In no instance may an employee receive accident or sickness compensation from more than one source.

On the death of an employee, his widow and relatives in the descending and ascending lines are entitled to compensation in the order and proportion laid down in the Civil Code; descendants are so entitled only when under 22 years of age, unless they are incapable of working. Failing relatives in the direct line, brothers and sisters under 22 years or incapable of working are entitled to compensation on the same basis as descendants, if they were dependent on the deceased person at the time of his death. Compensation is equal to half the monthly remuneration of the deceased person for each year, or part of a year exceeding 3 months, of service in the undertaking, the basic rate being obtained by averaging earnings over the last 5 years. In no case may compensation be less than a month's earnings, or more then 500 pesos for each year of service. Service completed before Act No. 11729 came into force cannot count for more than 5 years in all. Sums received from insurance funds or societies in virtue of contracts concluded by the employer are deducted from compensation.

Employers may transfer their statutory liability for compensation by taking out insurance policies for their employees with private companies or authorised mutual welfare funds; but this does not prejudice the right of the employee to take direct proceedings against his employer.

A new limited scheme for invalidity, old-age and widows' and orphans' insurance is to be added to those already existing (which apply respectively to railwaymen, bank staffs and the staffs of private undertakings operating public utility services); for a Bill to establish a pension fund for journalists and workers in the printing trades passed the Chamber of Deputies in September

1934, and is now before the Senate. The scheme covers managers, editors, correspondents, salaried employees and workers in undertakings publishing newspapers or periodicals, salaried employees and workers in the printing trades, and employees of news agencies. The obligation to insure extends to all undertakings in the Federal District and Territories; undertakings in the Provinces may affiliate to the scheme with the consent of their staffs. The resources of the fund will be derived from constributions from insured persons and employers, the interest on the capital of certain insurance funds established before the Act comes into force, income from investments, etc. Insured persons and their employers will pay contributions calculated according to the insured person's remuneration at a rate varying for each contributor between 6 and 20 per cent. of earnings. Further, every insured person must pay an entrance fee equal to one month's pay, and a fee equal to one monthly increment if his remuneration is increased. As regards benefits, the managing committee of the fund will submit to the Government and to Parliament, within 4 years of the promulgation of the Act, a plan based on actuarial valuations; this will provide for old-age, invalidity and survivors' pensions, on the basis of a qualifying period of 60 contribution months.

The extension of the scope of existing pension schemes has also been demanded. For instance, the Maritime Workers' Union, most of whose members belong to the lower ratings of the mercantile marine, has been conducting a brisk campaign for the introduction of old-age and invalidity pensions for seamen; it proposes that the Act relating to pensions for the staffs of private undertakings operating public utility services be extended to cover the mercantile marine.

Actuarial evaluations of the position of existing superannuation and pension schemes have been made in recent years, and have revealed large deficits. To give one instance only, the Railwaymen's Superannuation and Pension Fund, which has a membership of about 100,000, showed an actuarial deficit of 960 million pesos in 1927; the figure has since risen to about 1,500 million pesos. In view of the position, measures to restore financial equilibrium are contemplated; these will include stricter definition of invalidity, more accurate determination of the degree of incapacity, raising of the pensionable age, diminution of the large sums spent on benefits, etc.

An ambitious Bill relating to social welfare and assistance, which the Government introduced in the Chamber of Deputies, contains provisions on the subject of mutual aid sickness funds. At present these funds, which are voluntary sickness insurance institutions, are subject to the general legislation governing associations, and it is one of the objects of the Bill to give them a special legal status. Recognised funds will be required to give their members medical and pharmaceutical benefit and a cash allowance during at least the first 26 weeks of incapacity. The fund's own rules may provide for a waiting period of not more than 3 days before the

cash benefit begins. Supplementary benefit may be paid in respect of an insured person's wife and of his children under 22 years of age. The Government may subsidise recognised mutual aid funds.

The Bill also prescribes a certain measure of compulsory sickness insurance, namely for State employees. Six months after promulgation of the Act, every such employee, whether permanent or temporary, whose earnings do not exceed 500 pesos a month, will be required to prove that he belongs to a recognised mutual aid fund. Lastly, provision is made for the establishment of mutual aid funds for the pupils of all State and State-subsided schools and similar institutions.

Australia. — The Federal Old-Age and Invalidity Pensions Act was amended in several respects towards the end of 1933. In 1932 the maximum pension of 17s. 6d. a week had been retained, but pensions could be reduced according to a sliding scale based on income and property, by not more than 2s. 6d. per week; the full reduction (to 15s. per week) applied to pensioners with an income of 2s. 6d. or more or property in excess of a specified value. On 30 June 1933, however, 63 per cent. of all pensioners were still in receipt of the maximum pension of £45 10s. a year. In October 1933 the maximum pension of 17s. 6d. per week for all pensioners was restored, the limit of income not affecting the rate of pension being fixed at 12s. 6d. per week, and of property at £50 excluding the value of the home. Further, the pension is to be automatically increased by 6d. per week for every increase of 100 points in the price index number of food and groceries until the old maximum rate of £1 per week is restored. The average weekly pension on 30 June was 16s. 7d. in 1932, 15s. 11d. in 1933, and 16s. 10d. in 1934.

A campaign has been waged against the "property clause", which provided that pensions paid after 12 October 1932 to persons acquiring property of a certain value were a debt to the Commonwealth, which on the pensioner's death become a first charge on his estate, with priority over all other debts and encumbrances apart from certain exceptions. During the discussion in Parliament, members of all parties urged the repeal of this clause. Its effect had been to reduce the number of pensioners considerably, 11,243 pensions being voluntarily surrendered in 1932-1933. The Government was therefore unwilling to repeal the clause altogether, but in December 1933 an Act was passed to amend it: pensions paid after 31 December 1932 may still be recovered by the Commonwealth out of the deceased pensioner's estate, but no longer as a first charge, all other debts and liabilities having priority. Funeral benefits from friendly societies, personal effects to the value of £50 and property passed by will to a relative who is a pensioner or in necessitous circumstances, or resided in the pensioner's home as a member of the family are exempt from liability.

The number of pensioners increased from 249,167 in 1932-1933 to 260,679 in 1933-1934, and is estimated at 275,000 in 1934-1935. The total expenditure for pensions was £10,771,061 in 1932-1933 and £10,963,090 in 1933-1934, and is estimated at £12,000,000 for

1934-1935. On 30 June 1934, 84.23 per cent. of all pensioners were in receipt of the maximum pension.

A measure adopted in 1932 provided that relatives should contribute towards the cost of the pension if they were in a position to do so. Owing to the high income limit fixed, however, the proportion of relatives contributing was very low and the provision proved ineffective. Action under it was therefore suspended from 21 June 1934.

The restoration of the £1 pension rate is still claimed by pensioners; it is stated that a large number find it impossible to live on 17s. 6d. a week. The repeal of the property clause is again urged.

Maternity allowances were extended by the Financial Relief Act of 1 August 1934. The original scheme provided for an allowance of £4 on the birth of a child in Australia or on a ship in transit between Australian ports. Under the amendment, an additional allowance of 5s. is payable in respect of any other child under 14 years living at the date of the birth, subject to a maximum total payment of £15. Moreover, the income limit, which was £208, is raised by £13 for each such child, the total income not to exceed £299. During the year ended 30 June 1934, the number of cases in which allowances were granted was 75,781 as compared with 80,311 in 1932-1933 and 126,149 in 1930-1931, the last year prior to the introduction of the income limit. The total amount paid in 1933-1934 was £302,928 as against £630,652 in 1930-1931, the last year prior to the reduction of the allowance from £5 to £4.

The movement in favour of social insurance made considerable progress during 1934. The question of compulsory health insurance was repeatedly discussed or commented on; and enquiries were made by the Commonwealth Government into the possibilities of introducing a national insurance plan.

Workmen's compensation legislation in the Northern Territory (administered by the Commonwealth) was amended by an Ordinance of 14 March 1934. Medical, surgical and hospital treatment is no longer granted under workmen's compensation law. Compensation in respect of any one accident may now not exceed £750, whereas formerly the maximum in case of total permanent incapacity was £1,000. Moreover, benefits were reduced. There are new provisions concerning the calculation of earnings, allowances for children, etc.; and the scale of compensation for certain injuries of a permanent nature was modified, the amounts payable for some injuries being reduced.

Austria. — The sweeping changes in the political structure of the country, which followed the proscription of the Social Democratic Party and the disbandment of the free trade unions in February 1934 immediately affected social insurance. Most of the insurance institutions and unions were placed under the control of State commissioners, instead of the autonomous bodies elected by insured persons and their employers, or appointed by the respective occupational organisations. These bodies having been dissolved and

a fresh choice of members prohibited, their functions passed to the commissioners, who are responsible to the supervisory authorities only.

A fundamental reform of the whole of social insurance has been in preparation for some time. The plan first brought forward which proposed to revolutionise the financing of the schemes by substituting a general tax on turnover for employers' contributions and fixing a flat rate, equal to 10 per cent. of wages, for workers' contributions, had to be withdrawn owing to opposition from the groups concerned.

A second plan was submitted by the Government to the pre-advisory organs of the new Corporative Parliament early in January 1935. As the proceedings of these bodies are private, the details are not yet available; to judge by communications issued to the press, however, provision is made for heavily reduced benefits (in accident insurance as well as in the salaried employees' pension scheme), the introduction of a 3-day waiting period before sickness benefit is payable, and restrictions on benefits in kind. On the other hand, considerable improvements appear to be contemplated, the most important being the extension of the accident insurance scheme to cover all workers now insured against sickness, the immediate enforcement of an invalidity insurance scheme for industrial and commercial workers, and an increase in the benefits which the workers' sickness insurance pays to the members of insured persons' families. The consolidated contribution for all branches of social insurance (sickness, invalidity, old age and survivors, industrial accidents and unemployment) will, it is stated, be equal to 20 per cent. of wages for all industrial and commercial workers and will be divided equally between insured persons and their employers. It is expected that the insurance institutions will not be amalgamated, but that unions of insurance funds and of labour communities, spontaneously established by insurance institutions with the main object of providing sickness benefit in kind, will be encouraged.

Objections to this great reform plan have been raised in many quarters—even, it appears, in the Corporative Parliament's pre-advisory organs. Since an immediate decision is not required except in respect of the salaried employees' pension scheme (the resources of the Central Institution for Salaried Employees' Insurance are falling in an alarming way, and the scheme made a book loss of 22 million schillings in 1934 alone), it will be sufficient to restore the soundness of this branch of insurance and postpone a general reform until later. The Government intended the plan to be approved before the end of February 1935; but, in view of the differences of opinion revealed when it was discussed, it has extended the periods within which the pre-advisory organs are required under the Corporative Constitution to give their views.

Belgium. — Retrenchment undertaken in order to balance the Budget has given rise to considerable difficulties in connection with miners' pensions. The National Miners' Pension Fund has had to

face large deficits in recent years (over 27 million francs in 1933 and 31 million francs in 1934), and these, made good from the reserve fund, had reduced the latter to 55 million francs by 31 December 1934. In order to avoid an increase in State expenditure on miners' pensions—expenditure that had amounted to 146 million francs in the last financial year—an Order dated 22 December 1934 limited the possibility of combining miners' pensions with accident pensions or family allowances, laid down more stringent conditions governing the grant of proportional pensions, and reduced the rate of full pensions.

Although it was not denied that the Miners' Pension Fund's series of annual deficits must be terminated, this Order aroused no little protest. An extraordinary congress of the National Federation of Miners, which was held on 24 December 1934 to discuss the question of pensions, decided by a large majority in favour of an increase in contributions equal to 1, or even 2, per cent. of wages, the added cost to be borne equally by insured persons and their employers.

Following negotiations between the parties concerned, the Government issued a further Order on 30 January 1935, which eased the conditions for the granting of proportional pensions and invalidity pensions, but left intact the provisions prohibiting combined pensions and reducing benefits.

Nevertheless, in an important debate in the Chamber of Representatives on 31 January 1935, the Prime Minister promised that he would make every effort to maintain benefits at the highest possible level, and would have the Orders concerning miners' pensions examined by the National Labour Committee which had been set up to promote national economic revival. As a result of the Committee's suggestions, the 5 per cent. cut, originally to be applied to all benefits, will affect only the pensions of 6,000 francs guaranteed to workers who were born before 1883 and have worked underground for 30 years; the guaranteed minimum is thus reduced to 5,700 francs from 1 January 1935 onwards.

The increase of 1,080 francs a year payable to old-age pensioners when their wives reach the age of 65 (which the Order of 22 December 1934 abolished) is restored. A reduction of 798 francs a year is, however, to apply from 1 January 1935 to pensions totalling 7,080 francs; the rate of such pensions is thus reduced to 6,282 francs.

The rates of all other pensions and allowances to the aged, widows, the disabled, and orphans are left unaltered, but contributions are raised from 7 to 8 per cent. of wages, the additional 1 per cent. being divided equally between the insured persons and their employers.

Apart from the Orders relating to miners' pensions, legislation in 1934 was limited to a change in the rules governing the payment of the special supplement granted to insured persons who had reached a certain age when the social insurance schemes were introduced.

From the first this supplement could be granted only to persons

of small means; but the original measures fixed the means limit at a fairly high level, and totally or partially excluded certain types of income, such as alimony and remuneration from work. The Order of 31 May 1933 reduced the special supplement by 5 per cent. and tightened up the conditions to be fulfilled by applicants. The provisions of this Order were considerably relaxed on certain points on 8 November 1934. The new measure slightly increased the maximum rateable value of the dwelling which the pensioner may possess for his own use without affecting his right to the supplement. Moreover, it put an end to the unfavourable position of those aged persons who had paid insurance contributions, but not to the prescribed number, in 1931-1932, and therefore forfeited their pension rights; such persons are now regarded as having made the prescribed number of contributions as soon as the minimum sums provided by the Act of 10 December 1924 — namely 24 francs for women and 72 francs for men — have been entered to their credit.

Further, an Order of 31 January 1935 standardises the rules governing the application of the need test to pensioners for determining their right to a free pension supplement.

Lastly, the movement in favour of compulsory sickness and invalidity insurance was given further encouragement at the beginning of 1935. The Labour Plan recommends that part of the budget surplus accruing from economic recovery be used to set up an inclusive social insurance system. The desire to see the risks which menace the workers more satisfactorily covered, and a larger part of the national revenue devoted directly to stimulating consumption, was evinced both in the Senate and in the Chamber of Representatives when the labour estimates came up for discussion; and the Minister of Labour then expressed his willingness to have a compulsory sickness insurance scheme investigated.

Brazil. — The new Brazilian Constitution, promulgated in July 1934, enumerates the objects of labour legislation, and mentions among them "the institution of provision, by means of equal contributions from the Union, the employer and the employed person, for old age, invalidity and maternity, and for cases of occupational accident or death". As Brazil already possesses a substantial body of social insurance law, the effect of this clause is not so much to innovate as to point the directions in which development should be pursued.

Important progress was achieved during the past year both in pension insurance and in workmen's compensation. The scope of compulsory invalidity, old-age and survivors' insurance was further widened by the creation of a series of schemes, each covering a particular group of workers. The first pension insurance scheme had been set up in 1923 and applied to railwaymen only; in 1926 persons employed in harbour services were brought within its ambit; in 1931 it was drafted afresh and made applicable to all persons employed in undertakings of public utility; lastly, in 1932, it was decreed that miners should be brought under its provisions. A separate scheme for the shipping industry was established in 1933.

In the course of 1934 a series of Decrees instituted pension insurance schemes for commercial employees, bank staffs, coffee warehousemen, and stevedores.

All these schemes show a family likeness. Insurance is compulsory for all employed in the industry. Persons who have served for a prescribed number of years in the same undertaking cannot be dismissed save for misconduct. The benefits comprise medical aid as well as invalidity, old-age and survivors' pensions, proportional to length of service and amount of contributions. The financial resources are contributed by insured persons, who pay a percentage of their wages, employers, and consumers, who pay a " provident tax " added to the price of the services supplied by the undertaking. The administration is under the joint control of insured persons and employers.

Nevertheless there are important differences of detail from one scheme to another. Thus, the scheme for public utility undertakings is applied by a multiplicity of funds, one for each undertaking—there were 173 at the end of 1934—whereas for each of the other industries there is a single fund. The employer's contribution takes different forms: under the schemes for public utility undertakings and shipping, the employer pays a percentage of the turnover of his business; but under the other schemes his contribution is a percentage of wages, being equal to that paid by the insured, save in the scheme for the banking industry, which requires a higher percentage from the employer. Cash maternity benefit is provided under the schemes for commercial employees and bank staffs, but not under the other schemes (these apply, however, to industries in which probably very few women are employed). There are differences, too, in the qualifying conditions for the old-age pension, in the mode of computing the pension, and in the provisions relating to medical benefit.

The Federal Government decided towards the end of 1934 that the time had come to review the working of the various pension insurance schemes and to remove any anomalies which might exist. It accordingly appointed a committee of experts to draft amending legislation. Among the problems to which the committee is expected to give attention are: the adjustment of the financial provisions of the schemes to the principle, laid down in the Constitution, of equality of contributions from the insured person, employer, and Federal Government; and the endowment of the scheme for public utility undertakings with greater financial stability than the present dispersion of its resources among numerous funds allows.

The workmen's compensation legislation, which dated from 1919, was completely revised by a Decree of 10 July 1934, which came into force three months later. The new Decree closely resembles a Bill introduced in 1927. The scope of workmen's compensation is no longer limited to employments in which mechanical power is used, construction and transport, but extends to all employments in industry, commerce, agriculture, stock raising, and domestic

service, with a few minor exceptions. Although insurance remains optional, uninsured employers are bound to deposit a sum proportional to the number of persons they employ and to the risk involved by their undertakings. The maximum limit of the basic wage is considerably raised. A more efficacious and rapid procedure is introduced for the settlement of claims.

Bulgaria. — The financial difficulties of the Social Insurance Fund, which administers the accident, sickness and maternity, invalidity and old-age, and unemployment insurance schemes in accordance with the Act of 6 March 1924, have continued to exercise the officials in charge of the Fund. The accident and sickness and maternity branches show large deficits, which could only be made good by means of loans from the invalidity and old-age branch. Between the formation of the Fund and 31 March 1933, the expenditure of the accident branch exceeded its income by over 72 million leva, and the corresponding figure for sickness and maternity insurance was over 57 million leva; it is expected that the financial year 1933-1934 will have brought further deficits of 4 million leva for the accident scheme and 21 million leva for sickness and maternity insurance, or 25 million leva in all.

In view of this situation, the Government has faced the need for a reduction of expenditure, particularly on medical benefit and on cash benefit in case of accidents, and a radical reorganisation of the medical service was introduced under an Order dated 6 August 1934. The free choice of doctors by insured persons was abolished, and medical treatment must now be provided either by the dispensaries of the Social Insurance Fund or by its official doctors (doctors attached to industrial undertakings employing 200 persons or more, and medical officers appointed by the Social Insurance Fund in places where at least 500 insured persons reside); these doctors may not receive uninsured patients during hours of service. The result of the reform has been to reduce from 1,000 to about 200 the number of doctors who may attend insured persons (excluding those attached to the Fund's hospitals and similar establishments).

The Government then proceeded, by Legislative Decree of 5 January 1935, to reduce the cost of workmen's compensation. Daily cash allowances are diminished; the maximum pension for total disablement is fixed at 75 per cent. of the insured person's annual income (it was formerly equal to 300 times his average daily earnings); the pension for partial disablement is proportionate to earning capacity on the new reduced basis; the pensions payable to the survivors of fatally injured persons are diminished; the method of collecting contributions is altered, a stamp system taking the place of direct payments to the National Bank of Bulgaria, at least for undertakings making fortnightly contributions of less than 2,000 leva; and lastly, the Social Insurance Fund is authorised to undertake the vocational retraining of injured persons with their consent.

Canada. — Non-contributory old-age pensions are granted in

all the Provinces except Quebec and New Brunswick. In Nova Scotia a Pensions Act became effective in March 1934.

During 1934 the Quebec Legislature rejected a resolution inviting the Government to introduce legislation on old-age pensions as recommended by a special Commission to which the Provincial Government had referred the question. In Ontario, a suggestion to lower the pensionable age to 65 years was made by the Conference of mayors of Ontario cities. In Prince Edward Island, the Old-Age Pensions Act was amended by Chapter 18, dated April 1934, which makes provision for registering the pension as a charge upon the pensioner's lands.

The number of pensions increased from 71,391 on 31 March 1933 to 86,873 on 31 March 1934, and 95,738 on 30 September 1934, the increase being largely due to the introduction of the Nova Scotia pension scheme in 1934. The average monthly pension in Ontario was 18.18 dollars in March 1933 and 17.49 dollars in March 1934, somewhat higher in British Columbia, Manitoba and Alberta, and lower in Nova Scotia, Saskatchewan and Prince Edward Island. The total amount paid in pensions in the fiscal year ending 31 March 1934 was 16,566,117 dollars (15,375,261 dollars in the preceding year), 12,313,595 dollars (11,512,553 in 1932-1933) being paid by the Dominion Government, which contributed 50 per cent. of the pension expenditure up to November 1931 and 75 per cent. after that date.

Legislation on mothers' allowances in Ontario was amended by Chapter 54, dated April 1934; allowances which as a rule are granted only to widows with at least two children under 16 years may as an exceptional measure be continued while only one child is still under 16, provided that the other children continue to attend school or other educational institutions up to the age of 18.

The pension scheme of the Canadian National Railways was revised and the new plan came into force on 1 January 1935. The old scheme provided for pensions at the rate of one per cent. of the salary for each year of service, subject to a minimum of 300 dollars. For employees joining the service after 1 January 1935, being under 45 years of age, the non-contributory pension will now be 300 dollars a year. Additional pensions, however, can be obtained on a basis of voluntary contributions, the company contributing a corresponding amount subject to certain restrictions.

State health insurance has not yet been established in Canada. It is, however, being considered in British Columbia and Alberta. In British Columbia a health insurance scheme is being drafted by the Government on the basis of the report of the Royal Commission on Health Insurance, which was published in 1932.

In Alberta the Legislative Commission on Medical and Health Services presented its final report to the Legislature in 1934. The Commission considers the ultimate aim to be an adequate medical service on an insurance basis for the whole of the Province; such a service to include preventive and curative medicine, since preven-

tion lies at the very base of any efficient health structure. Full-time public health units could be used as administrative centres for the health insurance scheme. Close co-operation between the practitioner in curative medicine, a trained staff in the field of preventive medicine, and welfare organisations would thus constitute a most complete type of medical service. Existing medical services, the report continues, are not adequate to the standards proposed, and the available medical facilities are not fully used, owing mainly to economic reasons; the Commission is therefore of opinion that adequate medical services will never be available to the whole population until income-earners, through a system of compulsory contribution, provide a monthly sum sufficient to pay for adequate medical services for all. Under an ideal scheme, the State might contribute two-ninths, and employers (if any) two-ninths of the total cost, medical care for unemployed and indigent persons to be a charge on the collective funds. A complete service would include general medicine, specialised services, hospitalisation, dental services, prescribed medicines and surgical appliances, and a preventive medical—that is, public health—service. The administrative unit should be large enough to ensure economic administration, and not so large as to lose the sense of local responsibility. The Commission therefore recommends as the ultimate aim the establishment of a State fund centrally controlled and administered by a State Board, and local advisory committees for each unit.

A health insurance scheme on the lines indicated is proposed for those areas where the population is sufficiently dense to warrant such an organisation. Ultimately every individual in the Province should be included and every income-earner should contribute to the scheme. Medical services should be rendered by local practitioners, payment to be effected by the central administrative staff of the Provincial Board on the basis of services rendered. Frontier districts too sparsely populated to warrant such a type of organisation could employ practitioners on a salary basis, subsidised by the State, and in the more remote districts a nursing service only might be maintained. A second plan, for early application, provides for the extension of existing health services and the establishment of municipal medical services in existing hospital districts.

The cost of a scheme covering the whole population is estimated at 10,608,054 dollars a year, or 14.50 dollars per head, and of a scheme covering only employees at 1,876,895 dollars a year, or 13.7 per head, the employees themselves paying 931,033 dollars, or 6.54 dollars each.

Stress is laid on the need for high-quality medical service, at least one year's post-graduate work and periodical examinations being recommended.

Measures are being taken in Alberta to give effect to the proposals of the Commission.

The Unemployment and Social Insurance Bill now before the Dominion Parliament also contains provisions relating to health insurance. The Commission administering the Act is instructed to

collect information concerning any scheme in operation, or proposed, for providing medical and sickness benefits by means of insurance or otherwise, and to make such information available to any Province or other body or group of persons desiring it for the purpose of providing medical benefits. The Commission may further, on request, report on any scheme proposed or put into effect by any Province, municipality, etc., and afford technical and professional guidance.

The duties and powers of the Commission under the part of the Bill relating to health insurance are to be exercised in co-operation with any Dominion Government department, the Dominion Council of Health, any Province or Provinces and any municipality, association or corporation.

A report containing a plan for health insurance for the whole of Canada was presented to the annual meeting of the Canadian Medical Association. This plan, too, provides for State health insurance with medical benefits only.

Few changes were made in respect of workmen's compensation. In Nova Scotia an Act of 2 May 1934 raised the minimum rate of compensation for permanent total disability from 5 dollars to 6 dollars a week, provided for a minimum rate of 6 dollars in the case of temporary total disability, and revised the method of computing average earnings before the accident, which are deemed to be not less than 10 dollars a week. The new provisions only affect compensation payable for accidents occurring after the passing of the Act in cases where the worker would have earned not less than 10 dollars a week if he had worked for six days a week.

Chile. — The financial situation of the Compulsory Insurance Fund has improved considerably as a result of the fall in the number of its unemployed members; takings from the sale of contribution stamps rose from 33 million pesos in 1932 to 40 million in 1933, and it is hoped that the figure for 1934 will be 50 million pesos, though the final results for the year are not yet available.

At present the Fund is concentrating on two main objects: the development of its medical service, particularly in rural areas, and a change in the policy governing the investment of its reserves.

In order to provide insured persons with essential medical facilities, the Fund is now carrying out a plan which provides for the establishment of dispensaries in towns and first-aid posts in villages. About 100 of these posts have been set up; a male nurse or a midwife is attached to each, and doctors visit them at regular intervals. The experiments made up to date having shown the value of this form of service and its popularity with agricultural workers, a further 200 posts will be set up in the next few years.

The Fund, which administers the workers' old-age and invalidity pension scheme as well as sickness and maternity insurance, has large reserves, amounting at the end of 1933 to about 275 million pesos. The investment of such a considerable sum is a delicate matter. So far the reserves have as a rule been invested in national

debt and bonds of the Mortgage Bank; but in view of the depreciation of the Chilean currency and the possibility of a reduction in the interest rate on the national debt, the heads of the Fund have been obliged to consider the advisability of other investments, and in recent years they have used part of their reserves to purchase shares in the Bank of Chile and various industrial undertakings (a drug factory, a bag-making factory, etc.) and to acquire several large agricultural estates, which are administered under the direct supervision of the Fund.

This new investment policy has aroused severe criticism; the Fund is blamed among other things for competing with private industry and laying itself open to the risk of heavy losses, particularly by running agricultural estates during a slump in the sale of the goods which they produce. The management of the Fund has replied by calling attention to the inconvenience of investing property in national debt bonds only, by pointing out that the working of its medical service makes the Fund a large buyer of pharmaceutical products, by stressing every social insurance institution's obligation to direct its policy with a view to meeting its members' needs, and lastly by explaining that the acquisition of agricultural estates was largely intended as a means of demonstrating the necessity and the possibility of improving the conditions of work and housing of agricultural workers. The management seems determined to continue its social investment policy, and is now preparing *inter alia* an ambitious workers' housing scheme.

Workers' social insurance legislation having been in force for ten years, it is recognised that changes are indispensable, and both the Fund itself and Parliament are preparing a reform, the principal features of which will be the extension of medical benefit to members of insured persons' families, a wider definition of invalidity, and an increase in old-age pensions.

Lastly, negotiations have been opened with a view to the amalgamation or co-ordination of industrial accident insurance with the sickness, invalidity, old-age and survivors' insurance scheme.

Costa Rica. — Reference was made in the *Year-Book* for 1933 [1] to the reform which the Decree of 26 August 1933 introduced in the workmen's compensation scheme. This measure was supplemented by a second Decree dated 24 September 1934. The right to compensation extends to all workers who are employed in the industries and types of undertakings enumerated by the original measure, that is to say, all occupations with a specific risk of accident. The following are excluded: domestic service in private houses, agriculture, forestry, stock raising, transport by animals in agriculture, and any process of transformation or manufacture of agricultural and kindred products in which the producer employs fewer than five persons and does not make use of machinery, motors or implements worked by other than human power.

The employer is responsible for any injuries which his workers

[1] Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1933*, p. 174.

receive in the course of or arising out of their work, and may carry his own risk or be insured by the National Insurance Bank. An obligation to insure with the Bank is, however, provided for the following undertakings and occupations: mines and quarries; transport by sea, land, river or air; production and use of gas and electric power; factories and workshops which employ more than five workers and make use of machinery, motors or implements worked by other than human power; sawmills; theatres and public entertainments; and work involving the use of explosive, inflammable, unhealthy or poisonous substances.

The employer is required to supply the injured worker with medical and pharmaceutical care free of charge. In the event of temporary incapacity, the injured worker is entitled to a daily allowance equal to half his wages. If the incapacity persists after a year it is considered permanent. In the event of permanent partial incapacity the worker is entitled for 5 years to a pension calculated on the basis of his annual wages, in accordance with a scale laid down by the Act; in the event of permanent total incapacity he is entitled for 10 years to a pension equivalent to two-thirds of his annual wage. If the accident is fatal, the surviving relatives are entitled to the following pensions: the widow or disabled widower receives a pension of 20 per cent. of the annual wage of the worker for 10 years; children under 18 receive pensions varying with their number between 15 and 40 per cent. of the annual wage; if the worker supported his mother, she receives a pension of 20 per cent. of his annual wage for 10 years. Other ascendants over 60 or incapable of working who were supported by the deceased person receive pensions equal to 10 per cent. of his annual wage.

By agreement with the parties, the High Court of Arbitration may commute a pension for a lump sum if this is found to be in the interest of the worker or his heirs; a pension granted for permanent partial incapacity and not amounting to 20 per cent. of the worker's annual wage may be so commuted at his request without reference to the Court. The coefficient of commutation is fixed by the Decree and varies with the applicant's age.

Every accident must be reported by the employer within 24 hours to the local authority, which then carries out the necessary investigation. In the absence of an agreement between the worker or his heirs and the employer, the same authority fixes the amount of compensation on the basis of a medical certificate. Either party may appeal to the High Court of Arbitration against such decision. The defence of the interests of the worker and his heirs before the local authority and the Court devolves, where there is no other representative, on the local Treasury officials, and in the case of minors on the provincial committee of the National Child Welfare Institute.

Cuba. — The Act relating to compensation for industrial accidents (amending the 1916 Act) was promulgated on 15 November 1933 and came into effect in 1934. It extends the scope of the compensation scheme to persons employed in commerce and to under-

takings employing less than five workers. The injured person is now entitled to compensation irrespective of his wages and of the length of his engagement. As to benefits, the basic wage for their calculation is now the worker's actual earnings, the limit prescribed in the former Act being abolished. Compensation is payable from the day of the accident, whereas the former Act provided for a waiting period of a fortnight. Among other changes in regard to benefits, mention may be made of the right to such orthopaedic appliances, artificial limbs, etc., as are found to be necessary, and of the increase in ascendants' pensions from 10 to 20 per cent. of the deceased person's wages.

A strike of doctors, complete in Havana and partial in the rest of the country, occurred in the beginning of 1934 as a result of a dispute between the medical profession and the mutual aid funds. Sickness insurance is very popular in Havana, some 40 per cent. of the population being so insured; moreover, the economic depression has induced a steadily growing proportion to rely on free medical assistance, this proportion being now equal to a further 40 per cent. Voluntary insurance benefit and free medical assistance both consist chiefly in hospital treatment; and the conditions under which doctors are employed by the one and the other scheme therefore have a pronounced effect on the position of the whole medical faculty—an effect which has grown even greater in recent years, following the fall in the national income and the increase in the number of doctors (in Havana there is one doctor to about every 450 persons).

A grave conflict thus arose between the doctors and the funds; and the Government, desiring to adjust it and to improve the very hard lot of the medical profession, requested the International Labour Office to examine the problem on the spot and to suggest a solution. The following was the gist of the report submitted to the Government after this examination had taken place: medical degree courses should be reorganised so that the number of students qualifying at the end of each year might correspond with the needs of the country; free medical assistance should be extended, particularly in the rural districts; the degree of relationship entitling a person to survivors' benefit from the mutual aid funds should be more sharply defined; a compulsory maternity insurance scheme should be established; and the introduction of compulsory sickness insurance should be prepared by means of collaboration between mutual aid funds, doctors, employers and employed persons.

One of these suggestions was immediately put into execution: a compulsory maternity insurance scheme, in full conformity with the Convention concerning the protection of women before and after childbirth, was introduced by Decree No. 1568 of 16 June 1934. Moreover a Bill, also corresponding to the report's proposals and relating to the organisation of mutual aid societies, is now before the Council of State.

Czechoslovakia. — The substantial structure of social insurance has defied the years, and the alterations made in 1934 to face the

needs which the continuance of the depression revealed have increased its value. These alterations—which are summarised below—concern both the general social insurance scheme and salaried employees' pension insurance, and came into force on 1 July 1934.

The general scheme includes sickness, maternity, invalidity, old-age and widows' and orphans' insurance for industrial, commercial and agricultural workers, home workers and domestic servants. The financial organisation of sickness and maternity insurance is based on the distribution of costs, while that of the Central Social Insurance Institution, which administers invalidity, old-age and widows' and orphans' insurance, is based on accumulation with a general average contribution.

Owing to the fall in membership and in wages, most of the sickness and maternity institutions have had grave difficulty in balancing their budgets in recent years. The normal sickness and maternity contribution rate, which was limited by law to not more than 4.8 per cent. of the basic wage, has been found insufficient; and in order to pay the statutory benefits many of the institutions have applied for and obtained from the supervisory authorities permission to increase contributions above the prescribed figure. For all the sickness and maternity institutions taken together, the weighted average contribution was thus as high as 5.59 per cent. at the beginning of 1934. In order that further increases might be avoided and contribution rates stabilised, a reduction in expenditure had to be faced. This was confined to cash benefit, while medical and pharmaceutical benefit—which is allowed for a full year to insured persons and their families, no payment being required of the patient—was left untouched. The waiting period during which an insured person who is sick and incapable of working has no right to benefit was increased from 2 days to 3, so that the cash allowance is now payable from the fourth day of incapacity onwards. This allowance used to be equal to two-thirds of the basic wage in all institutions; now, though still nominally two-thirds of the basic wage, it is equal to a half only in certain institutions and for certain periods—during the first 15 days of incapacity in institutions in which contributions exceed 5 per cent. of basic wages, and during the first 90 days in institutions in which contributions exceed 5.5 per cent.

Unlike the sickness funds, where forced economies have been necessary, the Central Social Insurance Institution is in a favourable position, and it was therefore possible to introduce a number of substantial improvements in invalidity, old-age and widows' and orphans' pensions without additional expense to insured persons and their employers. The additional benefit is paid out of the reserves accumulated by the Institution over and above those needed to cover acquired rights and rights in course of acquisition.

Insured persons and pensioners who were born before 1 January 1899 and were therefore over 27 years of age when the scheme

came into force in 1926, as well as the widows, orphans, etc., of such persons, may now receive pension supplements. Such a supplement is equal to one-third of the average annual increment to which the insured person would have been entitled if he had been insured from the age of 27 until the scheme came into force, and varies with the pensioner's age from 20 to 60 per cent. of the pension payable on the basis of contributions actually paid. The total number of insured persons and pensioners who can claim such a supplement is about 1,200,000. The pensionable age under the general scheme remains 65 years, but widows now qualify at not later than 60.

Among other alterations in the general scheme are those concerning the rights of persons who cease to be compulsorily insured. Before the reform, such rights were automatically maintained for not more than 18 months; on expiry of this period the insurance lapsed unless the person concerned continued to insure or paid a small retaining fee. The rights resulting from contributions are now maintained for a period equal to one-quarter of that for which contributions have been paid, and at least for 2 years, this minimum being allowed to persons who have paid less than 96 monthly contributions. Special provision is made for unemployed insured persons; their rights in course of acquisition are maintained for 5 years. As against these various advantages, the privilege hitherto enjoyed by insured persons of securing their rights by a retaining fee has been abolished.

The changes in the general scheme relating to the maintenance of rights in course of acquisition apply also to the salaried employees' scheme. This, too, was reformed and provided with a new form of benefit, the " social pension ", which is a bold and effective effort to face the problem of the person who loses his employment when approaching old age.

This new feature is as follows. Hitherto the scheme provided for two sorts of old-age pension : one, the unconditional pension, was payable after a qualifying period of 60 contribution-months to insured men of 65 years and insured women of 60 ; the other, the conditional pension, was payable after a qualifying period of 480 contribution-months to insured men of 60 and insured women of 55 on condition that they had no insurable employment. Now all old-age pensions are conditional, that is, payable only if the person concerned has no insurable employment. An insured person who has reached the pensionable age is now free to keep his employment as long as he can, but may not combine earnings and a pension, the latter becoming payable only when insurable employment ceases.

The saving which results from the transformation of these unconditional pensions into conditional pensions are devoted to the payment of the " social pension ". This is payable to insured persons who have not reached the pensionable age but have lost their employment when approaching old age and, though still theoretically capable of work, cannot earn a livelihood. Such

pensions will be granted, after a qualifying period of 120 contribution-months, to insured men of 56 and insured women of 54 who have been unemployed for at least a year, if incapable of earning a livelihood at home or abroad by means of salaried or other work.

Apart from these large-scale changes, the position improved in a number of respects in 1934. The average membership of all sickness funds together, for instance, though remaining practically unchanged between June 1933 and June 1934 (2,035,000 and 2,030,000 respectively), showed a pronounced rise at the beginning of the winter over the corresponding figures for the preceding year (1,944,000 in November 1934 against 1,926,000 in November 1933). A less pleasing feature is the fall in the wages of insured persons, as shown by the percentage classified in the higher wage groups, Nos. 6-10 inclusive; this was 28.19 in July 1933, 27.60 in November 1933, 26.61 in July 1934, and 26.12 in November 1934.

Denmark. — Three Acts involving a fundamental reform of Danish social services were adopted on 20 May 1933 and came into force on 1 October 1933. They concerned respectively compensation for industrial accidents, general insurance (including sickness insurance, invalidity insurance, and non-contributory old-age pensions), and social assistance.

The new scheme, though it does not introduce compulsory sickness insurance, requires every Danish national between the ages of 21 and 60 years either to join a recognised sickness fund (as a "full" member) or to qualify for full membership by joining a sickness society or a continuation fund (as a "contributing" member). Both full and contributing members are compulsorily insured against invalidity. Further, the fact that under the new scheme non-contributory old-age pensions may be granted only to full members of sickness funds is a powerful inducement to insure as a full member. Thus, despite the great spread of voluntary sickness insurance before the reform of the social services was introduced, the new scheme has caused a very considerable further increase in the membership of the sickness funds. Indeed, the competent authorities estimate that between 1 January and 1 October 1934 the number of full members increased from 1,843,000 to 2,170,000, and of contributing members from 30,000 to 180,000.

Estonia. — The only notable event of 1934 was the extension of the Workmen's Compensation Act to cover seamen. Under a Legislative Decree of 7 December 1934, seamen are (since the beginning of 1935) insured with the same institution as industrial workers and entitled in case of accident to the same benefits as other insured persons: these are a daily allowance equal to two-thirds of wages from the day following the accident onwards, medical treatment, a pension in case of permanent incapacity, equal to not more than two-thirds of wages (or wages in full if the insured person's state of health necessitates the attendance of another person), and pensions and the payment of funeral expenses to the

relatives of fatally injured persons. Benefit is provided by the master of the vessel on behalf of the insurance institution while the seaman is on board ship or abroad.

Finland. — A Bill introduced in Parliament at the end of 1933 and voted on 13 November 1934 introduces a number of amendments in the Act of 17 July 1925 relating to compulsory accident insurance for employed persons. The new scheme will come into force on 1 January 1936. One of its principal features is that small employers—those who are taxed on property of a value not exceeding 40,000 marks and an income not exceeding 6,000 marks, and do not employ more than three workers—are not liable to insurance. If an accident occurs to a person working on behalf of such an employer, the State will pay the compensation laid down in the general provisions of the Act, and the employer will be required to refund only the first 100 marks of this amount. Under another section of the Act, the State assumes liability for the payment of benefits due to injured workers whose employers are liable to insurance but have neglected to insure; in such a case the employer is required to refund the compensation paid, up to a maximum of 2,000 marks, and is liable to a fine not exceeding four times the contributions due from him for the last four years. Lastly, in order to relieve the insurance institutions of minor cases, the new Act makes the employer personally responsible for the payment of cash benefit not exceeding 200 marks per accident. The Government Bill had placed this maximum at 400 marks, but Parliament, at the suggestion of its Social Insurance Committee, reduced it to 200 marks.

An Act passed by Parliament at the same period, and also due to come into force on 1 January 1936, places the right to compensation for a number of occupational dieseases on a new statutory basis.

As yet, Finland has no general scheme for insurance against sickness, invalidity and old age; there is, however, reason to believe that this omission will be made good in the near future, for a Government committee, which had been instructed to examine the possibility of introducing new branches of social insurance, reported to the Cabinet in November 1934 and indicated the principles on which a sickness insurance scheme might be based. The committee found against the introduction of a purely voluntary scheme, but considered that it was impossible to make all groups of employed persons compulsorily insurable. For various reasons, such as insufficient communications and the lack of doctors and hospitals in certain districts, agricultural workers would have to be excepted from a compulsory scheme. Therefore, in order to give all employed persons the chance to benefit by sickness insurance, the committee recommended the combination of a limited compulsory scheme with voluntary insurance open to workers not falling within the compulsorily insurable groups. Such a scheme would not pay maternity benefits; these, if regarded as necessary, should be dealt with in a special Act. Cash benefit should be fixed at relatively

low rates and should be provided mainly out of the insured persons' contributions. As regards the financial organisation of the scheme, the committee proposed that the costs should be borne as follows: half by the insured persons, about one-third by their employers, and the remainder by the Government and the local authorities.

Further, in December 1934, the Minister of Social Affairs instructed the same committee to prepare the general framework of an invalidity and old-age insurance scheme. Accordingly the committee submitted early in 1935 a report indicating the principles on which it considered such a scheme should be based, and the approximate cost of its introduction. Invalidity and old-age insurance, the committee stated, should take the form of a national scheme compulsorily applicable to all Finnish nationals whose incomes did not exceed a certain limit (which should vary according to locality). As it believed that contributions could not be fixed high enough for the pensions obtainable from them to meet the principal needs of pensioners, the committee proposed that pensions should be supplemented out of a Government subsidy.

In an interview with a Helsinki daily newspaper in January 1935, the Minister of Social Affairs stated that the Government intended to introduce in Parliament at the beginning of the year a Bill providing for the early introduction of one or more additional branches of social insurance; the Government, he said, desired to carry out its plan by stages and would begin with the branch to which effect could most easily be given.

France. — The general social insurance scheme set up by the Act of 30 April 1930 recently overcame two of the most serious obstacles that it has encountered since its enforcement.

It had originally been provided that to cover the risk of invalidity contributions should be increased on 1 April 1934 from 8 per cent. of the basic wage to 9 per cent. during a transitional period, and 10 per cent. from 1 April 1940 onwards; and the question arose whether the economic depression would permit such an increase, and, if not, whether it would be possible to keep the benefits up to their existing level.

Secondly, a deduction of 400 million francs from the subsidy of 540 million francs paid to the General Guarantee Fund had been contemplated as part of the campaign to reduce State spending and balance the Budget; as this subsidy is used, after workers' and peasants' pensions have been paid out, as cover for the constitution of increments and guaranteed minimum pensions, it appeared as if such a deduction would endanger the Fund's financial equilibrium and the payment of benefits to insured persons.

The two problems which thus arose were solved without in any way compromising the future—immediate or distant—of the insurance scheme. Contributions were not increased, and the Finance Act, while maintaining in full the benefits originally scheduled, postponed the definitive financial reorganisation of invalidity insurance until 1 January 1937. Up to the end of 1936, therefore, these benefits will be paid out of a special fund which had

formerly confined itself to reinsurance operations. Moreover, full payment of the State subsidy is continued, the Government having announced that it did not wish to propose reform until it was sure that, whatever circumstances arose, all its engagements could be met and all the benefits promised could continue to be provided.

Apart from these two events, which are particularly remarkable because they prove the vitality of the scheme and its power of resistance to attempts at limitation arising out of general conditions, mention should also be made of the following: an amendment of the original measure in respect of the penalties to be imposed on employers who, after deducting contributions from the wages of persons employed by them, as required by the Act, fail to pay over these contributions to the proper quarter; an increase in the amounts which social insurance funds are authorised to repay to their members when the latter incur expenses for medical consultations, surgical operations, etc.; confirmation by Decree of the provisions extending invalidity insurance to employment in agriculture; and the reform of the system of investment of the insurance funds' balances.

The increase in the rates of reimbursement for expenditure on medical attendance and surgical operations supplements the provisions of a similar nature issued in 1933, and makes up—in part at least—the difference between the fees usually asked by physicians and surgeons and the rates at which such fees are reimbursed to members by the funds.

The new rules governing investments specify that until 31 December 1940 a large proportion—75 per cent.—of the sums which normally form the reserves of insurance funds must be used to finance a public works programme for counteracting the depression. The amounts thus obtained are to be administered by the Deposit and Trust Fund, under the supervision of a National Committee, which is to draw up a general programme, with a list of the plans to be executed based on the nature and urgency of the need, the potential value and the possibilities of profit in each case.

The works scheduled by this Committee are to be carried out solely by local authorities (departments, communes, associations of communes), railway companies, and public undertakings and bodies treated as such. The duration of the loans is to be for not more than 30 years, except in the case of the larger railway systems, for which it may, in exceptional circumstances, be raised to 50 years. The Deposit and Trust Fund is to receive the agreed interest and redemption payments each year on the dates specified in the contracts, and to place to the credit of each insurance fund the proportion to which it is entitled according to its contribution to the public works fund.

The rate of interest and redemption for these loans is to be fixed periodically by order of the Ministers of Labour and Finance, after they have consulted the National Committee. The rate, which will be tax-free and uniform for all loans irrespective of their amount, the nature of the work and the status of the borrowing

organisation, is to be roughly equal to that obtaining on the money market at the corresponding time. The sums lent by the funds for execution of the public works scheme will amount to some 1,500 million francs a year, so that by 31 December 1940 the social insurance institutions will have contributed about 10,000 million francs in all.

Although the fears that the policy of retrenchment of State expenditure would upset the general social insurance scheme proved groundless, this policy had serious effects on railwaymen's pension insurance. The financial equilibrium of the pension fund maintained by each railway system will henceforward be secured by annual assessment, and no longer by collective accumulation. As the proportion of insured persons' wages which is withheld remains at the same level as hitherto, the sums which originally constituted capital will no longer have to be paid; and the subsidies made by the railway systems to their funds will thus be confined to the difference between the funds' actual expenses and the income obtained from insured persons' contributions. The result—temporary only, it must be admitted—will be a large decrease in the cost of pensions, a decrease which cannot in practice have any effect on the position of insured persons, because the payment of pensions benefits by a Treasury guarantee. On the other hand, a cut, originally fixed at 10 per cent., has been made in all pensions now in course of payment or to be granted; this is the feature of the new railwaymen's pension scheme most keenly felt by insured persons, but it should be noted that the cut has already been brought down to 6 per cent. by the Decree of 30 October 1934.

Germany. — The Government had two reasons for feeling the need for a thorough reform of social insurance: first of all, the economic depression had undermined the financial position of the insurance institutions; and secondly, the social structure of the country had been revolutionised, particularly by the dissolution of the employers' and workers' associations. Accordingly, the reform undertaken had a double object: financial reconstruction and administrative reorganisation.

The first of these aims was largely achieved by the Act of 7 December 1933 relating to the reform of invalidity, old-age, and widows' and orphans' insurance. As this was summarised in the *Year-Book* for 1933[1], it will be sufficient to mention here that it abandoned the assessment system which had hitherto been used and introduced collective accumulation with a general average contribution. Pensions in course of payment on 31 December 1933 were not reduced, but those awarded subsequently are composed according to new rules which bring about a diminution of average benefit rates. The increase in contributions necessitated by the return to accumulation, an increase which was to be introduced when circumstances permitted a corresponding reduction in

[1] Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1933*, pp. 180 *et seq.*

unemployment insurance contributions, has not yet been put into force.

Sickness insurance and accident insurance benefits were in no way reduced during 1934. On the contrary, a number of sickness funds were able to resume payment of the supplementary benefits which they had formerly allowed but had discontinued in 1932.

The economic recovery which occurred in 1934 had a favourable effect on the numbers of insured persons; in sickness insurance, this number rose from 18,500,000 in 1933 to 20,300,000, an increase of 10 per cent., which has already eased the position of the institutions concerned.

Under the *accident insurance* scheme the increase in the number of insured persons and in the total wages insured led to a small reduction in the individual contribution to be paid by employers, although the number of accidents compensated rose owing to the increase in employment. The total expenditure of the accident scheme in 1934 is estimated at 315 million RM., as against 307 million RM. in 1933.

Under the *sickness insurance* scheme, the ratio of insured persons affected by incapacity to all insured persons fell off sharply in 1934. Income and expenditure in that year were roughly 1,000 million RM., or about the same as in 1933.

The *workers' invalidity, old-age and survivors' insurance* scheme registered a rise in contributions from 680 million RM. in 1933 to 840 million RM., due to economic revival. The total income, estimated at 951 million RM. as against 745 million RM. in the preceding year, included for the first time the payments made by the unemployment insurance institutions, under the Act of 7 December 1933, in order to maintain the rights of unemployed insured persons. The total expenditure on pensions was 679 million RM. (690 million RM. in 1933), besides the Government subsidy added to each pension in course of payment. The assets of all the insurance institutions together rose between 31 December 1933 and 31 October 1934 from 1,193 million RM. to 1,375 million RM., that is, by 15 per cent. Admittedly the actuarial deficit of the scheme is still large, but the improvement made in 1934 is a first step on the way pointed by the Act of 7 December 1933, which will come into full effect only when the increase in contributions has been applied.

The *invalidity, old-age and survivors' insurance scheme for salaried employees*, which is not of such long standing as that applying to workers, and suffered less from loss of covering capital through inflation, had a total income of 478 million RM. (413 million RM. in 1933), 310 million RM. of which were contributions (288 million RM. in 1933). As expenditure totalled 308 million RM. (240 million RM. in 1933), the total assets increased by 170 million RM., as against 173 million RM. in 1933. But here, too, actuarial equilibrium is far from achieved.

The position of the *miners' pension* scheme continued in 1934 to be fraught with difficulty, largely due to the far-reaching rationalisa-

tion of the mines. The discrepancy between income (117 million RM.) and expenditure (203.3 million RM.) is still very large, and the Government continued to pay this scheme the subsidy of 95 million RM. a year.

The above information shows that the steps taken in recent years have consolidated the financial position of the insurance institutions, which have gradually escaped from the clutches of the depression. This success achieved, the Government passed to the administrative reorganisation of insurance; the principal provisions of the Act to that effect, dated 5 July 1934, are given below.

As regards sickness insurance the different types of sickness funds (local funds, rural funds, works funds and guild funds) remain unchanged. The substitute funds (private mutual aid societies) also continue to exist, but they are now under the supervision of the social insurance authorities. In view of the disadvantages arising out of the fact that rates of contribution and cash benefits, being fixed according to the individual position of each fund, may vary widely, the new Act provides for the establishment of an equalisation fund. This fund pays supplements to any sickness fund which is in financial difficulties as compared with the general position of the funds, provided that these difficulties are not the result of its own action.

The sickness funds continue to grant sickness and maternity benefits on their own responsibility. The Act also confers on them the new function of serving as local agencies for workers' and salaried employees' insurance against invalidity, old age and death.

Further, the Act provides—and this is its most important feature —that the workers' invalidity, old-age and survivors' insurance institutions shall be responsible for some of the duties at present undertaken by the sickness funds. These duties are enumerated as follows in a Decree dated 18 December 1934:

(a) *Administration of curative establishments.* — The hospitals, sanatoria, convalescent homes, etc., which the sickness funds have established in the area of any local invalidity, old-age and survivors' insurance institution will henceforth be uniformly administered by this institution.

(b) *Prevention of disease.* — Hitherto the sickness funds have had two duties in this field: to provide for preventive treatment for insured persons whose health is in danger (individual prevention), and to support the measures taken by the public health services to combat social diseases (general prevention). Both these functions will henceforward be performed by the invalidity, old-age and survivors' insurance institutions on behalf of all the sickness funds in its area.

(c) *Doctors acting for funds.* — The functions and conditions of service of the doctors acting for the sickness funds will be governed by the invalidity, old-age and survivors' insurance institution.

(d) *Sickness funds' reserves.* — Each fund has hitherto been required to keep a reserve for use in exceptional circumstances. The Decree places the administration of these reserves in the hands of the invalidity, old-age and survivors' insurance institution, each fund being credited with the sums it has actually paid into its own reserve.

(e) *Equalisation fund.* — The equalisation fund which is to be set up will also be administered by the invalidity, old-age and survivors' insurance institutions for all the sickness funds in their areas.

(f) *Auditing.* — This duty, which has hitherto been performed by the federations voluntarily formed by the funds, will also fall to the invalidity old-age and survivors' insurance institutions.

Lastly, the administration of all social insurance institutions has undergone a fundamental change through the introduction of the leadership principle. Every insurance institution is placed under the control of a head, who has all the powers hitherto exercised by the bodies established under the system of self-government. The place of these bodies is taken by an advisory board, composed of insured persons and employers in equal numbers, together with a doctor and a representative of the province, town or other local authority concerned; the two latter, however, are omitted from the boards of works funds. The different classes of sickness funds must be represented on the boards of the workers' invalidity, old-age and survivors' insurance institutions. The insured persons' and employers' members of the board are appointed by the supervising authority, which must reach a previous agreement, either with the Labour Front or, in the case of rural funds and rural accident insurance associations, with the local peasants' leader. The medical member is appointed by the local doctors' leader.

The authority empowered to appoint the head of each institution is named by the Act itself and varies with the character of the institution: among the authorities thus named are the Federal President, Federal Ministers, State and provincial governments, etc. The heads of the local sickness funds will be appointed by the head of the workers' invalidity, old-age and survivors' insurance institution covering the locality of the fund concerned. The heads of the guild funds will be appointed by the guilds themselves, while works funds will be administered by the head of the undertaking or his representative. Except for these two latter types of fund and the accident insurance associations, the head of each institution must be a permanent public official.

Administrative reorganisation can be carried out only by stages and seems likely to be completed before the end of 1935.

Great Britain. — An important Act making accident insurance compulsory for the coal-mining industry was passed in 1934, but no changes were made in the health and pension insurance schemes, the financial situation of which is improving.

It may be recalled that employers in general are not compelled to insure against their liability under the Workmen's Compensation Acts. Until recent years it was believed that most employers did in practice insure or at least that the number of workers who lost their compensation through their employer's bankruptcy was negligible. It is true that insurance in respect of silicosis has long been compulsory for employers in certain industries in which that disease occurs, but the reason for compulsion here was that only by establishing a common fund was it practicable to distribute the liability for compensation among the undertakings by which the diseased worker had been successively employed.

The reason for introducing compulsory insurance in the coal-mining industry is, however, to put a stop to the loss of compensation through the inability of uninsured collieries to pay it. Since the beginning of 1927 some 2,000 coalminers have lost £200,000 in this way. The Government and the employers' organisation had endeavoured to persuade all coalowners to take measures to secure the payment of compensation, but it appears that at the beginning of 1934 about 20 per cent. of the miners were still employed in uninsured undertakings. A private Member then introduced a Bill in Parliament, with the approval and co-operation of the Government and the employers' organisation, for the purpose of compelling every coalowner to insure against his liability.

The Bill, which commanded universal support, was passed. The new Act, which came into force on 1 January 1935, makes it illegal to carry on coal-mining unless the employer has made provision for discharging his liability to pay compensation in one or other of two ways: by insuring with a company or employers' mutual indemnity association, or else by maintaining a fund, under the administration of a trustee, of such an amount as is actuarially estimated each year to be sufficient to meet the probable liability of the undertaking. Where the former alternative is adopted, the employer is allowed to carry his own risk in respect of incapacity lasting not more than 26 weeks. Where a trust fund is established, the risk of multiple deaths must be reinsured.

The gradual rise in the number of persons in employment is reflected in the increase in the sale of stamps for health and pension insurance: during the first ten months of 1934 their sales were greater by £1,600,000 than during the corresponding part of 1933, and indicated some 20,000,000 more weeks of employment. Even so, there are millions of workers who are not entitled to health insurance benefits at the full rates because they have not paid up their arrears of contributions in respect of periods of unemployment. Regulations have been made adjourning the latest date at which arrears may be paid in order to avoid reduction of benefits and enabling them to be paid in instalments. The Government has also encouraged approved societies to use their surplus funds in order to cancel wholly or partly the arrears of their unemployed members (in 1934, 3,160 societies with 6,000,000 members were granting this form of additional benefit at an annual cost of £343,000) and it hopes that the employment situation will soon have improved sufficiently to permit the restoration of the provisions for the entire cancellation of arrears which operated from 1928 to 1932.

Greece. — The Social Insurance Act promulgated in October 1932 appeared inapplicable to the Government in power in 1934, and was replaced by a new Act. This, though largely based on the 1932 measure, differed on several important points; it was promulgated on 10 October 1934, and covers the risks of sickness, maternity, accidents, invalidity, old age and death.

The obligation to insure extends to anyone engaged for payment in work on account of another person, but certain groups of workers —among others, domestic servants, agricultural workers not employed in the neighbourhood of towns, and casual workers— are excluded.

Sickness benefit is allowed when an insured person or pensioner or any member of his family suffers from sickness, and to an insured woman or pensioner or the wife or daughter of an insured person or pensioner in the event of childbirth. So far as insured persons and members of their families are concerned, the risk is covered only if at least fifty days have been worked in the course of the twelve months preceding the event insured against.

Provision is made for benefits in cash and in kind. Benefits in kind include medical attendance, the necessary medicines, and treatment by the ordinary therapeutic methods; they are due as long as the state of the patient requires. In the event of childbirth, a woman is entitled to the assistance of a midwife and, if necessary, to medical treatment; this form of benefit may, however, be replaced by a lump sum.

The form of treatment is prescribed, and the treatment itself organised, by the Greek Medical Association. The Act requires the insurance institution to conclude an agreement with the Greek Pharmacists' Association for the provision of medicines and other requirements.

Cash sickness benefit is payable from the sixth day onwards for not more than 180 days to insured persons whose sickness renders them incapable of work. It amounts to two-fifths of the basic wage in each of the eight wage classes. When sickness is the result of an industrial accident, benefit is increased by 50 per cent. and may be paid for 750 days.

In case of maternity, insured women are entitled to an allowance equivalent to one-third of their daily wage for every day during which they abstain from work in the six weeks before and the six weeks after childbirth. On the expiry of this period the allowance continues for sixty days as a nursing allowance.

On the death of an insured person or pensioner, his surviving dependants receive a fixed sum of 1,250 drachmas as funeral benefit.

Provision is also made for invalidity, old-age and survivors' pensions. No insured person is regarded as having qualified for a pension unless he has done at least 750 days' work, 300 of which must have been in the last three years.

An invalid is defined as an insured person who, in consequence of sickness, injury or physical or mental disability, is incapable for more than six months of earning, by means of work corresponding to his strength, capacity, training and normal occupation, more than one-third of the wage which a person mentally and bodily fit and having the same training normally earns in the same district and occupational class.

The invalidity pension consists of a fixed part, amounting to

3,000 drachmas a year, and a variable part proportionate to the number and amount of the contributions paid on account of the insured person.

The old-age pension is payable to every insured person who has reached the age of 65 (men) or 60 (women), provided he (she) does not earn by his (her) own labour more than half the wage ordinarily earned in the same district by a person mentally and bodily fit and belonging to the same occupational class.

The widow of an insured person or pensioner is entitled to a pension equal to 40 per cent. of that which was or would have been payable to the husband.

The widower of a deceased insured woman who was wholly or mainly dependent on her is only entitled to a pension if he is destitute and incapable of work.

Every child under 16 years of a deceased insured person receives a pension equivalent to 20 per cent. of the deceased person's pension. This is payable up to the age of 21 in the case of children who are continuing their studies and without age limit to those who are totally incapable of work. The pension of every survivor totally unfit for work and that of every child who has lost both parents is doubled.

The Act makes no provision for accident insurance as such, but it lays down that any sickness or injury occurring in the course of employment gives rise to sickness insurance benefit without any condition as to a qualifying period; the same applies to recognised occupational diseases (lead and mercury poisoning, and anthrax). When an industrial accident or occupational disease involves invalidity within the meaning of the Act, the invalid is entitled to invalidity benefit without any condition as to a qualifying period.

The scheme is financed by contributions from the insured persons and their employers. Pensioners contribute to sickness insurance only, 5 per cent. being deducted from each pension for that purpose.

Insured persons in employment are divided into eight wage classes and their contribution rates are determined in accordance with their class. The rate amounts to about 7.7 per cent. of the basic wage in each class, three-fifths being paid by the employer and two-fifths by the insured person. Of the inclusive contribution, a sum equal to 4 per cent. of the basic wage is allotted to sickness insurance, and 3.7 per cent. to invalidity, old-age and survivors' insurance. On 1 January 1940 the latter proportion will be raised to 4.8 per cent.; further increases will be made in 1945, 1948 and 1951, when it will reach a maximum of 8 per cent. of the basic wage.

The Act provides for the establishment in Athens of a Central Insurance Institution, under the authority of the Minister of National Economy; this is to cover the whole body of insured persons. The insurance funds already in existence for workers employed in certain undertakings or trades may, however, continue

their operations, except in certain cases where abolition is provided for. No new occupational or works funds may be established.

The Insurance Institution will be administered by a managing board of 11 members, including 4 representatives of the insured persons and 4 of their employers.

Lastly, the Act provides for the establishment of a Social Insurance Council, under the Minister of National Economy. It will advise on all matters relating to social insurance.

Honduras. — A Bill to institute a compulsory savings scheme was introduced at the beginning of 1934: the scheme would apply to all workers and salaried employees in industrial and commercial undertakings and in banks and similar establishments, excepting those whose daily earnings are under 1 lempira. The proportion of earnings to be paid into the savings fund would as a rule be 10 per cent.; it would all be provided by the worker, the employer being required to stop it from wages. The accumulated savings might be drawn on to provide a livelihood for the worker in the event of old age, invalidity or unemployment; and part might be released in case of sickness or death, or to permit the payment of alimony or similar compulsory allowances.

Hungary. — The National Social Insurance Institution reported that its sickness and maternity branch (general section and domestic service section combined) had in 1933 an average membership of 602,000 (721,000 in 1930), and a contribution total of 35.7 million pengös (59.4 million pengös in 1930). The workers' invalidity, old-age and survivors' insurance branch of the Institution had a contribution total of 12.7 million pengös, as against 20.5 million pengös in 1930.

The budget of the sickness and maternity scheme is balanced, or soon will be, but the operation could be achieved only at the expense of benefits, which, as indicated in the *Year-Book* for 1933[1], were reduced in many respects.

The supervision of incapacity certificates, the issue of which by a doctor entitles the insured person to invalidity benefit, was greatly improved during 1934. Disputes concerning such certificates are now referred to special arbitration boards composed of one or more highly qualified doctors, who may not be chosen from among practitioners authorised to attend insured persons or from among employees of the Insurance Institutions, and of assessors chosen from the industry or occupation concerned. The assessors give their views on the occupational aspects of the case, but the decision in respect of capacity to work lies with the doctor or doctors alone. The doctor treating the case and the insurance fund's doctor may be present at the board's examination, but cannot influence its decision. The board makes its diagnosis known and states whether the insured person is capable of working or not; the insurance institution is bound by its decision.

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[1] Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1933*, p. 186.

Iceland. — The Government has stated its intention to submit to the Althing a proposal for an inclusive compulsory workers' insurance scheme covering the risks of sickness, maternity, invalidity, old age, death and unemployment. The groundwork of the scheme appears to have been supplied by a Bill brought in by a group of Members two years ago: this provided that every Iceland national from 15 to 65 years of age and earning his living by remunerated employment should be compulsorily insured against the above risks unless his income or property exceeded certain limits. In case of sickness, the insured person was to receive a cash allowance, he and his family being further entitled to medical attendance and hospital treatment when necessary. In case of invalidity, i.e. not less than 50 per cent. incapacity for work, insured persons were to receive pensions varying in amount according to their place of residence and family responsibilities; and there was similar provision for old-age pensions for insured persons of 65 years. The cost of the scheme was to be borne as to three-fifths of the annual total by employers, the remainder being shared equally between the State and the local authorities.

Irish Free State. — There was no fresh legislation on social insurance during 1934. The amendment of the Workmen's Compensation Acts and the unification of national health insurance adminstration, both described in the *Year-Book* for 1933[1], became operative in 1934: the former came into force on 1 August, and the latter was completed on 17 December, when the last approved societies were absorbed into the single National Health Insurance Society. This unification is regarded as a preparatory measure with a view to the institution of a comprehensive insurance scheme which will adequately protect the worker and his family against all the social risks.

Italy. — The administrative reform of the accident insurance scheme—described in the *Year-Book* for 1933[2]—was completed under a Royal Decree of 8 February 1934; this specified the 18 funds which are alone competent to administer accident insurance in agriculture.

Sickness insurance for industrial workers, which is put into operation through collective agreements and administered by mutual benefit funds, continues to spread. In 1933 the number of funds increased by 546 and the number of insured persons by 314,000, the figures on 31 December 1933 being 1,974 funds and 1,318,000 members. A Decree dated 6 September 1934 required all such funds to join the National Fascist Federation of Sickness Benefit Funds for Industrial Workers. The objects of the Federation are to determine, with the approval of the Minister of Corporations, the number of funds, the method of establishing them, the districts to be covered by them, and the minimum membership of each;

[1] Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1933*, pp. 187-188.
[2] *Ibid.*, p. 189.

to take measures to secure a balance between the benefits granted by each fund and its financial resources; to draw up rules for the technical and administrative control of the funds; to co-ordinate their services by establishing joint health institutions where occasion arises; and to popularise the principles of mutual aid. The resources of the Federation will consist in contributions from the employers' and workers' associations and the benefit funds.

The commercial employees' sickness insurance scheme, which is administered by a National Fund, has also registered progress. The number of affiliated undertakings increased from 88,700 to 100,000, and that of insured persons from 220,000 to 238,000, during the course of 1933; the total amount received in contributions remained almost unaltered.

Maternity insurance benefit was improved under a Legislative Decree of 22 March 1934, the confinement allowance being raised from 150 to 300 lire. Moreover the conditions attached to payment were amended: hitherto, insured women had been entitled to the allowance only if they were in insurable employment at the time the child was conceived and if they had worked for at least 15 days during the 360 preceding confinement; under the new Decree, they are entitled to benefit if their contributions have been paid during the two years preceding confinement.

As regards tuberculosis insurance, contributions rose by 5 million lire as compared with 1932, the total received by the end of 1933 being 132.2 million lire. The campaign to provide the country with first-class anti-tuberculosis equipment was methodically continued: besides the ten sanatoria maintained throughout 1933, 54 curative establishments were built or in course of construction at the expense of the scheme; while a further striking feature of this campaign was the opening in 1934 of the Benito Mussolini Institution, which will be one of the principal centres for combating tuberculosis.

The invalidity, old-age and survivors' insurance scheme for employed persons continued to be applied on normal lines. The total contributions received in 1933 increased slightly (by 5.4 million lire) over the 1932 figure, and reached a total of 377.9 million lire. The reserve fund of the Fascist National Social Welfare Institute out of which pensions are paid rose by 548.6 million lire, and amounted to about 7,275 million lire at the end of 1933.

Japan. — The year 1934 saw the execution of one essential item in the proposed sickness insurance reform, the main features of which were described in the 1933 *Year-Book*[1]. An Act of 26 March 1932 extended the scheme to all undertakings normally employing five or more workers and falling within one of the following classes: undertakings in which goods are manufactured, worked, sorted, packed, repaired or demolished; undertakings for the extraction

[1] Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1933*, p. 191.

or storing of mineral substances; undertakings for the generation or transmission of electricity; and undertakings for the transport of goods or persons. This amounts to a very considerable widening in scope, for compulsory sickness insurance has hitherto been limited to undertakings covered by the Factory and Mining Acts, that is to say, dangerous or unhealthy undertakings and those ordinarily employing at least 10 workers. Salaried employees whose annual salary exceeds 1,200 yen and temporary workers remain exempt from insurance as in the past.

Further, the National Confederation of Industrial Associations obtained permission to operate from 1 June 1934 onwards a scheme of group life insurance for persons employed in the undertakings affiliated to it. The Japanese Group Life Insurance Company, a non-profit-earning limited liability company, is responsible for the management of insurance, while the National Confederation, which organised the Company, undertakes the investment of capital. Any group consisting of 50 or more persons between the ages of 9½ and 60½ may be insured under the scheme. Policies are concluded for a year for sums varying from 500 to 3,000 yen per person insured. The only risk covered is death.

Among the new measures now being considered by the Bureau of Social Affairs—besides the consolidation of the Workmen's Compensation Acts, which has been under examination for some time—mention should be made of a supplementary sickness insurance scheme. This would apply to farmers, independent urban workers of the poorer class and workers not covered by the general system of sickness insurance, and would be extended gradually over the whole country, district by district, in the course of 20 years, five or six hundred funds being established every year. There would be a Treasury subsidy equivalent to about 10 per cent. of the benefits granted.

Latvia. — As stated in the previous issue of the *Year-Book*[1], a Bill to introduce invalidity, old-age and unemployment insurance for the whole of the population was drafted by the Socialist Party and the National Trade Union Executive in 1933; the cost of the scheme was to be borne by the authorities, employers and owners of real estate. A referendum took place on the subject on 24 and 25 February 1934, but the Bill failed to obtain the necessary number of votes, and the change of political régime which subsequently took place has apparently relegated this whole question to the background.

The new Government, which came into office on 15 May 1934, attached greater importance to the reorganisation of the sickness insurance funds. These bodies have hitherto been administered by general meetings of delegates and by managing committees composed of employers' representatives (four-ninths) and insured persons' representatives (five-ninths). All persons employed in

[1] Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1933*, p. 192.

industry, commerce and domestic service belong to the funds. Despite some increase in membership (165,438 in July 1934 as against 152,849 in July 1933) their financial situation is doubtful; during the first six months of 1934 they made a deficit of over 700,000 lats (total income and expenditure had been estimated at 14.2 million lats), due largely to the increased cost of medical treatment.

On 18 May 1934 the Government suspended the general meetings of the sickness funds and of their Union and installed commissioners to administer these bodies; the managing committees were required to submit their decisions to the commissioners for approval.

Two months later the Government took further action to limit the independence of the sickness funds. An Act dated 17 July 1934 empowered the Minister of Social Welfare, for the duration of the state of emergency, not only to appoint commissioners, but to reduce the membership of managing committees, to require the amalgamation of funds or associations of funds, and to annul all collective agreements concluded by funds or associations, particularly with the medical faculty. The Minister gave effect to the Act by suspending all the collective agreements concluded by fourteen funds with the doctors' organisations.

Lithuania. — The compulsory sickness insurance scheme, which covers some 43,000 persons employed in industry and commerce, was remodelled at the beginning of the year under review. The amendments, which were introduced under an Act dated 23 January 1934, mainly concern qualification for benefit, sources of revenue, and the composition of the administrative organs. Whereas the 1926 Act did not stipulate a qualifying period for the payment of benefit in cash or in kind, the new regulations make the duration of benefit dependent on the time spent under the scheme: persons who have been insured for six months are entitled to benefit for 26 weeks; but if the membership period is shorter, so is the duration of benefit.

Under the new Act contributions are equally divided between insured persons and their employers, whereas formerly insured persons paid three-fifths and their employers two-fifths.

On the other hand, the insured persons lose the majority they previously held on the administrative organs of the sickness funds (two-thirds of the delegates represented insured persons and one-third their employers); the new Act provides for equal representation and states that a representative of the Government shall sit on each managing committee. At the end of the year elections to the general meetings took place, and the organs of the funds—including those suspended in 1933—were constituted afresh.

Luxemburg. — The Decree of 14 April 1934 restricting the employment of pensioners may be taken as indicating the general tendency. The employment—by the State, local authorities, public bodies, public utility undertakings, railways or private

employers—of persons in receipt of old-age pensions or annuities and persons who have received lump sums in commutation of annuities is subject to special authorisation by the Director-General of Labour and Social Welfare; the same applies to the employment of women in offices and the continuance in employment of women salaried employees on marriage. An exception is made, however, in the case of persons receiving pensions of less than 8,000 francs a year.

New provisions concerning voluntary old-age and invalidity insurance and the right to continue to insure under this scheme on a voluntary basis were enacted by a Decree of 28 May 1934. As regards voluntary insurance, the income limit was raised from 10,000 to 15,000 francs (minimum 3.000 francs), and the qualifying period reduced from 2,700 to 2,400 days of contribution. The whole contribution must be paid by the insured person, except in the case of domestic servants and agricultural and forestry workers, for whom the employer pays half. As regards continued insurance, which is open to all persons who have been compulsorily or voluntarily insured, a preliminary period of 675 days under compulsory or voluntary insurance is no longer required. Contributions are calculated on income prior to the cessation of compulsory or voluntary insurance, except in the case of domestic servants and agricultural and forestry workers, for whom present wages are now taken as a basis of calculation. The qualifying period is as under voluntary insurance, whereas previously, in the case of continued invalidity insurance, it was the same as under the corresponding compulsory scheme. For invalidity pensions, however, days spent in compulsorily insurable employment count double.

A Decree dated 23 December 1933 increased railwaymen's pensions by repealing the provision that the first 720 francs of the insured person's monthly salary shall not be taken into account for pension purposes.

Mexico. — The introduction of a social insurance scheme, covering the principal risks to which employed persons are exposed, is under consideration. Opinion on the subject took definite shape in the decisions of the First Mexican Congress on Labour Law, held in August 1934, which was attended by 100 delegates representing the Government, employers, workers and technical experts. The Congress approved the findings of its Social Insurance Committee and resolved that the introduction of social insurance was absolutely necessary and was consistent with the stage of economic and social development which Mexico had then reached.

The principles adopted by the Congress coincide almost exactly with those of a committee set up at the Secretariat of Labour in March 1934 with a view to drafting a Social Insurance Bill. In fact the Congress disagreed with the committee in a single respect only: while the latter recommended that insurance against industrial accidents should be brought into a general social insurance scheme, the former considered it more advisable to retain the

separate accident compensation scheme set up under the Labour Code of 18 August 1931.

The Congress on Labour Law stated that social insurance should cover all the risks at present regarded as of a social nature, namely sickness, maternity, invalidity, old age and unemployment; it should apply to all manual workers and salaried employees in industry and commerce; it should be brought into operation, not at a stroke, but by occupation groups; and it should be compulsory, although independent workers, handicraftsmen and professional men might join on a voluntary basis if their incomes did not exceed a certain limit. Insurance against the different risks, the Congress considered, should be operated by a single institution, which should be self-governing, should not aim at profit and should be administered jointly by representatives of the Government, the employers and the workers. Funds should be obtained from Government subsidies and from contributions by employers and workers; but the members of trade unions with which employers had agreed to pay the workers' share as well as their own should not be liable to contribute. A single contribution should cover insurance against all the risks, and this should be fixed on the basis of actuarial calculations. Benefits should include cash allowances (a daily rate for temporary incapacity, pensions for invalidity and old age, survivors' pensions and lump sums for funeral expenses) and benefits in kind (pharmaceutical and medical assistance, including surgical treatment, therapeutic and orthopædic appliances, hospital treatment, and vocational rehabilitation). Cash benefits should be determined in accordance with earnings in insured employment, but ought not to exceed a certain maximum. Members of insured persons' families should be entitled to benefits in kind. On the death of an insured person, the surviving relatives should receive pensions or allowances but no other form of benefit.

Taking these principles as a basis, the competent Committee of the Secretariat of Labour started early in 1935 to draft a Social Insurance Bill.

Netherlands. — A Bill to amend the Compulsory Sickness Insurance Act passed the Second Chamber of the States General on 7 November 1934 and the First Chamber on 28 December; it had been before the Second Chamber since 1933.

Besides permitting extension of the compulsory scheme, by Decree, to persons engaged in housework otherwise than in families (the domestic staff of hospitals, for instance), the new Act amends the provisions governing the reserves which occupational insurance funds must accumulate. Hitherto these funds have been required to pay into their reserves at least 5 per cent. of the sums received as contributions; henceforth each fund will be required to transfer a sum equal to at least 5 per cent. of that spent on benefit so long as the reserve is below half the average annual expenditure on benefit during the last three financial years.

The provisions which concern the waiting period are now less strict. Hitherto the first day of sickness has counted as one of the

four days during which benefit is not payable only if the insured person was prevented from working during at least half his hours of work; henceforward it will be counted if he is prevented from starting the day's work or is unable to finish it. With the consent of the Minister of Social Affairs, sickness funds may dispense with or reduce the waiting periods permitted by law.

As regards old-age pensions, the Government introduced into the Second Chamber on 18 October 1934 a Bill concerning the State subsidy to the fund from which, *inter alia*, non-contributory pensions are paid. This is administered separately from the " Invalidity Fund " (for contributory invalidity, old-age and survivors' insurance); under the Act of 30 July 1926 it should have received from the State a subsidy of 26,600,000 gulden for 1935 and 31,600,000 a year for each of the 30 subsequent years. The Bill proposes to reduce each of these annual payments by 4,000,000 gulden, the fund being compensated by their continuation until 1975—that is to say, for 40 years. The subsidy would thus be reduced to 22,600,000 gulden for 1935 and 27,600,000 for each subsequent year. The non-contributory pension fund, which had not during the first years of its existence the resources required to pay the pensions for which it was responsible, has had to borrow large sums from the Invalidity Fund at 5 per cent.; in view of the reduction in the annual State subsidy, this interest rate might make it difficult for the non-contributory fund to balance its budget, and the Government therefore intends to convert the 5 per cent. loan into one at 4 per cent.

New Zealand. — The country has an extensive and apparently efficient system of social services. Non-contributory old-age, widows', miners' (pneumoconiosis) and blind persons' pensions are granted to persons with small means, and family and maternity allowances are also provided for.

In the field of non-contributory old-age pensions, the only change to be reported for 1934 is the 5 per cent. increase effected by the Finance Act of 28 September 1934, and retrospectively operative from 1 April of the same year. The cut in the pension rate made under the Act of 10 May 1932, when the maximum was reduced from £45 10s. to £40 19s., is thus partly restored, the new rate being £43. Further, the maximum income which does not affect the pension rate is raised from £39 to £41, the figure having been £52 until 1932; and the joint pensions and income of husband and wife may not exceed £127, as compared with £121 prior to the amendment.

On 31 March 1934 the number of non-contributory pensions in course of payment was as follows: old-age 37,507, widows' 4,619, miners' 736, and blind persons' 438, while 12,145 family allowances were payable. The average pension per year was: old age £37 8s. 4d., widows' £65 5s. 0d., miners' £76 6s. 9d., and blind persons' £46 11s. 5d. Total payments in 1933-1934 amounted to: old-age pensions £1,350,982, widows' £302,020, miners' £56,810, blind persons' £19,306, and family allowances £146,766.

A Bill to provide for invalidity pensions was introduced in October 1933. A pension of £52 was proposed as a maximum for every person permanently incapacitated, with the addition of £52 for the wife and £26 for every child. At the second reading in August 1934 the Bill was ruled out of order as involving an appropriation.

The National Provident Fund provides for State-subsidised voluntary insurance against old age, death, and protracted sickness, and grants maternity allowances out of public funds. The National Provident Fund Act was amended in December 1933 by a repeal of the provision introduced in 1931 that administrative expenses, which are paid out of the public purse, shall be repaid to the Consolidated Fund from time to time. Moreover, the State subsidy to the National Provident Fund was again raised from one-fifth to one-fourth of the total contributions paid into the Fund. These provisions were to take effect on 1 April 1935.

Suggestions for the organisation of a national health insurance service were made on various occasions, especially by Labour candidates; one concerned compulsory sickness insurance for all men and women employed in industry and agriculture, over the age of 16, and receiving wages of not more than £250 a year.

Legislation on workmen's compensation in New Zealand is on the same lines as in Great Britain. The employer alone is liable for the payment of compensation. Claims not settled by agreement must be brought before a magistrate's court, or, in more important cases, before the Court of Arbitration. In 1933 a Bill was submitted by the Leader of the Opposition, providing for an alteration in the methods of computing compensation in order to meet the position of persons on relief work and those in intermittent employment; the average weekly pay was to be deemed not less than a full week's earnings at the daily rate received by the worker from the undertaking in which he was injured. This Bill was taken up again in 1934 by a Labour Member, whereupon the Minister of Public Works announced that comprehensive amendments would shortly be introduced by the Government. The amending Bill was then ruled out of order and referred to the Labour Bills Committee, which recommended that it should not be allowed to proceed in view of the Government's intentions.

On 22 December 1933 Parliament passed a Finance Act clause limiting liability for accidents due to earthquakes.

Norway. — No change was made in social insurance legislation during 1934, but the Ministry of Social Affairs prepared a Bill to extend compulsory sickness insurance to fishermen working on their own account, and this will be introduced in the Storting at the beginning of 1935. The consequent widening of the scope of the scheme will increase the number of persons to which it applies by some 90,000, to which members of insured persons' families must be added; the additional cost is estimated at about 3,500,000 kroner.

Further, the Minister of Social Affairs intends to study the question of an invalidity insurance scheme. This was decided largely as a result of a proposal from the President of the National Federation of Sickness Funds; speaking at a recent meeting of the Norwegian Association for Social Welfare, the President expounded a plan in accordance with which invalidity insurance would be grafted on to the existing sickness insurance scheme and made compulsory for all members of sickness funds. In view of the financial position of the State and local authorities, this plan was conceived on a small scale, but if enforced it would bring about half the population under invalidity insurance.

Palestine. — The most recent information published by the sickness fund of the General Federation of Jewish Workers *(Kupat Cholim)* shows the steady development of this body, the only social insurance institution in Palestine; it covers over 30,000 persons, about half of whom are agricultural workers.

Although the subsidy from the Zionist Organisation—which accounted for over a quarter of all receipts in 1928—came to an end in 1933, the Fund succeeded in raising its income from £48,000 in 1928 to over £72,000 in 1933, while the proportion provided by insured persons' contributions increased from 54.1 to 84.9 per cent. The remainder was obtained from voluntary contributions by employers and small grants from a number of village councils.

Expenditure has followed a similar course; it totalled £72,000 in 1933 as against £45,700 in 1928. The principal expenditure item (77.5 per cent. of the total in 1933 as against 73.1 per cent. in 1928) was benefits in kind—medical aid and convalescent and preventive work—which are given by the hospitals, etc., set up and administered by the Federation.

Peru. — A Draft Labour Code was referred to a committee by a Decree of 10 August 1934. It makes provision, *inter alia*, for workmen's compensation, compulsory savings, life insurance for salaried employees and—in a more distant future—a general scheme for insurance against sickness, invalidity, old age and death.

The scheme of workmen's compensation for industrial accidents covers workers, earning not more than 2,400 sols a year, employed by undertakings in various branches of industry and mining—enumerated in the Draft Code—in which there is a specific risk of accident. The employer is required to provide insured members of his staff with medical and pharmaceutical assistance and is responsible for accidents occurring to them; he may insure against this liability, in which case he is required to pay the premiums in full.

In case of permanent incapacity, the degree of which will as a rule be measured by means of a disablement schedule, compensation is as follows: for total incapacity, either a pension equal to 66 per cent. of the worker's wages or a lump sum equal to his wages for four years, as the employer prefers; for partial

incapacity, either a pension equal to 66 per cent. of the difference between his wages before the accident and those he may be expected to earn after it, or a lump sum equal to this difference for four years. In case of temporary total incapacity, the worker receives 66 per cent. of the wages he was earning when the accident occurred; and in case of temporary partial incapacity, 80 per cent. of the difference between his wages before the accident and those he subsequently earns. In case of incapacity necessitating the constant attendance of another person, a further 10 per cent. of the original compensation is payable by the employer. The surviving relatives of a fatally injured person are entitled to compensation if his death occurs before the age of 65 and if the lump sum (four years' wages) has not already been paid out; subject to these conditions the following compensation is payable: to the widow, a pension equal to 22 per cent. of the deceased person's wages; to the children, pensions not exceeding 44 per cent. of wages in all; and to the ascendants, pensions not exceeding 30 per cent. of wages in all. Further, the employer is required to pay funeral expenses up to a maximum of twice the deceased person's monthly earnings.

The compulsory savings scheme covers all manual workers, and provides that 5 per cent. of their wages shall be withheld; the proceeds will constitute a reserve fund at the Savings Bank. The Bank will issue statements of these savings accounts, but the sums credited may only be withdrawn when and as the Government subsequently provides.

Salaried employees, who will not as a rule be subject to the compulsory savings regulations, will be covered by a special scheme under which their employers are obliged to take out on their behalf insurance policies of a value of not less than 1,000 sols per employee; the premiums will be paid by the employers alone.

Lastly the Draft Code provides that the Government shall as soon as possible introduce a general scheme for insurance against sickness, invalidity, old age and death, to replace the salaried employees' life insurance and the manual workers' compulsory savings schemes. Every person employed by a public establishment or private undertaking will be compulsorily insured. The revenue of the scheme will be obtained as follows: insured persons' contributions, 5 per cent. of wages; employers' contributions, 5 per cent. of wages; and the State subsidy, which is 5 per cent. of remuneration not exceeding 200 sols a month but falls gradually as remuneration rises, and lapses altogether when this reaches 700 sols. In the case of public officials the contribution, which is equal to 20 per cent. of remuneration, will be paid half by the insured person and half by the State. In general, benefit will not be payable until an insured person has contributed for eight years. Pensions will be proportioned both to the length of the period of insurance and to the average remuneration received in that period. The task of drafting benefit scales falls to the National Social Insurance Bank. Manual workers of 55 years of age and salaried employees of 65 will be entitled to

old-age pensions, while invalidity pensions will be payable to insured persons whose capacity for work is reduced by at least 50 per cent. before they reach the pensionable age. Provision is also made for survivors' pensions. The scheme will be administered by the Insurance Bank, the governing body of which will be a board composed of five persons, appointed respectively by the Government, the Supreme Court, the Central Reserve Bank, salaried employees in public and private employment, and manual workers.

Poland. — The enforcement of the general Social Insurance Act of 28 March 1933, which was due to start on 1 January 1934, was not an easy matter. A heated controversy immediately ensued, not only on the organisational principles on which the Act was based, but also on the arrangements made for contributions and benefits. At one time it appeared as if the Act would be a failure, but a Legislative Decree of 24 October 1934 put an end to this period of uncertainty by deciding two of the most debated points; it simplified the administration of the scheme, and restricted the scope of sickness insurance by establishing a 725-zloty monthly wage limit above which insurance was not to be compulsory.

The general Act of 1933 provided for three types of insurance institution. First came the social insurance funds, one for each district and sixty-seven in all, which collected contributions for all the risks covered and provided sickness and maternity benefit. The second type comprised four central institutions, one for sickness and maternity insurance, one for accident insurance, and two others controlling invalidity, old-age and survivors' insurance for manual and intellectual workers respectively. Finally there was the Social Insurance Chamber, the function of which was to co-ordinate the work of the funds and the central institutions.

The Decree of 24 October 1934 provides for the amalgamation of the four central institutions and the Social Insurance Chamber in a single Institute, which the district funds will serve as sole executive organs as long as regional sections of the Institute have not been established under the conditions laid down by its constitution.

Within the Institute the risks which it is required to cover, —sickness and maternity, industrial accidents and occupational diseases, and invalidity, old-age and survivors' insurance for workers and for intellectual workers—remain financially distinct. For each of these risks there is a special fund, which manages its own finances and is credited with payments to and debited with expenditure by the Institute in respect of the risk in question. The Committee of the Institute is composed as follows: half the members are elected representatives of insured persons, one-quarter elected representatives of the employers and one-quarter members appointed by the Minister of Social Welfare; the Chairman is appointed by the President of the Republic. Decisions are made either by the Committee as a whole or by one of two groups within

it, namely, the group for invalidity, old-age and survivors' insurance and unemployment insurance for intellectual workers and the group for invalidity, old-age and survivors' insurance for manual workers. Each group comprises all the members of the Committee representing the intellectual workers or all the members representing the manual workers, as the case may be; for the rest, it is composed as to one-quarter of members of the Committee representing the employers, and as to one-quarter of members appointed by the Minister of Social Welfare. Questions relating solely to intellectual workers' invalidity, old-age and survivors' insurance and unemployment insurance, or to manual workers' invalidity, old-age and survivors' insurance are referred to the group concerned.

As the general reform of Polish social insurance began in 1934, it may be of interest to note the number of insured persons on 31 December of that year. The figure for each of the risks covered was as follows: accidents, 1,725,000; sickness and maternity, 1,700,000 (without members of families); invalidity, old-age and survivors' insurance, 1,392,000 manual and 246,000 intellectual workers.

Among the numerous measures concerning the administration of the general Act of 1933 mention may be made of the following as regards sickness and maternity insurance: the Orders of 31 December 1933 relating respectively to the participation of insured persons in medical and pharmaceutical expenses, collaboration between the hospitals and similar establishments and the insurance funds, and the supply of pharmaceutical products by the latter; the Order of 17 April 1934 relating to the adjustment of collective disputes between doctors and insurance funds by arbitration; and that of 7 May 1934 governing admission to sickness and maternity insurance on a voluntary basis.

As regards old-age and survivors' insurance, mention should be made of the establishment, as from 1 January 1934, of a transitional pension scheme to provide relief for workers who were too old at that date to complete the normal qualification of 200 weekly contributions. The following may receive transitional old-age pensions: Polish nationals resident in Poland and without means, who completed their sixty-fifth year on or before 31 December 1933 and can show that they have been in paid employment for at least four years in all during the last fourteen years. Old-age pensions under this scheme are fixed at 20 zlotys a month, while widows of pensioners are entitled to half this amount at the age of 60, or earlier if incapacitated. Under the permanent scheme, persons who have not been in remunerated employment for a minimum period before reaching the age of 60, and start work in an insurable occupation after that age, are not obliged to insure. Under the transitional scheme wage earners over 60 years of age on 1 January 1934 are obliged to insure, and may receive pensions when incapable of work if 26 weekly contributions have been paid on their behalf. Moreover, workers over 60 years of age on 1 January 1934 who have not been insured—or

have been so for less than 26 weeks—by reason of invalidity or lack of employment may receive pensions under the transitional scheme at the age of 65.

A Decree dated 4 September 1934 brings navigators and pilots of aircraft within the scope of the invalidity, old-age and survivors' insurance scheme for intellectual workers, which is still governed by the Legislative Decree of 24 November 1927 as amended by the Act of 5 March 1934.

Portugal. — The corporative legislation of 1933, as was explained in the previous issue of the *Year-Book* [1], provides for the establishment and administration of social insurance by the workers and employers of each corporation according to its means, and for the organisation of social insurance on behalf of the population of rural areas by people's institutes, the objects of which also include social assistance and the improvement of local amenities. Already several corporations have begun to exercise their social insurance powers. For example, the collective agreement concluded in the cooperage and cellarage industry provides for the maintenance of an insurance fund by a workers' contribution of 5 per cent. of wages and an employers' contribution of 4 per cent. Numerous people's institutes were founded during 1934, and are beginning to set up mutual aid funds.

Provision for the creation of people's institutes was made by Legislative Decree No. 23051 of 23 September 1933. They may be formed in each rural district on the initiative of a group of residents. Membership is voluntary, and consists of two classes: regular members and patron members. The former must be men over 18 years of age residing in the district, who are heads of families and of Portuguese nationality; the latter are the landed proprietors of the district, for whom membership implies the payment of a contribution but no rights.

In June 1934 model rules for the insurance and assistance funds of the people's institutes were issued by the National Labour and Provident Institution, which is responsible for supervising the working of the institutes.

Under these rules, admission to the insurance fund of an institute is open to wives and to children over 14 years of age, as well as to the regular members of the institute. All members of the fund must be in good health and under 46 years of age on joining. The insurance benefits consist of domiciliary medical treatment in case of illness or confinement, cash sickness benefit for not more than 90 days a year, a lump sum payable at the death of the member, and a lump sum payable to a married woman at the birth of a child. The rates of benefit and contributions of the members of the fund are fixed, in accordance with local conditions, by the National Institute and its delegate competent for the district. Besides the contributions of its members, the

[1] Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1933*, p. 199.

insurance fund receives contributions from patron members of the institute. Moreover, the Government endows the fund with a working capital of 4,000 escudos, and allocates to it one-third of the grant of 5,000 escudos which the National Federation of Grain Growers has offered to every people's institute in the grain-growing districts.

The purpose of the assistance fund of each institute is to provide medical and cash relief for regular members of the institute who by reason of ill-health or age cannot be admitted to the insurance fund. Such members are required to contribute to the assistance fund, which also receives a subsidy from the revenue of the institute, and one-third of the grant made by the Grain-Growers' Federation. They are entitled to medical treatment as of right, but cash relief is granted by the management of the institute at its discretion.

The administration of both the insurance fund and the assistance fund is entrusted to the general meeting of the regular members of the institute and to the officers appointed by it.

By 31 March 1934 41 people's institutes had been established, and at the end of the year the number of institutes had increased to over a hundred. In the light of the year's experience steps are to be taken to increase the means at the disposal of the institutes; in particular, it is likely that the contributions of patron members will be more efficiently levied.

Rumania. — Despite the business slump and the consequent fall in wages and increased unemployment, social insurance has been enforced on the lines laid down in the Act of 8 April 1933.

The State subsidy, the withdrawal of which was announced in June 1934, was retained, in part at least. The sums required to meet the cost of administration of the Central Social Insurance Fund, amounting to 43,000,000 lei, still figure in the budget; and the Minister of Labour announced that the supplementary subsidy of 15,000,000 lei normally due for 1934 would be paid during the budgetary year if the financial situation of the country improved a little.

The representation of insured persons and their employers in the meetings and on the boards of the funds was regulated afresh. An Order of 7 November 1934 reduced the number of members of the general meeting of the Central Social Insurance Fund and the committees or boards which govern the various insurance institutions; but it retained the system under which representatives of insured persons and employers sit in equal numbers and the method by which these representatives are appointed (by the chambers of industry and commerce for the employers and the chambers of labour for the insured persons). The General Confederation of Labour has protested against this method of appointment: the representatives of insured persons should, it maintains, be elected by direct secret ballot by all persons subject to the scheme, without any interference from the authorities or the chambers of labour; the fees now paid for attendance at meetings of the committees and boards should be

abolished, a step which would involve a saving and also—still more important—permit the appointment of enough committee men to ensure efficient administration.

Spain. — The reform of the legislation on industrial accidents (mentioned in the *Year-Book* for 1933 [1]), which included the introduction of compulsory insurance, the payment of compensation in the form of pensions and the establishment of a National Accident Insurance Fund, still required certain finishing touches. Two operations for which the need was urgent were thus performed in 1934; these were the organisation of inspection for insurance in agriculture, and the drafting of a scale for the payments to be made to doctors in the service of undertakings or mutual aid funds authorised to administer compulsory accident insurance. Further, the scheme was extended to cover professional journalists and all members of office staffs whose remuneration does not exceed 5,000 pesetas per year.

In Catalonia new provisions relating to voluntary social insurance *(Ley de mutualidades)* were issued in 1934; their main object is to define the conditions under which insured persons may be admitted, and the nature of the risks covered (sickness, maternity, accidents, invalidity, old age, death and unemployment); they also lay down the rules to be followed with respect to reinsurance and the investment of property.

The consolidation of all social insurance, an important feature of which is the reform of the present old-age pension scheme, is under examination, and the National Welfare Institute is devoting close attention to it.

Sweden. — The Committee set up by the Government in 1928 to study the invalidity and old-age pension scheme which has been in force since 1914, and to propose such amendments as it thought fit, submitted its report in April 1934.

The present insurance scheme makes invalidity and old-age insurance compulsory for all Swedish nationals between 16 and 66 years of age, except civil servants and their wives or husbands. From the date of entering insurance each insured person must pay a contribution proportionate to his or her income (the annual rate varies from 3 to 33 kronor), and in return becomes entitled to a pension at the age of 67, or earlier in the event of permanent incapacity for work; the pension consists of an annuity calculated on the basis of the contributions paid and a bonus payable in the event of invalidity, the cost of the latter being met out of public funds.

The Committee nevertheless found that, contrary to expectation, the number of persons relying on public assistance has not diminished, but has increased very considerably since the insurance legislation came into force. Secondly, the technical organisation of the scheme, which is modelled largely on that of life insurance and

[1] Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1933*, p. 201.

provides for the accumulation of large sums, appeared somewhat disturbed by the instability of economic conditions since the beginning of the war and particularly by the fluctuations in the value of Swedish currency and the interest rate. Further, the Committee considered that the investigation preceding the granting of pensions, being often carried out by local authorities without the necessary experience, is not reliable enough. Lastly it drew attention to general demographic development in Sweden, which seemed to indicate that there would be a marked increase in the average age during the next few decades—a movement which would involve a considerable rise in the charges to be borne by the population of an age to work.

From these arguments the majority of the Committee proceeded to the conclusion that the system now in force must be radically changed. It therefore proposed to separate invalidity insurance from compulsory old-age insurance and transfer the former to the voluntary sickness insurance scheme, of which it would form an integral part. Transitional measures would be introduced to facilitate the admission to the sickness scheme of persons desiring to be covered by invalidity insurance, for the sickness funds at present include only one-quarter of the adult population. This change would permit more effective supervision of the granting of invalidity pensions. The majority also proposed that old-age insurance should be retained as a compulsory scheme covering the whole adult population, but that the method of calculating pensions should be changed: there should be a uniform basic pension of 100 kronor a year, guaranteed to the insured person whatever the value of his or her contributions. This would mean a certain levelling of pensions in favour of persons whose contributions are calculated on a small income, as well as of women, who are now less favourably treated than men. To meet the additional cost of introducing a guaranteed minimum pension, it is suggested that contributions should be raised and fixed at 1 per cent. of the assessable income of the insured person, but not less than 6 nor more than 50 kronor a year. The obligation to insure should be extended to civil servants. Pension bonuses should be graded according to the cost of living in the different parts of the country, and granted to all pensioners over 67 years of age.

The minority of the Committee considered that invalidity and old-age insurance should be retained as a combined scheme covering the whole population; the change proposed by the majority would involve the exclusion from invalidity pensions of the many insured persons who do not belong to voluntary sickness funds; and the transitional measures contemplated by the majority would be a poor palliative. It would not be advisable in any case to place new burdens on the shoulders of the sickness funds at a time when they are fully occupied in adapting themselves to the reform of sickness insurance introduced in 1931. So far as old-age insurance is concerned, the minority were in general agreement with the majority's proposals.

The report was circulated by the Government to a number of authorities and organisations for their opinion. Certain of these having disagreed with the majority's proposals, the Government instructed the Social Board to continue its investigation of the problem of invalidity and old-age insurance with the aid of three experts.

The sickness funds have been actively engaged in adjusting their position to meet the legislation of 1931, which reformed the voluntary sickness insurance scheme. The funds which desired to obtain the recognition of the authorities under this legislation and to enjoy the accompanying benefits had to conform with the new provisions and to apply for recognition before 1 January 1935. By this date funds with a total membership of about 900,000 —there are 1,050,000 insured persons in all—had obtained recognition under the legislation referred to, which provides for a considerable extension of the benefits paid by the funds and for subsidies from the public purse. The funds which do not comply with the new regulations will probably be able to continue operation, but will not receive subsidies.

The efforts to set up a single body to comprise all the sickness funds in the country were crowned with success during the year, for the Eleventh National Congress of Sickness Funds decided to amalgamate the two existing groups into one; the new organisation is known as the Federation of Swedish Sickness Funds.

Mention should also be made of a Royal Order dated 20 November 1934, which provides for the payment from 1 January 1935 of pensions to blind persons in need.

Switzerland. — Neither accident insurance nor sickness insurance escaped the effects of the economic depression.

Under the compulsory accident insurance scheme, which covers both occupational and non-occupational risks, the expenditure on compensation for accidents not occasioned by employment had exceeded normal income already in 1933; the National Accident Insurance Fund therefore decided to raise the rate of contribution for insured persons by one-fifth. Moreover railwaymen, who have hitherto had these contributions paid in full by the authority employing them, are now required to pay one-fifth of the total.

During 1933 the sickness insurance funds, which had a membership of 1,800,000 at the end of the year, received about 75 million francs and spent some 73 million (27 million on cash benefit and 36 million on benefit in kind). The depression had the most pronounced effect on the funds operating in industrial areas. In order to assist them, the Federal Council decided that an emergency subsidy should be paid to the funds in respect of voluntarily insured persons who, owing to the straitened circumstances in which they had been placed by the depression, owed more than two months' arrears of contributions. Funds desirous of obtaining the grant must, however, undertake to make good the first two months' arrears and at least one-half the amount due for subsequent months.

During 1934 the negotiations which were carried on in certain cantons between sickness funds and the medical profession with a view to obtaining a reduction of doctors' fees led in most cases to direct agreement between the parties. In Zurich, where no amicable solution could be found, the Cantonal Government ordered that the cost-of-living increase, fixed at 50 per cent. when originally introduced, should be brought down to 40 per cent. As a rule the medical profession agreed to rates between 5 and 10 per cent. lower than those previously obtaining.

As was stated in the *Year-Book* for 1933[1], failing an invalidity and survivors' insurance scheme (the principle of which forms a part of the Federal Constitution and has by no means been abandoned), the Federal Council decided to set aside 8 million francs a year for the assistance of aged persons, widows and orphans in distressed circumstances; and placed the administration provisionally in the hands of the cantons. During 1934 the Department of National Economy examined the cantonal regulations for the administration of the scheme and submitted them to the Federal Council for approval. At the end of the year all these regulations had been approved and there is now no formal obstacle to the application of the assistance scheme in the whole Confederation. By means of cantonal reports, which will also deal with the operation of the old-age and survivors' insurance institutions already existing in certain cantons, the Federal Council hopes to obtain a clear view into the working and results of the assistance scheme and into popular needs in this connection.

Union of South Africa. — The Act of 8 June 1934, based on a Bill introduced in 1931, established a new system of workmen's compensation for accidents and industrial diseases. This will come into force at a date to be fixed by Proclamation. It applies to all workers, including coloured persons and Natives, employed under a contract of employment or apprenticeship, whose yearly remuneration does not exceed £600; but outworkers, workers employed casually, and agricultural workers other than those employed on power-driven machinery, are excluded.

The Act covers all accidents arising out of and in the course of the worker's employment. Certain occupational diseases give rise to compensation under the same conditions as industrial accidents; these are cyanide rash, lead poisoning, mercury poisoning and ankylostomiasis (hookworm); the last-named, which was not formerly recognised as an industrial disease, does not give rise to compensation in the case of Asiatic or Native workmen. The Minister of Labour is empowered to include other diseases in this schedule.

As regards benefits, the cost of medical, surgical and hospital treatment, artificial limbs and other apparatus must be defrayed by the employer for not more than one year and up to £100. Cash compensation is to be calculated according to the earnings of the

[1] Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1933*, p. 203.

victim, no account being taken of the part of earnings in excess of £33 6s. 8d. a month or £400 a year.

In the event of temporary total disablement, the injured workman is entitled to a monthly payment at the rate of 60 per cent. of the first £20 of his earnings and 35 per cent. of the amount between £20 and £33 6s. 8d. Payments are made for a period of twelve months at most. If total disablement continues for longer than twelve months, compensation equal to 50 per cent. of the first £20 of monthly earnings and 25 per cent. of the amount between £20 and £33 6s. 8d. is payable for a further period not exceeding six months. In case of temporary partial disablement, compensation is equal to an agreed portion of the above payments.

In case of permanent disablement, the method of compensation varies according to the degree of reduction of earning capacity. A disablement of 70 per cent. gives rise to a monthly pension, a disablement of 40 per cent. or less to a lump sum, and a disablement of between 40 and 70 per cent. to both a pension and a lump-sum compensation.

The monthly pension payable in the event of total disablement amounts to 50 per cent. of the first £20 of the workman's monthly earnings and 25 per cent. of the amount in excess of £20. Where the degree of disablement is 70 per cent. or over, but less than 100 per cent., a monthly pension is payable bearing the same proportion to the maximum pension as the degree of disablement bears to 100 per cent.

Where the degree of disablement is 40 per cent., the injured workman is entitled to a lump sum equal to 16 times the first £20 of his monthly earnings plus 9 times the amount of his monthly earnings in excess of £20. Where the degree of disablement is under 40 per cent., the lump-sum compensation is reduced in the same proportion.

Where the degree of disablement is over 40 and under 70 per cent., the injured workman receives in respect of half the percentage of disablement a lump sum calculated as above, and in respect of the other half a monthly pension bearing the same proportion to a pension for total disablement as the half-percentage in question bears to 100 per cent.

A monthly pension not exceeding £3 may be commuted for a lump-sum payment of an amount to be approved by the Commissioner.

If a worker dies as the result of an accident, his widow is entitled to a payment not exceeding his earnings for two years. If he leaves a widow and one or more children, the payment to the widow may not exceed 18 months' earnings, but the children under 16 are then also entitled to a pension, the amount of which is calculated according to that which would have been granted to the father in the event of total permanent disablement. The children's pension varies according to the number of children, from 20 per cent. of the total disablement pension when there is one child, to 70 per cent. when there are six or more children.

In case of disablement of a Native workman, the Officer appointed by the Native Affairs Department may award an allowance towards the cost of medical, surgical and hospital treatment, payable by the employer, unless the latter has provided such treatment free of expense. In the event of temporary total disablement the Native worker whose monthly earnings do not exceed £13 6s. 8d. receives as compensation 60 per cent. of his earnings for a period not exceeding six months. In the event of permanent total disablement, compensation takes the form of a lump sum varying with earnings. Where the permanent disablement is partial, the compensation is reduced in proportion. If a Native workman dies from an accident and leaves dependants, they are entitled to such lump-sum compensation as the Officer deems equitable in each case.

Except in agriculture, every employer must obtain an insurance policy, for the full extent of his potential liability, from a society or company licensed under the Act. The competent Minister may exempt from this obligation any employer or group of employers who prove that they have established a fund for insurance against every liability under the Act.

United States. — In the field of social insurance 1934 was a year of promise and preparation rather than achievement. The outstanding event was the submission by President Roosevelt to the people of a policy of social security which was endorsed by an unprecedentedly large majority at the Congressional election in November.

Little was to be expected by way of State legislation. Few State legislatures met in regular session in 1934, and only one State, Iowa, was added to the list of those having non-contributory old-age pension laws. There are now 28 such States, but, although their number increases year by year, it is recognised that State legislation of this kind does not, by itself, offer a satisfactory solution of the problem of providing for the necessitous aged. At the end of 1933, there were 115,000 pensioners in the 18 States in which laws were deemed to be in force, whereas it is estimated that there are at least 2,000,000 persons in the United States who are over the age of 65 and in want. The fact is that the States and their administrative divisions often have not the resources required to finance their old-age pension schemes, at least in the present depression, and so the pensions granted are reduced below the rate which the law intended, or no new pensions are awarded, or else the scheme is suspended altogether.

Hence it is that everyone is now looking to the Federal Government, as possessing the necessary financial strength, to solve the problem of establishing social security. But for the fact that this issue was about to be laid before the country, the late Congress would have passed the Dill-Connery Bill, which provided for a Federal subsidy equal to one-third of the cost of old-age pensions paid under State legislation. It did however pass an Act which, though overshadowed by the vaster measures now in prospect, must be regarded as marking a new epoch in the evolution of

American social insurance policy, since it is the first scheme of compulsory pension insurance to be introduced in the United States. This is the Railroad Retirement Act, signed by President Roosevelt on 27 June 1934. Although its constitutionality has been challenged, and is still in doubt, it merits consideration in some detail.

Hitherto each of the railways has maintained a non-contributory pension scheme under which those of its employees who had served it for a long period and were still employed on reaching the pensionable age (65 or 70 years) were awarded a pension of 1 per cent. of wages for each year of service. These schemes could be amended or discontinued at any time, and no employee had a legal right to his pension. The Railroad Retirement Act provides that all persons, numbering about 1,000,000, employed on railways, shall be insured for invalidity and retirement pensions. The retirement pension is payable at the age of 65 or after 30 years' service. It is calculated as follows, on the basis of average monthly wages up to 300 dollars: 2 per cent. of the first 50 dollars of wages, 1½ per cent. of the next 150 dollars and 1 per cent. of the remaining 100 dollars, per year of service. The pension as thus calculated is reduced by one-fifteenth for every year by which the worker's age is less than 65 at the time of retirement. The invalidity pension is payable in case of occupational incapacity, and is calculated in the same way as the retirement pension, except that it is not subject to reduction in respect of age. The resources of the scheme are provided by a joint contribution of 6 per cent. of wages, shared by worker and employer in the proportions of one-third and two-thirds respectively. The scheme is administered by a Federal board, on which employers and workers have representation.

The railway pension scheme cannot be regarded as the forerunner of a series of pension schemes by industry. The reason why the railways have been singled out for special treatment is that the companies, being engaged in inter-State commerce, are subject to Federal supervision, and so it was practicable for Congress to legislate for them; but the probability is that future measures of social insurance will be general in their application.

This conclusion may be deduced from the message addressed by President Roosevelt to the last Congress, on 8 June 1934, in which he outlined a permanent programme of economic and social policy. An essential feature of this programme is the creation of security for the individual and the family against the hazards of life, through an extensive system of social insurance. In the President's view, such a system should involve a maximum of co-operation between the Federal and State Governments; the funds necessary to finance it should be raised by contributions rather than by taxation; the system should be national in scope, but largely administered by the States; and the reserves of the entire system should be under the care of the Federal Government.

Shortly afterwards, the President appointed a Committee on Economic Security, composed of members of his Cabinet, and

charged with the rapid formulation of a programme with a view to its recommendation to the 74th Congress and the State legislatures for action. Its terms of reference were very wide, and included every branch of social insurance and assistance; a technical board to undertake research and, later, advisory bodies of representative citizens, medical men, and actuaries were appointed to assist the Committee.

In January 1935 the President sent the new Congress a message setting forth a programme of social insurance, based on the recommendations of the Committee on Economic Security. Apart from unemployment compensation, these recommendations deal with provision for the aged, for fatherless children and the sick.

Provision for the aged should be made by three complementary measures: non-contributory old-age pensions for those already old, a scheme of compulsory old-age insurance for the employed class, and a supplementary scheme of voluntary old-age insurance.

The need of those who are now old and without means of support should be met by non-contributory pensions. Non-contributory pension laws should be adopted in the 20 States where they do not already exist, but they should all be brought up to a prescribed standard. Congress should enact a measure similar to the Dill-Connery Bill but providing for a Federal subsidy of one-half, instead of one-third, of the cost of non-contributory old-age pensions paid by the States under schemes complying with the prescribed standards. A State scheme must operate effectively throughout the area of the State, and must be under the supervision of a special State authority. Until 1 January 1940, the pensionable age may be kept at 70, but thereafter it must be reduced to 65. Claimants may be required to have resided in the State for five out of the last ten years. The amount of the pension must be sufficient, together with the pensioner's means, for a reasonable subsistence, compatible with decency and health; the Federal subsidy, however, will not exceed 15 dollars a month for any pensioner. On the death of a pensioner the Federal subsidy is repayable out of any estate which he may leave.

Persons who are now in employment and under the age of 60 should be brought under a compulsory scheme of old-age insurance. All employed persons earning less than 250 dollars a month should be covered, except public officials and railwaymen. The scheme should be financed by equal contributions from employer and insured person, of which the combined rate should be 1 per cent. of remuneration, increasing by 1 per cent. every five years to a maximum of 5 per cent. The Federal Government should begin to subsidise the scheme only when expenditure has risen beyond the contribution income, and should then maintain the reserve fund already accumulated at the level of 15,250,000,000 dollars. The old-age pension should be granted at the age of 65 after a qualifying period of 5 years and payment of 200 weekly contributions. The pension to be guaranteed on the expiry of the first 5 years' working of the scheme should be equal to 15 per cent. of average remuneration up to

150 dollars a month. This rate should be increased by 1 per cent. of remuneration for the sixth and each of the next four years of insurance, and by 2 per cent. for the eleventh and each of the next nine years of insurance. If the insured person dies before the age of 65 or before the instalments of pension paid to him equal his own contributions, his dependants should receive the amount of those contributions or the difference, as the case may be.

A voluntary scheme of old-age insurance is recommended as a supplement to the compulsory scheme: its purpose would be to afford persons not liable to insurance a safe method of providing for their old age and to enable persons liable to insurance to supplement the pensions paid under the compulsory scheme. The Federal Government should sell deferred annuities under conditions similar to those offered by commercial insurance companies, but without profit. Consideration should be given to the possibility of a Federal subsidy to the voluntary scheme on behalf of independent workers of small means.

Provision for fatherless children is already made by mothers' pension laws in 45 States, but these laws, like the old-age pension laws, remain largely ineffective because many States cannot finance them. It is recommended that the Federal Government should subsidise the application of these laws to the extent of one-third of the expenditure incurred, on condition that they are applied throughout the jurisdiction of the State concerned and that they attain a prescribed standard.

As a preliminary measure for meeting the very serious problem of sickness in families with low income, a nation-wide preventive public health programme is recommended, in the execution of which States should be aided by a Federal subsidy. It is recognised, however, that for the solution of this problem health insurance also is necessary. No scheme of insurance is yet recommended, however, pending the results of a consultation of the medical and dental professions and hospital managements which is now proceeding.

Uruguay. — The energetic campaign to remedy the financial situation of the social insurance funds, which began in 1933, was continued during the year under review.

The difficulties encountered by the funds were largely due to the inclusion, when pensions were calculated, of services completed prior to the introduction of the insurance scheme; and an Act dated 11 January 1934 therefore restricted the rights and increased the liabilities of insured persons in this respect. It leaves in existence the right to secure by a supplementary contribution, described as a post-payment, the recognition and validation for pension purposes of service completed before the coming into effect of the scheme, but it renders more stringent the conditions under which the previous service may be recognised as valid and makes the highest of the previous post-payment rates generally applicable.

Secondly, the Act of 11 January 1934 re-enacts the provisions already adopted in 1933 limiting the benefits payable to 300 pesos

a month (the minimum remains at 120 pesos a year), and suspending pensions during gainful employment by the pensioner.

These general provisions apply to all the insurance schemes, including those for public servants, teachers, the staffs of banks and the Stock Exchange, and workers in commerce, industry and public utility undertakings. As regards insurance for workers in commerce, industry and public utility undertakings, the position of which was particularly unsatisfactory at the beginning of the year, the amendments made by the Act of 11 January 1934 are not confined to the conditions of benefit and the method of calculation. The Act extends the scope of insurance, reorganises its resources and provides for amortisation of the accumulated deficit.

A feature of the reorganised scheme is the disappearance of the previous distinction, for insurance purposes, between insured persons of different occupational groups (commerce and industry, transport, public utility undertakings, and printing). The scheme's field of action is still divided into these four sections, with a financially independent fund corresponding to each, but the risk will henceforward be covered uniformly for all insured persons and the internal unification of the scheme is now complete except on the accountancy side. Further, the obligation to insure now extends to all persons employed in commerce and industrial undertakings, this general definition taking the place of the classification established by the Act of 16 August 1929.

The administration of the scheme remains in the hands of a central Institute, which is governed by a board composed of representatives of insured persons, employers and the Government in equal numbers.

No important change has been made in the amount of benefits or in the definition of the risks covered. Relief is still guaranteed in case of old age, invalidity, unemployment and death, and the rates remain unaltered; in fact the adjustment of costs to the financial possibilities of the funds is obtained, not by a reduction of pensions, but by a change in the method of their calculation and increased stringency in the conditions attached to their grant.

Under employed persons' insurance, as under the other schemes, the method of calculating benefit is affected by the new regulations concerning the inclusion of service prior to the enforcement of the Insurance Act and fixing a maximum limit for pensions, while the stringency of the conditions under which benefit is granted is increased by restrictions on the right to combine a pension with an income from employment. As far as the employed persons' scheme is concerned, these rules are supplemented by others making the award of a pension, qualified for on the strength of subsequently validated periods of service, incompatible with any but the very smallest personal income, whatever its source (from employment or not); thus an old-age pension for pre-insurance service can be jointly held with private income only if the total,

including the pension, does not exceed 150 pesos a month; once this limit is passed the pension is reduced by 50 centavos for each additional peso of income.

Further, the instalments of pensions granted for service prior to the enforcement of the scheme are no longer payable in cash unless the insured person has settled, at the rate fixed by the new Act, all the post-payments required to validate his previous periods of service. A pensioner whose debt in respect of such periods is not completely paid off must accept instalments of his pension in the form of "social welfare bills" up to the amount which he owes in post-payments. These bills, which are guaranteed by the Government and will be paid off, bear interest at 6 per cent. Pensioners may cede them by simple endorsement on fulfilment of certain formalities which enable the operation to be supervised and a collapse in the value of the bills avoided. The service of the bills, both interest and amortisation, is secured from the proceeds of a tax specially earmarked to that effect.

Taken together, these measures have considerably reduced the Institute's liabilities, but they would not alone have sufficed to restore its financial equilibrium.

The employer's contribution is fixed for the future at 9 per cent., and that of the insured person at 5 per cent., of remuneration, so that the normal resources of the new system are sufficient for the service of current benefits and the formation of reserves corresponding to the rights acquired by service later than 1 February 1934. But, as the pension fund for commerce, industry and public utility undertakings is to operate under the collective accumulation system, the reserves which would have been accumulated under the previous system must be reconstituted. With this aim in view, the Institute has made two issues of bills, permitting it to cover its actuarial deficit on 1 February 1934.

The first issue of 12 million pesos, bearing interest at 6 per cent. (social welfare bills 1933) will be used, up to a maximum of 10 million pesos, to pay the benefits due to pensioners who are themselves debtors in respect of post-payments for subsequently validated service. The Institute will retain 2 million pesos in order to compensate it for the reduction of revenue resulting from the facilities granted to undertakings for payment of debts to the insurance system contracted by them later than April 1933, such as contributions in arrears, etc.

The second issue of 18 million pesos bears interest at 5 per cent. It will be retained in full by the Institute. This sum, added to the 2 million pesos retained from the previous issue and the existing reserves of 11.9 million pesos, will bring the Institute's total reserves to approximately 32 million pesos.

The Institute will receive direct the proceeds of the special tax earmarked for the service of bills and will itself undertake payment of interest and amortisation; the two issues are uniformly guaranteed by the Government.

U.S.S.R. — The *Year-Book* for 1933[1] described the main features of the sweeping social insurance reform which placed the administration of the scheme in the hands of the General Council of Trade Unions and its 47 affiliated trade union federations, and abolished the previously existing administrative bodies, namely the territorial funds and the Commissariat of Labour. Each trade union federation was to apply insurance in respect of all the workers in the industry for which it was competent. The primary organs for insurance were the pay centres attached to the works councils, which acted under the direction and supervision of the federations' regional sections.

Administration by the trade unions was intended to bring the institutions into closer contact with the insured population, to facilitate the adjustment of benefits to the needs of each industry or even of each occupation, to improve the conditions of life of workers and salaried employees, and to help in the execution of the Government's economic plans. In order to make the participation of insured persons in administration more complete, representatives of the organised workers, known as insurance delegates, were attached to all the administrative organs and given a share in supervising the state of health of sick persons, the payment of contributions, the working of the rest houses, etc.

In June 1934, hardly a year after the reform had been introduced, insurance had become, in the opinion of the Socialist Press, a far-reaching working-class scheme. The 47 trade union funds were in full operation; while the number of pay centres had increased from 3,600 to about 186,000, and that of insurance delegates from 50,000 to several hundred thousand.

A new measure, intended to bring the insurance institutions still closer to the insured, was taken by the General Council of Trade Unions in September 1934. The Council decided to subdivide the 47 trade union federations, for which 163 new unions were substituted; to transfer the seats of several organisations from Moscow to the principal centres of production; and to abolish the intermediate organs of more than 40 unions, the works councils and their pay centres being placed directly under the central committees.

The administrative reorganisation of the scheme went hand in hand with a pronounced rise in the income and expenditure of insurance, which was placed at 5,050 million roubles in 1934, as against 4,431 million in 1933. This increase is in conformity with the second Five-Year Plan for the development of the Soviet Union's national economic system, the execution of which will bring the expenditure of the insurance scheme up to 6,700 million roubles in 1937 and greatly increase the proportion spent on benefits in kind (62.3 per cent. of all expenditure in 1937 as against 45.1 per cent. in 1932).

Yugoslavia. — The Central Workers' Insurance Institution, which administers sickness and accident insurance, has stated that its

[1] Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1933*, pp. 205-207.

average membership was 569,000 in June 1934 and 564,000 in the following November; this signifies an increase of 31,000 in June and 23,000 in November 1934 as compared with the corresponding months of the preceding year. The wages of insured employed persons have, however, not risen with membership; on the contrary, the average daily earnings of persons covered by the scheme were only 22.21 dinars in June 1934 (21.93 in November), as against 25.57 in June 1933 (22.79 in November) and 26.59 in June 1930 (26.76 in November).

The salaried employees' pension scheme in force in the former Austrian territory was extended in 1934 to include employees of seagoing shipping undertakings having their headquarters in Yugoslavia, and to pharmacists' assistants. The scheme is compulsory only in Slovenia and Dalmatia, but its extension to the whole country is under investigation; such a measure would increase the number of insured persons from 11,000 to 480,000 and the contribution total from 26.5 million to 135 million dinars a year.

The miners' pension scheme is encountering serious difficulties owing to the large number of pensioners as compared with contributing insured persons. Reconstruction measures, with a view to preventing the absorption of the actuarial reserves by pensions in course of payment, are being examined; it is proposed to substitute a miners' central institution for the regional funds, or at least to set up an inter-regional equalisation fund; to standardise contribution rates, which vary from fund to fund; to place a tax on each ton of coal raised and sold in Yugoslavia, and on every ton imported, so as to pay off the very considerable actuarial deficit due to the insufficiency of the resources hitherto devoted to insurance; to adjust and standardise the pensions paid by the regional funds, etc.

Bilateral Treaties

Several bilateral treaties relating to social insurance, which had been signed in previous years, came into force in 1934.

Instances are the treaties between Austria and Yugoslavia (in force on 1 January) and those concluded by France with Spain and with Italy (in force on 1 January and 5 July respectively); each of these places nationals of the contracting States on an equal footing as far as insurability and benefits are concerned, and stipulates the maintenance of the rights acquired or in course of acquisition by workers who move from one country to the other. Other engagements which came into force during the year were the Treaty between Austria and France of 1930, relating to labour, social insurance and assistance (25 April 1934), and the Convention between France and Poland concerning invalidity, old-age and survivors' insurance for persons employed in mining undertakings (30 June 1934)

In a Treaty which was signed on 19 July 1933 and came into force on 1 March 1934, Denmark and Germany agreed on the scope of

their accident insurance legislation and on equality of treatment in that connection between Danish and German nationals, and arranged for administrative collaboration in respect of accident insurance.

Reference should also be made to the progress during the year towards the enforcement of the series of bilateral treaties, concerning equality of treatment in respect of compensation for industrial accidents, which have been concluded by Argentina. Those with Czechoslovakia (8 December 1934), Lithuania (16 September 1934), Poland (5 March 1934) and Sweden (23 December 1934) came into force on the dates given; and two other treaties on the same subject—with Denmark and Yugoslavia respectively—were approved by Argentina under Acts of 11 October 1934.

A treaty concluded by Poland and the Free City of Danzig on 7 July 1934 concerns sickness and maternity insurance, workmen's compensation for accidents, and insurance against invalidity, old age and death for manual and non-manual workers respectively. In order to guarantee workers and salaried employees the full advantages of social insurance, the contracting parties have defined more clearly the scope of their insurance legislation and affirmed the principle of equality of treatment for their nationals. They also provide mutually for the maintenance of acquired rights and rights in course of acquisition, and for administrative and judicial co-operation in social insurance.

Lastly, negotiations between Latvian and Polish delegates on the subject of sickness and maternity insurance and workmen's compensation for accidents have led to the initialling of an agreement, which seems likely to be formally signed in the near future.

International Collaboration

Meeting of Experts on the Economical Administration of Medical and Pharmaceutical Benefits

The economical administration of medical and pharmaceutical benefits in sickness insurance is a question of permanent and, at the present moment, of particular interest. Every social service is searching for methods which will enable it to combine a maximum of efficiency with a minimum of expense, and the long experience which now informs the administration of medical and pharmaceutical benefits shows that these two ideals are by no means inconsistent. In order to compare the experience of the several States in this field, the International Labour Office consulted members of its Social Insurance Correspondence Committee at the beginning of 1934; and, in view of the favourable results of this first consultation, the Office was able to organise, with the approval of its Governing Body, a meeting of experts particularly qualified to give an opinion on the economical administration of pharmaceutical benefits in sickness insurance.

This meeting of experts was held at the Office on 9, 10 and 11 July 1934 under the Chairmanship of Dr. Leo WINTER (Czechoslovakia). It included the following representatives of national insurance departments and the governing bodies of insurance institutions or their federations: Messrs. BREIT (Austria), BORBERG (Denmark) (substitute, Mr. PERMIN), GISIGER (Switzerland), JAUNIAUX (Belgium), JIMÉNEZ (Spain), KLEMENSIEWICZ (Poland), DE MONTMORENCY (Great Britain), PORTE (France), TOMASINI (France) (substitute, Mr. LUTFALLA); and the following representatives of medical associations or medical examining officers of insurance institutions: Drs. ANDERSON (Great Britain), BABECKI (Poland), BARLA-SZABO (Hungary), BRESKY (Czechoslovakia), CIBRIE (France), DECOURT (International Medical Association), GIANNINI (Italy), GLIBERT (Belgium), HAHN (Yugoslavia), NARBESHUBER (Austria). Dr. PARISOT (France) and Dr. WIERUSZ (Poland) attended the meeting at the invitation of the Hygiene Section of the League of Nations.

The comparison of experience in the different countries gave highly satisfactory results, and the experts adopted a considerable body of conclusions on the subject under discussion. In economical prescribing, they stated, it is sought to combine therapeutic efficacy with the strictest economy, by the use of the medicines which, in the particular case, are likely to achieve the most complete and most rapid restoration of health and capacity for work at a minimum cost. From this general view, the experts defined the rules and principles of economical prescribing which should be followed under sickness insurance schemes, and may be followed without trammelling the practitioner's freedom of treatment and prescription or overlooking the legitimate claims of the patient. These rules include the following: no prescription of medicine should be issued unless it is necessary; any medicine of recognised therapeutical value, irrespective of price, should be available for prescribing in so far as, in the particular case, it is necessary for the restoration of health and capacity for work; medicines which are necessary in the particular case should be prescribed with a view to securing a maximum of efficacy and economy; considerations of efficacy and of economy should be given equal weight and borne in mind in every connection.

The experts expressed the view that the establishment of guiding principles or recommendations adapted to each national scheme is advisable in the interest both of medical practitioners and of insurance institutions; such guiding principles should serve to prevent excessive or needlessly expensive prescribing by formulating rules which experience has shown likely to prevent any increase in the cost of medicines not justified by an increase in therapeutic effect.

Lastly, the experts called attention to the need for systematic observation of the general trend of insurance prescribing, and specified a number of criteria by which this trend might be judged.

With the authorisation of its Governing Body, the Office transmitted the experts' conclusions to Governments.

International Congress of Actuaries

The International Labour Office sent a representative to the Tenth International Congress of Actuaries, having been invited to do so by the organising committee. The Congress, which was held in Rome from 4 to 9 May 1934, was attended by about 800 delegates representing 40 countries. The majority of these were actuaries of private insurance companies, but a relatively large number were actuaries or other officials of social insurance institutions. The agenda had been drawn up in advance by the Permanent Committee for International Congresses of Actuaries, the Council of which includes the Director of the International Labour Office.

The questions with which papers submitted to the Congress might deal included social insurance in various forms (insurance against old age, invalidity, accidents, sickness and unemployment). Reviewing the reports on unemployment insurance, Professor Medolaghi, the President of the Italian Actuaries' Institute, observed that one of two attitudes was now usually adopted: the first consisted in doubting the technical possibility and economic advantage of unemployment insurance, and generally led to conclusions which were unfavourable to such insurance, or at least to the need for a closer study of it; the other attitude involved the belief that this preliminary question had been solved and consisted in finding the best method of establishing unemployment insurance as part of the whole scheme of assistance for the unemployed. Nevertheless there was a striking degree of unanimity between the various judgments and suggestions, a fact all the more extraordinary because of the widely different experience and legislation on which delegates had based their remarks. Professor Medolaghi continued as follows:

> For instance, there is complete agreement that compulsory insurance should be administered by the State or by bodies set up and supervised by it; that such a scheme should be administered as a single unit, no distinction being made on occupational lines; that the best defence against the possibility of abuse lies in rules fixing waiting periods before the right to benefit is acquired, as well as the duration and the amount of the allowance; that the statistics on which insurance is based should be compiled from observations over a number of years comprising at least one whole economic cycle; and lastly that the insurance should not fully cover the risk of unemployment, but should form part of an assistance scheme, which would play a specially pronounced part in times of depression.

Group and industrial insurance were two other subjects for papers submitted to the Congress. These, which are branches of private insurance but cover a field neighbouring that of social nsurance, often compete with and are opposed to the latter. In act in some cases they are regarded as preferable to it, although hey have obviously none of its social advantages and cannot claim o do its work. During the discussion on group insurance, speakers ell into two opposing parties: one view, supported by actuaries rom countries without compulsory social insurance, was in favour

of group policies; while the other party preferred individual policies, rightly pointing out that, in a country where a compulsory social insurance scheme is in application, the worker of small means is not likely to want more than supplementary insurance, and that this must be fitted to each individual's income and needs. The divergence between these two points of view may be accounted for by a general difference of attitude towards social insurance.

Other questions on the agenda of the Congress—the organisation of health services, select tables and aggregate tables, the extension of actuarial notation, etc.—do not directly concern social insurance, but are of great technical interest for it.

The next International Congress of Actuaries will be held in Paris in 1937.

International Conference of Health Insurance Funds and Mutual Aid Societies

The International Committee of the Conference, to which 40 national federations of sickness funds in 16 countries at present belong, met in Geneva on 7, 8 and 9 September 1934. Mr. Léon Neller, President of the French Federation of Mutual Aid Societies, was in the chair. The object of the meeting was to examine the position of health insurance in the different countries and to consider the effect upon the funds of rules governing the prescription of patent medicines.

General resolution relating to social insurance. — The Committee unanimously adopted a resolution, submitted by the Chairman, reiterating the Conference's belief in the principle of compulsory insurance as the only means of providing the workers in general with a guarantee against the dangers with which they are threatened. The Committee described the maintenance of the insured status of unemployed workers and their families, which involved the financial aid of the authorities, as indispensable from the social and economic points of view as well as from that of national health. The funds devoted to social insurance should in no case be cut short. Social insurance was not a source of new liabilities for the economic system: on the contrary, it was eminently productive, for it covered and as far as possible prevented the materialisation of risks which were heavy potential burdens on the community. In order to perform its functions fully (the Committee's resolution continued), social insurance must completely cover the risk of sickness and provide an economically organised service from which the sick person could obtain all the medical and pharmaceutical aid of which he stood in need. The resolution then stressed the capital importance of financial autonomy for the insurance societies; their property should be clearly distinguished from the public funds, and they should have their own income as a direct guarantee for the payment of benefits. Lastly the Committee voiced a warning against the danger of complete State control, which weakened the initiative of insured persons and deprived them of the right to

collaborate in management; this collaboration was a valuable feature and safeguarded the vitality and efficacy of the scheme.

Prescription of patent medicines. — A report on the price of patent medicines and the rules to govern their prescription was submitted by Mr. Otto Schmid, Vice-President of the League of Swiss Sickness Funds; after a long discussion, it was decided that, with the aid of experts, the Committee should arrange for the compilation of a draft international list of unregistered names for certain synthetic pharmaceutical products; the existing nomenclature should be taken into account.

Lastly, the Committee decided on the agenda for the next general meeting by entering the following questions for report: the position of social insurance in the different countries; the share of social insurance institutions in anti-tuberculosis work; the economical organisation of pharmaceutical benefits, including the question of patent medicines; and the economic and social functions of insurance.

International Medical Association

At its Ninth Session which was held in Paris in September 1934, the General Council of the International Medical Association discussed a number of questions of great social importance; these included post-graduate medical courses and the development of legislation relating to industrial accidents and occupational diseases.

As regards post-graduate courses, the General Council of the Association stated that practitioners required constant additional study if they were to remain fully competent in respect of their duties both to patients and to the community, since medical knowledge, standards of social medicine, and methods of preventing, diagnosing and treating disease progressed from day to day. Such courses, organised on a voluntary basis, would be attended by sufficient practitioners if the following conditions were fulfilled: if they were materially and morally supported by the State and the various public health and social insurance institutions; if they were distributed by regions over the whole country, the central authorities providing the driving force and uniform guiding principles which could be adapted to circumstances of time and place; lastly, if they were given by professors of medical faculties, acting in collaboration with the doctors' professional organisations, and so kept up with the progress of medicine and met the practitioner's current needs.

To render the courses generally accessible, arrangements should be made to facilitate attendance as far as possible for practitioners of moderate means; these might take the form of allowances for subsistence, travelling, and payment of a *locum tenens*, or of cash study grants.

As regards compensation for industrial accidents and occupational diseases, the International Medical Association considers it both just and rational that all persons employed in an undertaking should be insured, at the expense of the employer alone, against

the costs of treatment and other effects of every accident occurring during or as a result of their employment. The treatment of victims of accidents should be as complete and efficient as possible. It should include the services of a surgeon or specialist and admission to hospital, where necessary; attention, medicaments, bandages, etc., artificial limbs and other apparatus; and sufficient allowances or pensions based on an official schedule to be drawn up jointly by representatives of the parties directly concerned (employers and employed persons), the medical profession, and the State. Persons suffering from industrial accidents should be free to choose their own doctors; this liberty should be balanced by a right in the employer to have an examination made by his own doctor, who would check the effects of the accident and the treatment prescribed; and, if necessary, by medical arbitration. The doctor should be considered bound by professional discretion in all accident cases, and his certificates should simply describe the resulting injuries observed by him. Accident insurance schemes should take steps to prevent accidents and occupational diseases, and competent doctors should be called in to collaborate in the prevention work.

The resolution concerning industrial accidents, only the most typical passages of which are reproduced above, was followed by a motion to the effect that doctors' professional organisations should be associated in the study of industrial accidents and occupational diseases with a view to organising both prevention and treatment.

International Regulation

Ratification and Approval of the Conventions and Recommendations adopted by the International Labour Conference [1]

Convention No. 17: Workmen's Compensation (Accidents), 1925.

Mexico. — Ratification registered on 12 May 1934.

Nicaragua. — Ratification registered on 12 April 1934.

Poland. — The Minister of Social Welfare communicated to the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, for submission to the Council of Ministers, a Bill for the ratification of the Convention.

Convention No. 19: Equality of Treatment (Accident Compensation), 1925.

China. — Ratification registered on 27 April 1934.

Lithuania. — Ratification registered on 28 September 1934.

Mexico. — Ratification registered on 12 May 1934.

Nicaragua. — Ratification registered on 12 April 1934.

Convention No. 24: Sickness Insurance (Industry, etc.), 1927.

Nicaragua. — Ratification registered on 12 April 1934.

[1] The information given here relates only to 1934. See the tables appended to this volume for the general situation with regard to the Conventions concerning social insurance.

Convention No. 25: Sickness Insurance (Agriculture), 1927.

Nicaragua. — Ratification registered on 12 April 1927.

Recommendation No. 29: Sickness Insurance, 1927.

Communication to the Secretary-General of the League of Nations

France. — The Act respecting social insurance of 5 April 1928, as amended by the Acts of 5 August 1929, 30 April 1930, 31 March and 28 July 1931 and 31 March 1932, applies to a large extent the rules and principles adopted by the Conference as regards sickness insurance (26 March 1934).

Convention No. 35: Old-Age Insurance (Industry, etc.), 1933.

Convention No. 36: Old-Age Insurance (Agriculture), 1933.

Convention No. 37: Invalidity Insurance (Industry, etc.), 1933.

Convention No. 38: Invalidity Insurance (Agriculture), 1933.

Convention No. 39: Survivors' Insurance (Industry, etc), 1933.

Convention No. 40: Survivors' Insurance (Agriculture), 1933.

Australia. — Presented to the Commonwealth Parliament on 4 July 1934.

Brazil. — Submitted to the competent authorities.

Chile. — Conventions Nos. 35, 36, 37 and 38 were submitted to Congress for approval on 18 December 1934.

China. — The Government informed the Office that it agrees in principle with these Conventions. It is preparing an Insurance Act and the attention of the competent authorities has been drawn to the Conventions in question.

Denmark. — Submitted to the Rigsdag on 5 April 1934.

Estonia. — Submitted to the President of the Republic on 13 October 1934.

Finland. — Submitting these Conventions to Parliament in April 1934, the Government made a statement to the following effect: the introduction in Finland of the classes of insurance in question had been contemplated, but the authorities had intended to apply them as a national insurance scheme including small employers, whose position should from many points of view be regarded as similar to that of workers; the Conventions in question were however based on a different system; as it did not seem possible, at any rate for the time being, to set up in Finland insurance schemes of the kind for which the Conventions provided, the representatives of Finland at the Conference had abstained from voting in favour of the adoption of these Conventions; in these circumstances Finland could not ratify them, although in many respects they could serve as a basis when old-age, invalidity and survivors' insurance schemes came under consideration. The Government therefore consider that these Conventions could not at present be ratified by Finland.

France. — Submitted to the Chamber of Deputies on 8 March 1934. The competent services are considering the ratification of these Conventions.

Germany. — The Government informed the Office that as regards these Conventions it had fulfilled in June 1934 the obligations laid down in Article 405, paragraph 5, of the Treaty of Versailles.

Hungary. — On 13 December 1934 the Minister of the Interior submitted to the Chamber of Deputies a report in which he proposed that Conventions Nos. 35, 37 and 39 concerning old-age, invalidity and survivors' insurance in industry, etc., should not be embodied in Hungarian legislation.

India. — Resolutions were adopted, by the Legislative Assembly on 23 November 1933 and by the Council of State on 14 December 1933, recommending the Governor-General in Council not to ratify these Conventions.

Irish Free State. — Presented to the Dail and Senate on 6 February 1934.

Japan. — Submitted to the Privy Council on 22 December 1934.

Latvia. — Submitted to the Cabinet on 22 December 1934.

Netherlands. — In a note to the Second Chamber of the States-General in April 1934, the Government pointed out that the existing legislation respecting compulsory invalidity, old-age and survivors' insurance corresponded in its main lines with the provisions of the Conventions relating to compulsory insurance; nevertheless it could not yet decide as to the desirability of ratifying the Conventions, for an immediate settlement of this question would involve a final decision on several important points and in particular on the contribution of the State to insurance funds and to the non-contributory pension scheme. It therefore refrained from making any proposal as regards the ratification of the Conventions.

Norway. — In a report submitted to the Storting on 16 March 1934 the Minister of Social Affairs stated that the main object of these Conventions was to set up insurance schemes for the benefit of industrial and other workers and not a national insurance scheme similar to that contemplated hitherto in Norway. Since no legislation existed giving effect to the Conventions and it was uncertain when such legislation could be enacted, ratification of the Conventions must be postponed.

Portugal. — Submitted to the competent authorities on 2 March 1934.

Siam. — Referred to the competent authorities for consideration. While in sympathy with the objects underlying the Conventions, the Government is not in a position, under present circumstances, to take any action in the matter.

Spain. — Bills for the ratification of these Conventions were submitted to the Cortes on 18 December 1934.

Sweden. — In a report submitted on 16 February 1934 to the Riksdag the Minister of Social Affairs stated that the existing insurance legislation was undergoing revision and that the question of adapting national legislation to the Conventions concerning invalidity and old-age insurance would be examined in connection with this revision. These Conventions contained no principle which was incompatible with existing legislation. On only one point, the restriction of insurance to Swedish nationals, there seemed to be a pronounced divergence. No legislation corresponding to the Conventions concerning survivors' insurance existed in Sweden, but the Insurance Commission had been instructed to enquire into a question closely related to it, namely, the form of assistance which might be granted, apart from that which they already receive, to persons of very slight or no means of existence and with children to support. For these reasons the Minister of Social Affairs considered that the proposals which the Commission might make on this subject should be awaited before further examination of the ratification of the Conventions in question.

Switzerland. — In a report submitted to the Federal Assembly on 29 June 1934 the Federal Council proposed not to ratify these Conventions for the time being, particularly because the Swiss electorate, by its vote of 6 December 1931, had rejected a Federal Old-Age and Survivors' Insurance Act. Moreover, the provisional assistance scheme set up by the Confederation on 1 January 1934 for a period of four years, under section 30 of the Federal Decree of 13 October 1933, did not correspond with the provisions of the Conventions, nor could it be adapted to meet them. The Federal Council's report was approved by the Federal Assembly on 19 September 1934.

Union of South Africa. — Laid on the table of the two Houses of Parliament in February 1934 and submitted to the Executive Council on 21 May 1934. The Council decided that these Conventions should not be ratified, in view of the fact that there is no existing statutory provision enabling the Union to comply with the terms of the Conventions concerning invalidity and survivors' insurance and no present indication that the Government contemplates introducing the necessary legislation. As regards old-age insurance,

the Old Age Pensions Act, No. 22 of 1928, as amended by Act No. 33 of 1931, provides for the payment of non-contributory pensions to white and coloured persons who have attained the age of 65 years and whose total means do not exceed a prescribed sum. Natives are definitely excluded, under the definition of " coloured persons " in section 20 of the Act. " Natives " would not fall within the classes of workers covered by the exceptions allowed by Article 2, paragraph 2, of both Conventions. The application of these two Conventions in South Africa is therefore considered impracticable for the present.

Recommendation No. 43: Invalidity, Old-Age and Survivors' Insurance, 1933.

Communications to the Secretary-General of the League of Nations

Australia. — Presented to the Commonwealth Parliament on 4 July 1934 (16 July 1934).

India. — The Recommendation was submitted to the Legislative Assembly on 23 November 1933 and to the Council of State on 14 December 1933. Both Chambers adopted a resolution recommending the Governor-General in Council not to accept the Recommendation (17 January 1934).

Siam. — Referred to the competent authorities for consideration. While in sympathy with the objects underlying the Recommendation, the Government is not in a position, under present circumstances, to take any action in the matter (19 February 1934).

Sweden. — Submitted to the Riksdag by a Government resolution of 16 February 1934. The Government decided on 22 June 1934, with the agreement of the Riksdag, that as far as possible account should be taken of the Recommendation in connection with the revision, now in course, of the Pensions Act and with the introduction in Sweden of a survivors' insurance scheme (21 July 1934).

Other Information

Brazil. — Submitted to the competent authorities.

China. — The Government informed the Office that it agrees in principle with the Recommendation. It is preparing an Insurance Act and the attention of the competent authorities has been drawn to the Recommendation.

Denmark. — Submitted to the Rigsdag on 5 April 1934.

Estonia. — Submitted to the President of the Republic on 13 October 1934.

Finland. — The Government informed Parliament in April 1934 that since the Recommendation was of practical importance only in so far as the classes of insurance in question had already been established, it did not at present call for any action by Finland.

France. — Submitted to the Chamber of Deputies on 8 March 1934.

Germany. — The Government informed the Office that in respect of this Recommendation it had fulfilled in June 1934 the obligations laid down in Article 405, paragraph 5, of the Treaty of Versailles.

Hungary. — On 13 December 1934 the Minister of the Interior submitted to the Chamber of Deputies a report in which he proposed that the Recommendation should not be accepted.

Irish Free State. — Presented to the Dail and Senate on 6 February 1934.

Japan. — The Council of Ministers decided on 21 December 1934 not to adopt the Recommendation.

Latvia. — Submitted to the Cabinet on 22 December 1934.

Netherlands. — Submitted to the Second Chamber of the States-General in April 1934. Same observations as for the Convention.

Norway. — In a report submitted to the Storting on 16 March 1934 the Minister for Social Affairs stated that no legislation giving effect to the Recommendation existed and that it was uncertain when such legislation could be enacted.

Switzerland. — In a report submitted to the Federal Assembly on 29 June 1934 the Federal Council expressed the opinion that, since Switzerland could not at present institute insurance legislation for the categories in question, it was not necessary to decide at present on its attitude towards this Recommendation. When the principles of the future legislation came to be discussed it should be considered whether and, if necessary, to what extent the situation in Switzerland and the consequences of the legislation would make it possible to adopt the principles of the Recommendation. The Federal Council's report was approved by the Federal Assembly on 19 September 1934.

Union of South Africa. — Presented to Parliament in February 1934 and to the Executive Council on 21 May 1934.

Conclusions

How does social insurance stand to-day ? What is its position on the morrow of an unprecedented upheaval in production and international trade, at the dawn of what may well be a new phase in industrial and social development ? The sky, so black in recent years with menace for the future of social insurance, has cleared. Even when the depression was at its darkest, the institution gave proof of vitality and reactive power; and these brought it victory over the moves, made at moments of great mental disturbance and nervous strain, to restrict or even to suspend the force of insurance legislation; so that such retrograde proposals were dropped and no insurance scheme of vital importance to the workers was put out of operation during the year. The facility with which the insurance institutions adapted themselves to the possibilities of the moment, and their ability to meet needs born of transformation in the economic and social structure, very soon gave them back the leading part which they must inevitably play as a powerful stabilising factor. Thus 1934 was a year of consolidation and adjustment; but it was also one of improvement and of execution.

Consolidation. — The depression had dangerously undermined the financial foundations of social insurance, for the revenues of the schemes diminished with every fall in the number of persons employed and therefore required to contribute. Nor was this the only cause of loss: wages were cut, so that the contribution total gradually grew less; the authorities reduced their subsidies; and the income from invested reserves also decreased. All this was accompanied by a sharp rise in expenses, for the demands of the out-of-work insured forced benefits—and especially invalidity pensions—to a height above all expectation. To restore the balance, or at least to reduce the discrepancy between income and expenditure, a policy of cuts and economy had to be adopted; and it was the onerous task of the legislator on insurance and the bodies operating it to bring their institutions' finances back to health while respecting acquired rights and maintaining essential benefits. Many were the consolidation measures taken in 1934; but all that can be done here is, leaving aside administrative regulations and the provisions of internal rules, to refer to legislative

changes: these included the financial reconstruction of pension insurance in *Germany;* the restoration of budgetary equilibrium in the sickness and maternity schemes of *Czechoslovakia;* a reform of the corresponding insurance in *Poland;* and the financial consolidation of the occupational invalidity and old-age schemes in *Uruguay* by the raising and standardisation of contribution rates

Adjustment. — The structural changes in the economic system, technical progress, rationalisation, and manufacture by mass methods, made a pronounced reduction in the pensionable age desirable (in most general old-age schemes this age is 65). The steady increase in the length of human life is usually invoked as militating against such a reduction; while the resulting provision for a larger number of elderly workers and the consequent liberation of posts for the young is regarded as an argument in its favour. Despite opposition, vigorous measures to lower the pensionable age were actually taken in a few countries: it must suffice here to refer to the most far-reaching—the introduction of " social pensions " in the *Czechoslovak* salaried employees' insurance scheme. These pensions are granted after a year's unbroken unemployment to men of 56 and women of 54, provided they are engaged in no gainful occupation whatever, in employment or on their own account; while, as a rider, the old-age pensions hitherto automatically granted to men of 65 and women of 60, are made conditional—that is, they become payable only if the pensioner ceases insurable employment. The same object is behind the provisions introduced in other countries with a view to preventing the simultaneous receipt of a pension over a certain amount and the enjoyment of a remunerated post: such provisions either prohibit the employment of the pensioner without official authorisation (as in *Luxemburg*), or suspend the pension while remunerated employment continues (as in *Uruguay*).

Another group of extensive adjustment measures put into effect in 1934 maintain the validity of contributions paid by or on behalf of insured persons who go through long periods of unemployment. In *Czechoslovakia* such persons benefit by a five-year period of grace, during which the rights they are in course of acquiring are automatically retained: in *Germany* rights in course of acquisition under pension insurance schemes are maintained indefinitely in exchange for a uniform fee paid over by the unemployment insurance institution; and in *Great Britain* approved health insurance societies have used a large part of their surplus funds to cancel the arrears of contributions owed by their unemployed members.

Improvement. — Social insurance is closely bound up with the economic system in general and must share its lot whatever that may be. The schemes suffered acutely from this connection in the darkest days of the slump, but in exchange they are now benefiting directly and automatically from the increase in the volume of production and the recovery of trade and transport. There are many instances of effective improvement in conditions as a result of economic recovery and without legislative intervention: in

Chile the value of the insurance stamps sold rose from 40 million pesos in 1933 to 50 million in 1934, that is, by 25 per cent.; in *Germany* the membership of the sickness funds rose by 10 per cent. during 1934, while the value of the contributions received by the workers' pension insurance institution increased by 160 million RM., or 23 per cent. (the corresponding figure for the salaried employees' pension institution was 22 million RM., or 9 per cent.); and in *Great Britain* sales of health and pension insurance stamps during the first ten months of 1934 were greater by £1,600,000 than during the corresponding period of 1933, and indicated some 20 million more weeks of employment. Other instances of improvement, less pronounced but none the less characteristic, may be seen in the average membership of sickness insurance schemes for 1934, many of which show increases over the 1933 figures (as in *Hungary*, *Latvia* and *Yugoslavia*), or at least are seen, once account has been taken of seasonal fluctuations, to have remained unchanged.

Execution. — The progress registered in 1934 may be attributed partly to decisions taken in previous years and partly to more recent measures. Some instances are given below.

Argentina: Improvement in maternity protection, the distribution of benefits in cash and in kind being entrusted to the National Pension Fund.

Australia: Increase in maternity allowances.

Brazil: Introduction of compulsory invalidity, old-age and survivors' insurance for commercial employees, banks staffs and coffee warehousemen; and reform of the legislation relating to compensation for industrial accidents, which was extended to cover all persons employed in industry, commerce, agriculture and domestic service.

Canada: Enforcement of a non-contributory old-age pension scheme in Nova Scotia.

Cuba: Improvement in benefits under the scheme of workmen's compensation for industrial accidents and its extension to cover workers in commercial and small industrial undertakings.

Czechoslovakia: Increase in pensions in course of payment and future pensions under the workers' invalidity, old-age and survivors' insurance scheme, and reduction of the pensionable age for widows from 65 to 60.

Denmark: Effect given to the reform of the social services decided on in March 1933; its principal features are an increase in sickness insurance benefit and the extension of compulsory invalidity insurance to cover the whole population from 16 to 65 years of age.

France: Provisional arrangements made for the financing of invalidity insurance, permitting benefits to be paid without an increase in contributions; confirmation by Decree of the extension of invalidity insurance to cover workers employed in agriculture.

Great Britain: Introduction of compulsory accident insurance for owners of coal mines.

Greece: The Act of 1932 relating to compulsory sickness, invalidity, old-age and survivors' insurance was revised in October 1934.

Estonia: Extension of the compulsory accident compensation scheme to cover seamen.

Irish Free State: The unification of national health insurance decided on in 1933 was completed and its administration placed in the hands of a single new society with monopoly rights.

Italy: The establishment of a National Federation of Sickness Benefit Funds for Industrial Workers.

Japan: Extension of compulsory sickness insurance to cover all industrial undertakings normally employing five persons or more.

New Zealand: Five per cent. increase in non-contributory old-age pensions (partial restoration of the cuts made by the Act of 1932).

Poland: Extension of compulsory invalidity, old-age and survivors' insurance for industrial and commercial workers over the whole of Polish territory.

Rumania: Enforcement of the 1933 Act to unify social insurance; extension of the compulsory old-age scheme over the whole of Rumanian territory

Union of South Africa: Reform of the legislation relating to workmen's compensation for industrial accidents; this includes the institution of compulsory insurance for employers.

Uruguay: Extension of invalidity, old-age, survivors' and unemployment insurance to cover all persons employed in industry and commerce.

U.S.S.R.: Increase in the social insurance estimates from 4,430 million roubles in 1933 to 5,050 million roubles in 1934 (14 per cent.).

Yugoslavia: Extension of compulsory invalidity, old-age and survivors' insurance for salaried employees to include employees of seagoing shipping undertakings.

The year 1934 was one of planning and preparation, as well as of consolidation and action. The countries which had let themselves drift, one after another, into a state of lethargy, stifling initiative and spreading panic in its place, recovered their senses; and men returned to the habit of viewing existent obstacles realistically, neither exaggerating nor minimising their seriousness.

The spread of the conviction, now generally held, that a remedy for economic upheavals must be systematically sought and applied, as far as possible in advance, has thrown into relief a truth which promoters of social insurance had already recognised; this is, that no efficacious protection can be obtained except by means of solidarity, and that such solidarity must be secured on the lines of a well-founded plan. The hard-learned lessons of the depression have won more credit for this truth, and to-day a programme of economic recovery or reconstruction is inconceivable without a system of social security providing for a wide and just distribution of consuming power and protecting the workers and their families against the risks of life.

This conviction lies behind the Message which the President of the *United States of America* sent to Congress in June 1934. Mr. Roosevelt then expounded his programme for economic and social action, of which security is the essential aim. A more recent Presidential Message of January 1935, which indicated the legislation to be issued immediately, recommended—apart from unemployment insurance—a compulsory old-age annuities scheme with contributions from workers and their employers, supplemented by a general scheme of non-contributory old-age pensions with a subsidy from the Federal Government; while the report of the Committee on Economic Security, which accompanied the Message, states that "illness is one of the major causes of economic insecurity which threatens people of small means in good times as in bad",

and, pending the preparation of a definitive plan, traces the main lines of a wide compulsory sickness insurance scheme. The United States is thus committed to a social insurance policy, though this, at the stage it has now reached, is not considered in that country as a panacea for every form of economic and social insecurity.

There has been a renewal of interest in social insurance, and new proofs of attachment to it have been forthcoming in many countries. In *Argentina* it is proposed to extend invalidity and survivors' insurance to the occupations not yet covered; in *Australia* a scheme for compulsory insurance has been floated; in *Austria* the reform of salaried employees' insurance has been very thoroughly considered; in *Brazil* it is proposed to extend and unify pension insurance in conformity with the Federal Constitution of 1934; in *Canada* a scheme to extend social insurance is under examination; in *Finland* the competent Minister has made a statement favourable to social insurance; in *Iceland* there is a plan for workers' insurance covering all social risks; in *Japan* the unification of industrial accident compensation schemes is being considered, as well as the introduction of supplementary insurance; in *Norway* invalidity insurance is gaining public opinion; in *Peru* a draft Labour Code has been prepared, providing for an industrial accident compensation scheme and a general system of insurance against sickness, invalidity, old-age, and death; and in the *U.S.S.R.* a pronounced rise in the membership and revenue of social insurance institutions forms part of the second Five-Year Plan.

These few instances, in themselves of varying significance and scope, all evince the same state of mind—a realisation of the need for change and improvement in the social conditions of to-day.

In every country social insurance once again bulks large in the minds of those responsible for the lives of their fellow-men; its development is the new social order's best guarantee of security; and the security so obtained, collectively organised and firmly founded, will be genuine.

CHAPTER IV

REMUNERATION OF LABOUR

The Movement of Wages

The tendency towards stability of wages at the end of 1933 which was noted in the last issue of the *Year-Book* continued in 1934, and as a rule only slight changes were recorded. The data given in Volume II: "Labour Statistics" furnish detailed information on the fluctuations in the general level of wages and in different industries. A few of the salient figures are reproduced below.

Manufacturing Industries, Mining, etc.

The following table shows the index numbers of industrial wages (both money wages and real wages) in 1932, 1933 and 1934, taking the year 1929 as base = 100. They are approximate only and owing to the methods of combination of the series for different industries, and for other reasons, strict comparisons either in time or internationally are not possible. Most of these index numbers are based on hourly wages (rates or earnings) or on wage rates for a normal week, i.e. wages for a fixed unit of time of work, and do not take account of the effect of short time, overtime and other factors which may influence the level of actual income of the worker.

Among the countries considered, wages fell slightly in 1934 in Belgium, Canada, Czechoslovakia, Italy, Netherlands and Poland; in Australia, Great Britain, New Zealand, the Union of South Africa, and the United States there was a slight rise; in the other countries for which data are available there was practically no change. In Japan the slight increase of daily earnings was probably connected with a similar small increase in hours worked, so that the earnings per hour may be considered as practically unchanged. Real wages, i.e. money wages expressed in terms of purchasing power as measured by cost-of-living index numbers —an approximate measure only, owing to the reservations which attach to these index numbers—show fluctuations differing somewhat from those of money wages. The fall in the cost of living having generally been greater than the reduction in wages, real wages were somewhat higher in the years 1932 to 1934 than they were in 1929. In 1934, however, the fall in the cost of living slackened or even reversed its movement in many countries, so that real wages were on the whole slightly lower than in 1933.

France, Italy and Poland were among the few countries where, the cost of living having continued to fall in 1934, real wages went on rising. In the United States the rise in real wages was smaller than in money wages.

INDEX NUMBERS OF INDUSTRIAL WAGES [1]

(money and real wages)

(Base: 1929 = 100)

Country	Nature of data	Money wages			Real wages [2]		
		1932	1933	1934	1932	1933	1934
ustralia	Hourly rates	84	81	82 [7]	104	104	103 [7]
elgium	Hourly earnings	92	90	86 *	111	109	108 *
anada	Hourly rates	94	90	89	116	115 *	113 *
zechoslovakia (Prague)	Hourly minimum rates	103	102	100	109	110	108
enmark	Hourly earnings	102	102+	102 [7]	114	110 *	109* [7]
rance (Paris) [3]	Hourly rates	104	104	104	110	111	112
ermany	Hourly rates	82	79	79* [7]	104	104	101* [7]
reat Britain and N. Ireland	Weekly rates	96	95	96	110	112	111
ungary	Daily earnings	84	78	—	(100)	(101)	—
aly	Hourly earnings	86	84	82	104	106	109
apan: (*a*)	Daily earnings	85	86	88	(112)	(107)	(107)
,, (*b*)	,, ,,	92	91	92	(123)	(113)	(113) [7]
etherlands	Hourly earnings	93	89	87 [7]	(111)	(107)	(104) [7]
ew Zealand	Weekly minimum rates	86	82	83	102	104	103
orway [4]	Daily earnings	96	95	95	107	108	107
oland	Hourly earnings	85	78	74	(111)	(112)	(113)
weden	Hourly earnings	102	98	—	110	108	—
witzerland [5]	Hourly earnings	98	97	—	114	119	—
nion of S. Africa [6]	Weekly rates	93	94	95 *	104	108	107 *
nited States (*c*)	Hourly earnings	84	83+	99 *	108	111 *	124 *
,, ,, (*c*)	Weekly earnings	60	62+	71 *	77	83 *	89 *
,, ,, (*d*)	,, ,,	69	68	75	88	88	94 *

(*a*) Bank of Japan series. (*b*) Statistical Office of the Imperial Cabinet series. (*c*) National Industrial ference Board series. (*d*) Bureau of Labor Statistics series.

[1] The figures relate to all workers (or to men only), employed mainly in mines and industry, but in certain branches of commerce, transport or public services; for two countries (Great Britain and Zealand) agriculture is included. See Vol. II: "Labour Statistics" for the sources and methods of pilation of these figures.

[2] Figures computed by applying the national cost-of-living index numbers to the index numbers oney wages; for Hungary, Japan, Netherlands and Poland (figures in brackets), the cost-of-living xes used refer to one town only (Budapest, Tokyo, Amsterdam and Warsaw).

[3] October figures for each year.

[4] Figures for the third quarter of each year.

[5] Skilled and semi-skilled men only.

[6] Figures for 30 September each year.

[7] Averages based on a part of the year only.

* Provisional figures.

It should be emphasised, however, that the figures quoted relate to wages for a fixed unit of time of work and do not show the changes in the earnings of the workers in employment. Nor do they reflect the changes in the total income of the working classes, since they take no account of workers who are wholly unemployed. Unfortunately, statistics of weekly earnings for workers in employment are only available for a few countries and at irregular intervals,

but such as are available seem to indicate that earnings compared with 1929 have declined more than hourly wages. Figures for the United States are available for both hourly and weekly earnings since 1929, and they show that whereas hourly real wages were 24 per cent. higher in 1934 than in 1929, weekly real earnings were about 6 per cent. lower due to the reduction in hours actually worked. As will be seen from the chapter on unemployment (Chapter V), there was a definite improvement in the situation in 1934 as compared with 1933 and though it is still true, as stated in the 1933 issue of the *Year-Book*, that there has been a definite decline in the purchasing power of the working classes since 1929, there appears to have been some improvement in this respect during 1934 as compared with 1933.

Agriculture

The data concerning wages in agriculture are more difficiult to compile and to compare than industrial wages, owing to the special features of this industry. Agriculture is still the world's greatest " industry ", and in view of the lack of systematic information on the remuneration of agricultural workers a special study of agricultural wages during recent years was made by the Office in 1934, and the results were published in two articles in the *International Labour Review* (November and December 1934). The special difficulties of obtaining comparable statistics on agricultural wages resulting from the systems of hiring, the practice of granting free board and lodging, and other reasons prevent the drawing of very definite conclusions. The principal results of the above-mentioned enquiry are given in Volume II: " Labour Statistics "; the following table has been drawn up on the same lines as the previous table, the movement of wages since 1929 being expressed in the form of index numbers; allowance has been made where possible for payments in kind.

The available data relate sometimes to hourly or daily wages (cash wages or total wages) sometimes to weekly, monthly or yearly wages. In the former case they make no allowance for the degree of employment, and other important reservations attach to the figures. It can be concluded, however, that agricultural wages have felt the force of the depression since 1929 more than industrial wages. In the United States and Canada, farm wages fell in 1933 to a little over half their level in 1929, in many other countries they fell to less than three-fourths of this level. In 1934, there seems to have been a slight improvement in the situation of the agricultural labourer in most countries. No data are given for real wages in agriculture, since cost-of-living index numbers apply generally to urban areas, where price movements may take a different course from that in the country. Moreover the wage data often include an estimate for the value of board and lodging which renders the calculation of real wage index numbers very difficult.

INDEX NUMBERS OF AGRICULTURAL WAGES [1]
(money wages of male workers)

(Base: 1929 = 100) [2]

Country	Category of workers	Nature of data	Index numbers of money wages		
			1932	1933	1934
ustralia . . .	All, generally with board and lodging	Weekly total wages	80	77	76 [10]
anada	Permanent, with board and lodging	Yearly total wages	54	51	54
enmark . . .	Farm servants, with board and lodging	Yearly cash wages	88 [3]	88 [3]	94
	Day labourers without board or lodging	Daily cash wages	91 [4]	94 [4]	94 [4]
ngland and Wales	Ordinary, generally with board and lodging	Weekly total min. wages	98 [5]	97 [5]	98 [5]
stonia	Permanent, with board and lodging	Yearly cash wages	59	53	61
inland	" Deputatists ", without board, with lodging	Yearly total wages	80	77	79
	Day labourers, without board or lodging	Daily cash wages	68 [4]	67 [4]	72 [4]
rance	Farm servants, with board and lodging	Daily total wages	*100*	*	*
ungary	Day labourers, without board or lodging	Daily cash wages	63	47	—
ish Free State .	Permanent, without board or lodging	Weekly cash wages	94 [6]	89 [6]	84 [6]
aly	Day labourers, generally without board or lodging	Hourly total wages	75 [7]	73 [7]	73 [7]
apan	Permanent, with board and lodging	Yearly total wages	*74*	*77*	—
	Day labourers, with board and lodging	Daily total wages	*68*	*69*	—
atvia.	Farm servants, with board and lodging	Yearly cash wages	63 [3]	61 [3]	64 [3]
ithuania . . .	Permanent, with board and lodging	Yearly total wages	91	68	61
	Day labourers, without board or lodging	Daily cash wages	73 [6]	69 [6]	55 [6]*
ew Zealand . .	All, generally with board and lodging	Weekly total wages	70	64	66
orway	Farm servants, with board and lodging	Yearly cash wages	82	85	—
	Day labourers, without board or lodging	Daily cash wages	83 [8]	80 [8]	—
oland	" Deputatists ", without board, with lodging	Yearly total wages	70 [9]	67 [9]	—
weden	All, with or without board and lodging	Yearly total wages	92	91	—
nited States . .	Permanent and day, with or without board and lodging	Monthly cash wages	50	47	51 [3]

[1] For the sources and methods of compilation of these figures, see Vol. II: "Labour Statistics".
[2] Except for index numbers in italics, for which the base is 1930.
[3] 1 May to 30 April.
[4] Summer figures.
[5] September figures.
[6] July figures.
[7] June figures.
[8] Harvest figures.
[9] 1 April to 31 March.
[10] Averages based on a part of the year only.
* Provisional figures.

Wage Policy

In the following pages a brief review is given of outstanding developments in wage policy in a number of countries.

Particular interest attaches to two types of development. In the first place, the year 1934 yielded evidence, in the form of partial restorations of emergency wage reductions, that in some countries at least the worst stage of the depression, from the point of view of the employed wage earner, was past. At the same time, it is to be noted that in many countries the average level of wages remained stationary or declined slightly; and in some, as the following notes record, deflationary measures were applied.

A second feature to be noted was the development of minimum wage legislation. It is well known that a prolonged depression, with the severe competition in cost reduction to which it leads, imposes an exceptional strain on established wage rates, particularly on those of unorganised workers. Where no legislation exists for the protection of such groups, cases of sweating inevitably arise and even where minimum rates are prescribed by legislation or by legally constituted tribunals, the strict enforcement of such minima is apt to be particularly difficult. The experience of the past few years has afforded many examples of these difficulties and attention has been directed in many countries to the desirability of introducing or strengthening legislation for the protection of minimum wages. An outstanding example of action taken was recorded in the *Year-Book* for 1933 in sections dealing with the industrial codes in the United States[1].

During 1934 further progress in setting standards of minimum wages in the United States was made under the codes and by the enforcement of recent legislation providing for minimum wages for women workers. Extensive enquiries into the adequacy of existing machinery were set on foot in Canada, Finland and South Africa, and legislation providing for the enforcement of agreed or determined minima was adopted or revised in Australia, Canada, Great Britain, Lithuania and Mexico. Moreover steps were taken in Costa Rica to fix minimum wages for various classes of workers; in Czechoslovakia, to protect the wage rates fixed under existing collective agreements; and in Finland, to bring about a rise in the wages of lumber workers.

Australia. — In view of the importance attached to wage reductions as an element in the policy adopted in Australia for dealing with the depression, it is of special interest to note the signs of a partial recovery in wages and salaries in that country in 1934.

The basic real wage set by the Commonwealth Arbitration Court, the most important of the wage-fixing tribunals, had been reduced in January 1931, under the stress of depression conditions, by 10 per cent. In May 1933, as indicated in the *Year-Book* for

[1] Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1933*, e.g. pp. 227 *et seq.*

1933[1], a new method of adjustment for changes in the cost of living was adopted, and a restoration of some 6 per cent. was made. By a decision of 17 April 1934, the Court made a further change in the method of determining the basic wage. It rescinded the 10 per cent. reduction Order of 1931, but at the same time adopted a new index of the cost of living, and decided to abolish a special allowance of 3s. which had been included in the basic wage since 1922 as a compensation for the lag in adjusting wages to higher costs of living. The new cost-of-living index covers food, groceries, houses of four to five rooms, clothing, and miscellaneous expenditure.

The net result of the decision was an increase in wages substantially less than would have been involved in the restoration of the rates in force prior to January 1931, and ranging from 7d. in Sydney to 6s. 9d. in Perth. The basic rate actually fixed averaged 66s. per week for the six capital cities, and came into force on 1 May 1934. Certain exemptions from the new award were allowed in view of the difficulties of particular industries (including the pastoral industry); and an important change from the previous practice of the Court was made by the inclusion of a special provision allowing State legislatures freedom, within certain limits, to reduce the wages of employees in Government enterprises below the rates fixed by the Court.

An important enlargement of the field of influence of the Commonwealth Arbitration Court was made by new legislation in Victoria. An amendment to the Factories and Shops Act of that State provides that awards of the Federal Arbitration Court shall, wherever practicable, be adopted by the State wages boards. This provision, which is expected in effect to make awards of the Commonwealth Court, including the wages provisions of such awards, a " common rule " throughout Victoria in the industries to which they relate, is designed to eliminate the difficulties hitherto caused by the co-existence of Federal and State systems of industrial regulation applying to the same industries.

Civil servants' salaries also benefited from the measure of business recovery apparent in Australia in 1934. Provision was made during the year in the budgets of the Commonwealth, New South Wales, Tasmania, Victoria and Western Australia for a partial restoration of the cuts made in 1931 in wages and salaries in the public service; and a similar restoration was made in Queensland by the Industrial Court. In the case of the Commonwealth, where the emergency reductions had ranged from 1 to 24 per cent. in real value, the Financial Relief Act, 1934, restored in full the emergency reductions on all salaries up to the nominal scale of £388 per annum. (A restoration of 2½ per cent., plus amounts ranging up to £8, had already been made in 1933 in the case of all salaries.) In New South Wales, where certain restorations had already been made in 1933 in the case of small salaries, provision was made for a restoration of

[1] Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1933*, p. 225.

one-fifth of the emergency cuts. In Victoria, one-quarter of the reductions (which ranged from 14½ to 27 per cent.) was to be restored, and in Tasmania one-half. In Western Australia, where the reductions ranged from 18 to 22 per cent., employees whose salaries previous to the reduction were £500 a year or less were removed from the scope of the Financial Emergency Act, 1931, and made subject to variations in the basic wage as declared by the Arbitration Court. In the case of salaries above £500, the first £500 will now vary with the basic wage, and only the remainder will continue to be subject to the emergency deductions. In Queensland, where the jurisdiction of the Industrial Court over civil servants had been re-established, the Court granted increases amounting to approximately 2 per cent. in the case of wages, and restored one-fourth of the 1931 reductions (which ranged from 15 to 20 per cent.) in salaries.

Canada. — There were a number of developments during 1934 in the legislation of the various Provinces with regard to minimum wage fixing.

In British Columbia the minimum wage legislation, adopted in 1918 for women and in 1925 for men, was revised by two new Acts. Under the Male Minimum Wage Act of 1934, the scope of the legislation has been extended so as to include all adult male employees in any industry, business, trade or occupation with the exception of farm labourers and domestic servants. The Female Minimum Wage Act of 1934, like the previous Act, applies to all female employees in any industry, business, trade or occupation with the exception of domestic servants, fruit pickers and farm labourers. Both Acts are administered by a new Board of Industrial Relations, consisting of the Deputy Minister of Labour, the Chairman of the Economic Council and three other members, of whom one must be a woman. The Board is empowered to hold such enquiries as it considers adequate and to make Orders fixing minimum wages for male and for female employees; in the case of females, it is also empowered to fix hours and conditions of labour. Orders covering a number of different trades have already been made under the Acts.

In Manitoba the Minimum Wage Act, which formerly applied only to boys under 18 years and to women, was extended so as to apply to all workers employed in mail-order houses, offices, places of amusement, shops and factories. The amending Act also provides that the scope of the Act may be further extended by Order in Council, and advantage has been taken of this provision to make it applicable to all employees in hotels, restaurants, etc. Moreover under a general Order governing the employment of all persons over 18, with certain exceptions, minimum wage rates have been fixed at 12 dollars per week of 48 hours or 25 cents per hour in the principal towns and 10 dollars per week or 21 cents per hour in any other part of the Province.

In New Brunswick the Forest Operations Commission Act, 1934, provided for the establishment of a Commission of three members,

with power to fix minimum wages in the lumbering industry. The Commission has already fixed wage scales for certain categories of workers.

In Ontario various amendments were made to the women's Minimum Wage Act, including one designed to prevent the displacement of female by male labour at lower wages, and another to set the maximum number of working hours to which the minimum wages apply. Moreover, the Government announced that the present minimum wage legislation was to be replaced by a new Act which would provide for the fixing of minimum wages in each industry for both men and women.

In Saskatchewan the Minimum Wage Act, which formerly applied only to female shop and factory employees, was amended to provide for making it applicable to male employees in shops and factories.

In Quebec an Act respecting the extension of collective labour agreements, adopted on 20 April 1934, empowers the Lieutenant-Governor in Council to order that a collective agreement made between associations of employers and employees shall be binding upon all employers and employees in the same trade or industry. The wages and hours provisions of the agreement (but not the other provisions) then become obligatory on all the persons concerned. In October 1934 it was announced by the Minister of Labour that over 100,000 workers in Quebec already benefited from the legal protection of their wages afforded by the Act. Various amendments were made to the Women's Minimum Wage Act, including a provision that no male worker shall be employed on work which, in the opinion of the Minimum Wage Commission, is ordinarily and by custom performed by women, at a wage less than that fixed by an Order of the Commission for female employees on such work.

Finally, in Alberta the Trade and Industry Act, 1934, which came into force by proclamation on 19 October 1934, provides, *inter alia*, for the promotion of conferences of representatives of those engaged or employed in any trade so as to remedy any harmful conditions. The powers of such conferences include the fixing of minimum wage standards which, if accepted by 66 per cent. of those engaged in the trade or by persons owning 66 per cent. of the capital invested in the trade, may be made binding on every person carrying on the trade. The Act applies to wholesale and retail traders, druggists, printers, restaurant keepers, dry cleaners, barbers, hairdressers, and plumbing, heating and sanitary engineers, but does not apply to the retail sale of second-hand goods, repossessed goods, damaged or perishable goods, or to goods advertised in *bona fide* mail-order catalogues and sold in the ordinary course of the *bona fide* mail-order business.

Costa Rica. — The President appointed a Committee of representatives of employers and workers, under the direction of the Department of Labour, to fix minimum wages for all workers throughout the country; and it was announced in April 1934 that

the Committee would begin its work immediately, and would shortly be in a position to submit a draft Minimum Wage Bill to the competent Minister.

Czechoslovakia. — Measures were taken during 1934 to protect the level of wages and salaries. By a Decree of 15 June 1934,the validity of existing collective labour agreements was extended to 1 May 1935. In the case of collective agreements which expired or were terminated between 1 January 1933 and 27 June 1934 (the date on which the Decree came into force), it was stipulated that the wage rates effective on 27 June 1934 should remain in force unless new agreements were concluded.

A Decree of 22 December 1934 restored 30 per cent. of the cuts in civil servants' salaries which were made in 1932 and 1933 as a consequence of the depression.

Dominican Republic. — Legislation was adopted in August 1934 to put an end to the practice of paying wages otherwise than in the legal currency of the country. The Act provides that payment of wages in tokens or counters may be made only with the approval of the Department of Labour and Communications, and subject to the following conditions: the tokens or counters may be used only for payment of wages in advance; the employer will be required to exchange the tokens or counters on the date fixed for the payment of wages for their nominal value in the currency of the country; the date of payment of wages must be announced in advance, and the period between two payments may not exceed fifteen days; these conditions must be indicated distinctly on the tokens or counters used for payment.

Finland. — Important recommendations concerning wage policy and public works were made in October 1934 in the report of the Committee on Wage Regulation appointed in January 1934 to consider the possibility and expediency of adjusting the wage level of workers in private undertakings by means of Government action.

The Committee, which consisted of representatives of the Government, employers and workers, found that real wages had fallen during the depression in the lumber trade, seasonal agricultural work, sawmilling and building; while in other industries they had remained stationary or occasionally increased. There were relatively few cases in which local authorities had been obliged to come to the aid of families whose breadwinners had employment but were not adequately païd. Consequently, while considering it desirable that the Government should take steps to influence wages, the Committee reported against the introduction of minimum wage legislation. It was held that the abuses discovered did not justify the abandonment of the principle that wages should find their own level, at least until other expedients had been tried. The following proposals were formulated: (1) that work organised and subsidised by the Government should be restricted during economic boom periods and expanded during periods of depression and that a special fund should

be established to that effect; (2) that the unemployed should be drafted to ordinary public works in the first instance and only as an emergency measure to special relief works; (3) that in the event of a fall in wages owing to depression the rates paid by the Government on ordinary public works should correspond to the highest current in private employment; (4) that the Government should determine the level of wages paid by private contractors executing public works and see that the contract price is not so low as to prevent the employer from paying adequate wages; (5) that when the wages paid in any district are manifestly too low, the Government should either publish the details or organise public works in the district, in order to cause an increase; the Government should not, however, interfere in labour disputes which have already led to strikes.

Certain of the recommendations have been accepted by the Government. Regulations will be drafted on the subject of the wages to be paid by employers working under public works contracts. The Government has been empowered to use certain funds for public works in districts where the wage level is too low, but the Minister of Communications has stated that this power will be used only in cases in which particularly objectionable conditions have been found to exist and the employers have rejected every proposal for an increase in wages. With a view to establishing more effective supervision of the wages of lumber workers, the Ministry of Communications and Public Works appointed eleven district inspectors with a chief inspector to direct their work and make recommendations for necessary action. When the wages paid in a district are considered to be too low, the Ministry of Communications and Public Works may negotiate with employers for an increase in wages; if the negotiations are fruitless, the facts will be made public. According to an interim report by the chief inspector in January 1935, the inspectors, who took up their duties in December, had so far investigated 80 camps and reported a general rise in wages ranging from 5 to 20 per cent. as compared with the previous winter. Action was deemed necessary in 16 cases. As a rule, employers had complied with the inspectors' recommendations for revised wage rates, but difficulties had arisen with sub-contractors, who were not always able to pay adequate wages.

France. — The salaries of civil servants were reduced in 1934 as a result of the Act of 23 December 1933, which was adopted for the purpose of balancing the budget. The reductions ranged from 2 per cent. of the portion in excess of 12,000 francs in the case of salaries between 12,000 and 15,000 francs to 8 per cent. of the portion in excess of 12,000 francs in the case of salaries over 100,000 francs. The portion exempt from the reduction was increased by 3,000 francs for the third and each subsequent child. The reductions were to be reconsidered every six months, and to be reduced when the economies made amounted to 175 million francs.

Germany. — The National Labour Regulation Act of 20 January 1934 repealed from 1 May 1934 the previous legislation on collective

agreements and established the application of National-Socialist principles in regard to wage policy. The head of the undertaking and his staff settle between them all wage questions in the same way as they deal with any other social questions. Further, the Act empowers the labour trustees to issue collective rules, which establish minimum conditions and may be applied to groups of undertakings.

Even before the application of this new Act, the Government had stated that the abolition of collective agreements must in no case give rise to any arbitrary determination of conditions of employment. It added that it regarded the maintenance of the stability of the wage level to be an important matter, and that any fluctuation in earnings must be harmful as long as millions of German workers were still out of employment.

As a matter of fact, during 1934 wage rates remained unchanged. But the cost of living, which at first was unaffected, afterwards rose slightly, largely owing to the increase in agricultural prices, and by the end of the year the level was 3.8 per cent. above the minimum figure reached in 1933. The Government has introduced a strict control of prices, so as to prevent any further fall in the purchasing power of workers.

The total income of the workers in 1924 did not reach a figure corresponding to the increase in employment, although normally it ought even to have exceeded that level slightly, in view of the lengthening of the average working day. According to the Federal Statistical Office, this discrepancy is to be explained by the fact that the total salaries of public officials and higher grade salaried employees again fell slightly, and the further fact that workers who have been reabsorbed in employment usually earn comparatively low wages.

Great Britain. — The gradual decline in the general level of wage rates which had been in progress since the early months of 1927 was arrested in 1934, the net effect of the changes reported during the year having been a rise, estimated at about one per cent., in the average level of weekly full-time rates of wages. Over the same period there was a slight rise in the cost of living. Public servants also benefited during 1934 by a partial restoration of the reductions in salaries effected during 1931.

In the field of minimum wage fixing an important development was the passage in June 1934 of the Cotton Manufacturing Industry (Temporary Provisions) Act, designed to make agreed rates of wages legally enforceable in the industry. The Act empowers an organisation of employers representative of the employers controlling a majority of the looms in the industry, and an organisation of workers representative of a majority of the persons employed in the industry of any grade or grades, to make a joint application to the Minister of Labour for the issue of an Order giving statutory effect to any agreement made between them as to rates of wages. On receiving such an application the Minister is to appoint a board of three persons, which must enquire whether the organisations

which are parties to the agreement are representative to the extent required by the Act of the employers and of the class or classes of workers affected, and further whether it is expedient that an Order be made. The members of the board may not be connected with the industry, but each of the organisations which are parties to the application is entitled to appoint six of its members as assessors. Provision is made for the fixing of a period within which objections may be sent to the Minister in writing. If such objections are sustained, the board must duly consider them and may hear the persons concerned for the purpose. Any recommendation by the board that an Order be made must be unanimous. On receiving such a unanimous recommendation from the board, the Minister of Labour may make an Order, which is to set out the rates of wages thereby brought into force and any provisions of the agreement as to the conditions for earning or the method of calculating such wages; the Order may also contain further provisions, if necessary, to make plain who are the employers and the classes of employed persons affected by it. An employer paying less than the rates applicable under the Order will become liable to a fine not exceeding £10.

Italy. — As part of a general plan to bring down prices and the cost of living, the Government in April 1934 announced reductions in the salaries of civil servants in receipt of 500 lire or more per month. The reductions ranged from 6 per cent. for salaries between 500 and 1,000 lire per month, to 12 per cent. for those over 20,000 lire, and 20 per cent. in the case of members of the Government. At the same time, measures were taken to reduce by 12 per cent. the rents of dwellings and by 10 per cent. the prices of food products in the special shops for public employees. Various other price reductions, it is stated, were carried out by trade associations and municipalities. The Confederation of Liberal and Artistic Professions decided on a reduction in professional fees; and in June 1934 an agreement for the reduction of wages was concluded by the Confederations representing shipowners and seamen, the reduction being 6 per cent. for the crews of cargo vessels and 10 per cent. for those of passenger vessels. In the case of agricultural workers, the statistics of average hourly rates of wages show a slight decline in 1934 as compared with 1933.

Workers in industry were affected by the introduction of the 40-hour week with no change in hourly rates of wages.

Lithuania. — The legislation relating to minimum wage rates was amended by an Act of 27 September 1934, which provides that the wages of industrial workers may not be lower than rates fixed in agreement with the Factory Inspectorate. Each employer is required to submit his wage sheets to the district inspector, and if the latter refuses his approval or if his instructions are not followed by the employer, rates will be fixed by a special Board set up at the Ministry of the Interior. This Board is composed of the Chief Inspector of Factories (Chairman) and two other members

appointed by the Minister, one representing employers and the other workers.

The same procedure is to be followed when changes are made in wage rates. The district factory inspector is empowered to require amendment of the rates; and if the employer does not comply, minimum rates will be fixed by the Board and approved by the Minister of the Interior.

Mexico. — Provision for the appointment of inspectors to enforce the legislation on minimum wages was made by a Decree of 1 February 1934. As sufficient funds were not available to permit the appointment of a special staff of inspectors, the Decree empowered the Department of Labour to nominate as minimum wage inspectors the officials of certain public departments. About 10,000 officials were to be thus nominated.

Minimum wage rates have, it is reported, been fixed in practically all the municipalities of the various States and range from 0.50 to 3.50 pesos per day.

Netherlands. — The salaries of civil servants, which had already been reduced by from 2½ to 5 per cent. in 1932, were further reduced from 1 January 1934. The reduction on all salaries, wages and allowances (except family allowances) was increased to 10 per cent.; a supplementary pension deduction of 1½ per cent. was introduced; and the maximum salary of unmarried officials was fixed at 90 per cent. of that of married officials.

Seamen's wages were also reduced, as the result of an agreement between shipowners and seamen, by approximately 2 per cent. from 1 October 1934.

New Zealand. — As in the neighbouring country of Australia, the year 1934 saw a partial restoration of reductions in the salaries and wages of a number of workers consequent on some measure of business recovery. A 5 per cent. increase was made in the wages and salaries of Government servants from 1 April 1934, and a large number of local bodies restored, either wholly or in part, the 10 per cent. reduction in wages imposed in 1931 by a general Order of the Arbitration Court. No such general movement occurred in the wages of workers in private employment; in some cases improvements were noted, but in others revisions of industrial agreements resulted in no change or a decline in wage rates, while a substantial proportion of the awards and agreements which came up for revision lapsed because of the inability of the parties to reach agreement on wages.

An addition was made to the powers of the Arbitration Court by the Finance Act (No. 2), 1933, which contained a provision that expired or expiring Orders made by the Arbitration Court fixing minimum rates of wages for women may be extended by the Court on application by an interested union or employers' association.

Union of South Africa. — In July 1934 a Commission, with comprehensive terms of reference, was appointed to enquire into

and report on the working of the legislation relating to wage regulation and industrial conciliation.

According to an announcement by the Minister of Labour in December 1934, it was the intention of the Government to introduce legislation empowering the Minister to prescribe a minimum wage not exceeding 1s. per hour for employees engaged in various specified occupations, including certain skilled occupations and such branches of unskilled labour (other than underground work) as the Minister may determine. The Bill would not apply to agriculture, Government departments or provincial administrations, or in cases where conditions of employment are governed by wage regulations under the Industrial Conciliation Act or the Wage Act.

United States. — During 1934, the system of minimum wage fixing by industrial codes was continued and covered practically the whole field of industry. From March 1933 to March 1934, according to estimates in the *Monthly Labor Review* (May 1934) average hourly earnings in all manufacturing industries rose by 22.1 per cent.; average *(per capita)* monthly earnings by 27.1 per cent.; and total pay-rolls by 74.7 per cent. If account is taken of changes in the cost of living as measured by the National Industrial Conference Board index, the corresponding increases in *real* earnings and pay-rolls were 11.7, 16.3 and 59.8 per cent. respectively. Between June 1933 and June 1934 the increase was less striking by reason of the rapid recovery in the second quarter of 1933. During this period June 1933-June 1934, average weekly earnings in manufacturing increased by 13.5 per cent., total wages paid by 37.5 per cent., and total real wages by 27.1 per cent. Labour's share in the national income is estimated to have increased over the period from 58.3 per cent. to 62.5 per cent.

For the year 1934 as a whole compared with 1933 the changes were less marked. Average hourly earnings in manufacturing rose by 18.3 per cent., weekly earnings by 13.7 per cent., and total pay-rolls by 27.6 per cent. The cost-of-living index, however, rose by 6.1 per cent., so that the corresponding increases in real earnings and pay-rolls were 11.4, 7.1 and 20.3 per cent. respectively.

In the field of minimum wage legislation it is of interest to note that the movement towards greater uniformity in labour legislation which is in progress in the United States has led to the formulation of recommendations concerning minimum wage laws. In January 1934, a joint meeting of delegates from Connecticut, New Hampshire, New York, Rhode Island and Massachusetts, held to consider inter-State compacts affecting labour, recommended that a mandatory minimum wage law similar to those in effect in Connecticut, New Hampshire, New Jersey and New York be adopted by all the States and that men be included in minimum wage legislation. In May 1934, delegates from the same States and also from Maine and Pennsylvania signed the first inter-State compact for establishing uniform standards for conditions of employment, particularly in regard to a uniform minimum wage for women and minors. The minimum wage standards laid down in the compact

are based on the general principle that no employer shall pay a woman or a minor an unfair or oppressive wage and that a fair wage shall be commensurate with the fair value of services rendered. The compact was to become effective on ratification by two or more States.

The possibility of the general adoption in all States of minimum wage legislation was discussed at Conferences on Labour Standards convened by the Federal Secretary of Labour in February and December 1934. The first of these Conferences recommended the early adoption by every State of a mandatory minimum wage law for women and minors and made detailed recommendations with regard to the administration of such legislation. At the second Conference, it was agreed further that as soon as the constitutionality of the minimum wage law for women had been established, an endeavour should be made to promote minimum wage laws for workers of both sexes.

Progress was made in the application of women's minimum wage legislation in various States. In New York, Ohio and New Hampshire, which passed minimum wage Acts in the spring of 1933, the authorities concentrated mainly on setting up fair wage standards for women in the laundry industry. In Ohio and New York, the minimum wage legislation contains a clause providing that nine months after the coming into effect of a mandatory Order the Commissioner of Labour shall determine whether the Order, which up to that time provides for no penalty other than publication of the names of offenders, should be rendered mandatory: in other words, whether its application should be ensured by the imposition of penalties for infringement. Enquiries undertaken at the end of the nine months' period after promulgation of Orders covering women workers in laundries showed considerable improvements in conditions, but led also to a recognition of the need for making the Orders mandatory. This was accordingly done and provision made for penalties for breaches of the Orders. In Massachusetts the former Minimum Wage Act for women, which provided for the advertisement of names of offenders as the sole means of bringing about compliance, was replaced by a new Act on the same lines as the New York law. Under the new law Orders may be made mandatory after nine months and non-compliance becomes punishable by fine or imprisonment. A further important difference between the old and the new laws is that whereas the old law provided for minimum wages based on living costs, the new law specifies that they must be " fairly and reasonably commensurate with the value of the service or class of service rendered ".

U.S.S.R. — The policy of piece wages, with bonuses for good work and deductions for bad work, continued to be widely applied in 1934. Its general adoption was advocated by the central authorities, and in particular by the General Council of Trade Unions at its plenary session in December 1934. The campaign against any tendency towards the levelling of wages and the strict application of the principle of individual remuneration in proportion

to work done and to the importance of this work for the national economy as a whole are the principal features of the wage policy prescribed by the Government and applied both by the leading industrial authorities and by the trade unions.

The Conference of Heavy Industry held in September 1934 adopted a resolution which urged, among other things, that wage scales should be arranged in such a way as to increase the output of labour by paying workers according to their merit and the quantity and quality of work actually performed.

The General Council of Trade Unions declared in a resolution concerning the renewal of collective contracts of employment that "wages were the best instrument for increasing the output of labour and making full use of the possibilities of modern technical progress, while at the same time improving the material conditions of the workers." The Council expressed its conviction that the campaign against equalisation of wages should be continued in order that the payment for work might be made according to the quantity and quality of the output of the worker and the value of his work to the State.

The application of this policy made it necessary to confer on the heads of undertakings and workshops greater authority in regard to the fixing of wage rates and the assessment of output. The rules adopted in 1934 for the renewal of collective agreements provided among other things that in future foremen should be able to take a more active part in fixing wages. The function of the trade unions in this field is tending more and more to become that of supervising the application of wage policy with a view to preventing abuses either by the undertaking or by the workers, while the actual fixing of wages is left almost entirely to the management of the undertaking, which in turn must follow the rules contained in the Government plans.

A Decree of 17 May 1934 modified the existing system of taxation of wages. All workers must now pay a monthly tax on their wages, amounting to 0.8 per cent. of the total wage for wages of up to 100 roubles a month, and increasing gradually to 3.5 per cent. for a wage of 500 roubles and over a month. Workers with more than three dependants are entitled to abatement at the following rates: for four dependants, 25 per cent.; for five dependants, 30 per cent.; for six or more dependants, 40 per cent. Workers holding more than one position must pay the tax separately for each wage or salary received. Those having supplementary incomes must pay the tax on these incomes as well as on their wages. The tax is assessed by the management of the undertaking or the institution employing the worker and is deducted from his wages.

The wages of lower wage groups (labourers, semi-skilled workers, lower grade employees, foremen, watchmen, etc.) were increased from 1 June 1934 by an Order of 28 May 1934, with a view to remedying the effects of the rise in the price of bread. The increase amounted to 10 to 15 per cent. of the nominal wage.

The abolition of the system of bread cards on 1 January 1935

necessitated a further increase in wages, for unrationed bread is sold at considerably higher prices than those that used to be charged for rationed bread. This increase, which came into force in 1935 for all categories of workers, was ordered by a Decree of 8 December 1934.

Yugoslavia. — At a conference on minimum wages, unemployment and working-class taxation, organised by the Central Secretariat of the Chambers of Labour, which met in Belgrade on 19 and 20 January 1935, a resolution was adopted calling attention to the low level of wages in certain industries and urging that legislation be drafted to provide for the fixing of legally enforceable rates.

International Minimum Wage Regulations

Convention No. 26: Minimum Wage-fixing Machinery, 1928[1].

Belgium. — Bill for the approval of the Convention submitted to the Senate on 25 July 1934. An Act regulating home work from the point of view of wages and health was promulgated on 10 February 1934.

Mexico. — Ratification registered on 12 May 1934.

Netherlands. — The right to ratify the Convention was reserved to the Crown by an Act of 19 January 1934. An Act of 17 November 1933 regulates minimum wages in home work. The Convention can be ratified when this Act has come into force; the date is to be fixed by the Crown.

Nicaragua. — Ratification registered on 12 April 1934.

Family Allowances

An outstanding development in the field of family allowances during 1934 was the establishment in Italy of a contributory scheme covering members of the Fascist Confederation of Industrial Workers. In the following pages details are given of this scheme, together with information relating to developments in Belgium, France, Australia (New South Wales), and the Netherlands.

Australia. — In New South Wales it was announced that the Government had decided to abolish the family endowment tax from 1 January 1934 and intended to finance the payment of family endowment and allowance from other funds.

Belgium. — The system of family allowances, and in particular the question of putting it on a sound financial basis, was the subject of several discussions in the Chamber of Representatives during the 1933-1934 session. Several proposals for amending the Act of 4 August 1930 were discussed and rejected in turn.

An Advisory Committee for supervision and the settlement of disputes in family allowance questions was set up by an Order of

[1] The information given here relates only to 1934. See the tables at the end of the volume for the general situation with regard to this Convention

28 April 1934. It is required to give its opinion on the method of co-ordinating the work of existing supervisory bodies, and may be consulted on any questions arising out of the interpretation of the Act of 1930 and the Orders for its administration.

The number of employers affiliated to equalisation funds rose from 91,669 on 30 June 1933 to 100,987 on 30 June 1934; nevertheless, the Act was not always applied in full. There was hardly any improvement in the financial situation of the system. During the first half of 1934, the deficit reached 2,646,243 francs.

France. — The Act of 11 March 1932 on family allowances, which was brought into force in a number of industries by a first Decree of 12 August 1933, was applied in turn to additional occupational categories by Decrees of 16 December 1933, 23 February, 15 March, 4 May, 19 May, 20 July and 26 November 1934. On 1 January 1935, the only industries still not covered by the Act were agriculture and forestry, fisheries, inadequately defined industries, bakeries and pastrycooks' establishments, pork butchers' establishments, basket-making, wheelwrights' shops and coachmaking, the manufacture of various wooden utensils, the cutting of precious stones, transport by water, various branches of commerce, ecclesiastical occupations, various associations, experts and technicians, personal services.

According to the results of the occupation census of 1926, the last for which figures have been published, there were in the industries which would come under the Act on 1 July 1934 596,572 undertakings employing 5,911,808 workers and salaried employees. Yet the equalisation funds and private family allowance schemes covered only about 100,000 undertakings with some 4,200,000 workers by the middle of 1934. Thus, subject to reservations as to any changes that may have taken place since 1926, barely 17 per cent. of the undertakings subject to the Act had complied with it, although it is true they employed 71 per cent. of the persons covered.

A large number of new equalisation funds were approved in 1934. The special public administrative regulations concerning the application of the Act to agriculture and forestry have not yet been issued. A draft was prepared and submitted to the Chambers of Agriculture for opinion.

The minimum rates of allowance payable in the occupations covered by the Decree of 12 August 1933, which had been fixed for each department by ministerial Orders, were made applicable by a new series of Orders to the occupations subsequently added to the list. The great majority of these rates range from 17.50 francs a month for the first child to 80 francs a month for the fourth and each additional child.

An Act of 9 December 1934 supplemented that of 11 March 1932 by inserting a provision under which " the introduction of compulsory family allowances shall in no case be allowed to lead to a reduction of wages ".

The total amount paid in allowances during 1934 is estimated at approximately 1,375 million francs, of which 560 million francs were distributed by the equalisation funds and 815 million francs by private schemes. In addition, about 525 million francs are paid annually in the form of family allowances to the employees of public administrations which are not covered by the Act.

Italy. — A National Family Allowance Fund was set up under an agreement concluded on 11 October 1934 between the Fascist Confederation of Industrial Workers and the Fascist Confederation of Manufacturers for the purpose of reducing the working week to 40 hours. The object of this Fund is to secure the payment of family allowances to industrial workers who have a dependent family and whose actual working week averages not more than 40 hours.

The Fund is supported (1) by contributions from all workers at the rate of 1 per cent. of the amount of wages paid for a week of not more than 40 hours, with a contribution of the same amount from the employers; (2) by contributions from workers whose hours are more than 40 in the week, at the rate of 5 per cent. of the wages received for all hours exceeding 40 in the week, together with a contribution of the same amount from employers; (3) any other sums subsequently paid into the Fund.

Contributions are payable by workers in all industries whether or not they work a 40-hour week. They are collected by employers in the form of deductions from wages, and their payment became compulsory from 3 December 1934. For the calculation of the contribution, wages are taken to comprise every form of remuneration for work, except the repayment of expenses and lump sum bonuses.

Family allowances will be paid from the date fixed by the Governing Body of the Fund, which will determine their amount in accordance with the funds available. Any head of a family whose working week does not in fact exceed 40 hours, or averages 40 hours, and who has dependent children of under 14 years of age, is entitled to a family allowance. An allowance may be claimed not only in respect of legitimate children, but also in respect of recognised, adopted, and illegitimate children. The head of the family is defined as a father, a mother who is a widow or legally separated, an unmarried woman whose children have not been recognised by the father, or a married woman whose husband is permanently incapacitated for work.

The Fund is administered by a Governing Body, consisting of a chairman appointed by agreement between the two contracting Confederations, or, failing this, by the Ministry of Corporations; three representatives each of the contracting Confederations; the Director-General of Labour and Social Welfare and Assistance in the Ministry of Corporations; the Director-General of the Fascist National Social Welfare Institute; and a representative of the Executive Committee of the Fascist National Party. The Governing Body fixes the amount of the allowances, settles appeals concerning

allowances and contributions, approves the annual financial reports, and discusses the use to be made of funds and reserves. An appeal against its decisions may be lodged with the Ministry of Corporations, which takes a final decision. The service of the Fund is entrusted to the Social Welfare Institute and provision is made for the appointment of provincial bodies to supervise the operations of the Fund and keep in touch with trade associations and inspectorates. A Board of Auditors is set up, consisting of a representative of the Ministry of Corporations and one representative each of the two contracting Confederations.

The allowances will be paid out by the employers at the end of each period fixed for the payment of wages. Each employer will keep account of the contributions collected and allowances paid in his undertaking. If the total contributions collected exceed the total allowances paid, the employer will pay the credit balance to the provincial office of the National Social Welfare Institute. If, on the contrary, the total allowances paid exceed the contributions collected, the provincial office will refund the difference to the employer. Until otherwise decided by the Governing Body of the Fund, the new provisions do not apply to home workers.

Netherlands. — At the end of 1934, a draft Bill for the introduction of a statutory system of family allowances in industry was submitted by the Minister of Social Affairs to the Labour Council for study and report.

CHAPTER V

UNEMPLOYMENT, PLACING, MIGRATION

Unemployment

It will be seen from the tables of statistics published in Volume II that unemployment decreased during the year 1934 in practically all countries. That does not mean, unfortunately, that the distress due to unemployment has diminished to anything like a proportionate extent, because those who are reabsorbed into employment have mostly been out of work for comparatively short periods and those who have been unemployed for a long time find their personal situation becoming worse and worse.

In the effort to promote economic recovery and thus to decrease the number of unemployed a number of steps of a general nature have been taken by Governments and certain organisations. Prominent among these are the various measures for the reduction of working hours which have been adopted in different countries. The question has also been discussed by the International Labour Conference and will be further discussed at its 1935 Session. Details of these and other measures of a similar kind will be found under the appropriate heading of the present *Year-Book*. With regard to other plans of a general economic character for combating unemployment, some brief particulars are given below.

Canada. — The Prime Minister stated that the acid test of a good economic system is the test of employment. Free competition and the open market, he said, have ceased to function effectively and it is necessary to replace them by Government regulation and control. He set forth a programme which included taxation for the purpose of bringing about a better balance between producers and non-producers, a minimum wage, a maximum working week, a ban upon child labour and sweated conditions, unemployment, sickness and accident insurance and other measures.

Denmark. — The Ministry of Commerce appointed a committee to enquire into the possibility of expanding employment, partly by making a better use of or extending industrial plants, and partly by creating undertakings for new forms of production which might be carried on profitably in Denmark. The chairman of the committee is the chief of the Conciliation Institution and the members include among others representatives of employers and of the trade union movement.

France. — The Prime Minister has emphasised the urgent need for a vigorous economic policy and announced measures dealing with credit, agriculture, industrial agreements and foreign trade.

Mexico. — The President, on taking office on 1 December 1934, said that close and immediate attention must be paid to the question of unemployment and that the public works programme would be expanded. Moreover, in order to restore prosperity measures would be taken in accordance with the six-year socialisation plan drafted at the end of 1933.

Turkey. — A five-year plan has been elaborated, including in particular the creation of a number of new industries.

United States. — In addition to the general measures of economic recovery associated with the National Industrial Recovery Act, President Roosevelt, in his Message to Congress at the beginning of 1935, declared that social justice was a national aim and proposed a programme which would be a first step in the provision of security. The measures he suggested deal with security of livelihood, security against the major hazards and vicissitudes of life, and the security of decent homes to live in.

Yugoslavia. — A programme was elaborated at the beginning of 1934 which proposed measures affecting agriculture, the banking system, and public works.

In addition to the above official measures, a number of plans have been put forward by workers' organisations.

Among these is the plan drafted by Mr. de Man which was adopted by the *Belgian* Labour Party in December 1933. It aims essentially at the reabsorption of the unemployed by increasing the purchasing power of the population, and provides for the creation of a national credit organisation and the nationalisation of the principal monopoly industries producing raw materials and power.

In *Czechoslovakia*, the Federation of Trade Unions made a series of proposals for the control of credit, reduction of hours, enactment of a minimum wage, promotion of public works, and reorganisation of the employment exchanges.

In *Norway*, the Labour Party elaborated a programme dealing with financial policy, public works including in particular the construction of roads, housing, etc.

In *Switzerland*, an " initiative " supported by 334,000 signatures was proposed by labour organisations. Its purpose is to introduce into the Federal Constitution clauses relating to the maintenance of purchasing power, the protection of wages and prices, the development of openings for employment, and unemployment insurance, the relief of agricultural undertakings and handicrafts, etc. The electorate will vote on this initiative at the beginning of June 1935.

Finally, reference may be made to the suggestions made by Mr. Lloyd George in *Great Britain* for the appointment of a national board to undertake a comprehensive survey and to elaborate schemes for useful and necessary public works. Mr. Lloyd George further proposed the creation of a small committee of the Cabinet to direct the execution of the proposed plans, which in his view might include the reorganisation of certain industries, housing development, the construction of roads, railways and canals, and the provision of improved electricity and water supplies.

Insurance and Relief Measures

Unemployment continued to decrease in most countries in 1934 and consequently rather less strain was imposed on the insurance and assistance schemes than in the earlier years of the depression. Unemployment, however, is still considerably higher than in pre-depression years in most countries, and in some cases the tendency was upwards rather than downwards during the past year. Even when there is an improvement it is those workers who have been longest unemployed and who are dependent on emergency allowances who are likely to be the last to obtain work. An insurance fund, provided it is really self-supporting, may therefore have had a smaller outlay in the form of strict insurance benefit, but emergency allowances have kept fairly high in the aggregate, and there will have to be a much greater absorption of unemployed labour before such expenditure can be seriously reduced.

A few examples may be given of expenditure actually incurred. In Denmark, 52.3 million kroner were spent in 1933-1934. In Great Britain, the total expenditure on insurance and emergency benefit in 1934 amounted to £97 million, as compared with £107 million in 1933. The debt of the insurance fund was reduced from £110.9 million to £105.7 million. In Poland, about 41 million zlotys were spent in the first six months of 1934 as compared with 84 million zlotys in the whole of 1933. In Switzerland, the total expenditure for insurance benefit and emergency allowances amounted in 1933 to 81.5 million francs, of which about 68.5 million were contributed by the public authorities. In the United States, Federal expenditure for relief amounted to 1,200 million dollars during the first eleven months of 1934.

It is clear that no figures can be quoted for the number of persons covered by relief measures in general, for such measures apply in practice to the whole working population. But some figures can be given of persons covered by unemployment insurance schemes. Compulsory schemes are in force in nine countries, voluntary schemes in ten countries, and in addition there is a compulsory reserves and compensation scheme in the State of Wisconsin in the United States.

Country	Date	Number of persons covered [1]
Countries with compulsory insurance:		
Australia (Queensland)	May-July 1933	175,000
Austria	October 1934	1,012,000
Bulgaria	1931	137,000
Germany	May 1929	17,920,000 [2]
Great Britain and Northern Ireland	July 1934	12,960,000
Irish Free State	1933-1934	380,000
Italy	1934	4,500,000
Poland	May 1934	1,153,000
Switzerland (13 cantons)	September 1934	244,000 [3]
		38,481,000
Countries with voluntary insurance:		
Belgium	November 1934	955,000
Czechoslovakia	November 1934	1,407,000
Denmark	December 1934	375,000
Finland	—	— [4]
France	1932	209,000 [5]
Norway	November 1934	54,000
Netherlands	December 1934	564,000
Spain	July 1934	54,000
Sweden	—	— [6]
Switzerland (11 cantons)	September 1924	296,000 [7]
		3,914,000
Country with unemployment reserves and compensation:		
U.S.A. (Wisconsin)	1934	330,000

[1] Every effort has been made to give figures showing the total number of persons covered by each scheme, whether they were employed or unemployed at the time of the count.

[2] This figure is selected deliberately, in order to show the number covered previous to the onset of the depression in the summer of 1929. The number given by the German statistics at the present time is much smaller (13,188,000 at end August 1934), but the decrease is mainly due to the fact that those unemployed workers who have exhausted their right to insurance benefit and have thus come within the scope of communal relief are not included in the figures of persons covered by unemployment insurance. Part of the decrease, however, is due to restrictions in the scope of the insurance scheme.

[3] Contrary to the practice followed for this table in previous editions of the *Year-Book*, this figure only includes persons insured in cantons in which the cantonal system is one of compulsory insurance.

[4] The unemployment insurance system was completely reorganised in 1934 and no figures are yet available.

[5] Not including members of special funds for independent and part-time workers.

[6] An unemployment insurance system was instituted in 1934 and no figures are yet available.

[7] This figure includes persons compulsorily insured in 8 cantons in which although the cantonal system is one of voluntary insurance the communes are entitled to make it compulsory for the extent of their territory.

The movement in favour of unemployment insurance continues to make progress, and the *Year-Book* for 1934 can record not only a number of national measures of interest in this respect but also the adoption of a Draft Convention and a Recommendation by the International Labour Conference in June.

One new scheme was enacted during the year, namely in Sweden, thus adding to the number of countries which have unemployment insurance legislation in force; while in the State of Wisconsin, the first measure in the United States providing for unemployment benefits came into operation on 1 July. In Great Britain, the

insurance scheme was reorganised with the object of placing the insurance fund definitely on a self-supporting basis, while at the same time introducing a number of improvements and extending the provision for training and instruction. It has since been announced that the statutory committee set up by the new Act has recommended the extension of unemployment insurance to farm workers. An even more important feature of the year's legislation in Great Britain is the new assistance scheme, which takes public assistance for the unemployed out of the hands of the local authorities.

With regard to other countries, there were numerous modifications in the legislation in force. For example, a number of amendments were introduced affecting the status of women, and particularly married women, in respect of unemployment insurance and relief. The practice is spreading of depriving married women of the right to benefit or at any rate requiring them to fulfil special conditions. There was also some extension of the system of giving relief in kind rather than in cash, one of the objects of this measure being to assist agriculture.

In addition to new measures actually passed, a Bill was introduced by the South African Government but did not become law. Bills have been introduced in 1935 in Canada, and the United States. In the United States, in particular, President Roosevelt urged the passage of a Federal Act dealing with unemployment compensation. Finally, reference may be made to local proposals for the enactment of unemployment insurance in India [1].

The *International Labour Conference* adopted in June 1934 a Draft Convention and a Recommendation on the subject of unemployment insurance and assistance.

The Convention binds each Government which ratifies it to maintain a scheme ensuring to persons who are involuntarily unemployed and to whom the Convention applies either insurance benefit or an assistance allowance.

The scheme may be a compulsory or voluntary insurance scheme, or a combination of such schemes, combined if necessary with a complementary assistance scheme. It must apply to all persons habitually employed for wages or salary, subject to certain exceptions. Benefits or allowances are to be paid both to persons who are wholly unemployed and to those whose unemployment is partial, under conditions to be laid down by national laws and regulations. The Convention provides that certain conditions may be imposed and that the payment of benefit or an allowance may be for a limited period only. Benefit is to be paid irrespective of the needs of the claimant, but the right to receive an allowance may be made conditional upon need. Benefit must be paid in cash, but supplementary grants to facilitate the re-employment of an

[1] The question of unemployment insurance was discussed at the International Congress of Actuaries. See above, Chapter III: Social Insurance, under " International Collaboration ".

insured person and allowances may be in kind. Equality of treatment for foreigners and nationals is provided for, but an exception may be made in the case of nationals of a State not bound by the Convention in respect of payments from funds to which the claimant has not contributed.

The Recommendation lays down a number of principles and rules for the guidance of Governments in organising unemployment insurance and assistance.

A bilateral agreement was concluded by *Czechoslovakia* and *France* providing that the nationals of each of the two countries permitted to work in the other shall, in case of unemployment, be entitled to insurance benefit and other forms of relief on the same basis as nationals. An agreement on similar lines was concluded by *France* and *Luxemburg*.

The *Polish* Government made a proposal to the *Belgian* Government based on the provisions of the Washington Convention concerning unemployment, which has been ratified by Poland and Belgium. It was to the effect that the Belgian Government should grant unemployed Poles in Belgium the same rights as Belgians and that the matter should be settled by agreement in accordance with Article 3 of the Convention. The question is still the subject of negotiation by the two Governments.

Argentina. — A Decree of 19 December 1933 set up a National Unemployment Committee, one of its functions being to organise unemployment relief by co-ordinating public and private activities in this field. The Committee was granted an initial credit of 250,000 pesos and was also empowered to accept gifts in cash or in kind. The appointment of this Committee was confirmed by an Act of 28 August 1934 which authorises the Government to provide further funds up to a maximum of 2 million pesos.

Australia. — Modifications were introduced into the Queensland Unemployed Workers' Insurance Acts, 1922-1930, by an Act which received the Royal Assent on 7 December 1933. The new Act provides that no person may receive benefit whose earnings during the twelve months preceding his application exceeded £300, whereas the limit had previously been £220. It also provides for the reduction of the normal waiting period from 14 to 7 days when a claimant has been unemployed for more than three months during the six months preceding his application, and for no waiting period when, having regard to his contributions, he will not be entitled to more than three weeks' benefit. An Order in Council of 23 August 1934 limits to 14 weeks in a calendar year the maximum period during which sustenance allowances may be paid.

The Victorian Government decided, on account of the improvement in the unemployment situation, to make a reduction of 5 per cent. in the rate of the tax levied for unemployment relief; this makes a total reduction of 15 per cent. in the rates operative in 1931-1932.

Belgium. — A Royal Order of 27 July 1934 abolished the funds which were established by the local authorities and were responsible for the supervision of the unemployment insurance societies and their unemployed members, and substituted for them bodies directly dependent on the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare, and responsible, not only for supervision, but also for placing workers in employment. These new bodies are known as " employment and unemployment offices ". An appeals board was set up in connection with each employment and unemployment office, to settle disputes relating to eligibility for insurance or the rate of benefit. A Circular which was to come into force on 1 April 1934 lays down regulations concerning the family allowances of unemployed married women who are entitled to benefit only in the case of partial unemployment and not in the case of total unemployment.

Canada. — An arrangement has been in operation for the last few years whereby the Federal, Provincial and municipal authorities have each contributed one-third of the sums expended on direct relief, the administration of the funds being largely in the hands of the municipal authorities. At a Conference of Dominion and Provincial authorities held in July 1934, the Prime Minister proposed a change in the basis of Federal relief. He suggested that until the expiration of the provisions of the Relief Act in March 1935 the Dominion Government should make lump-sum grants to each Province, payable in monthly instalments based on the actual need of the Province. He emphasised the necessity of bringing about a reduction in the expenditure on direct relief as rapidly as possible, both by a tightening up of relief administration and as a result of the generally improved economic conditions throughout the Dominion.

Czechoslovakia. — An Order was issued on 26 January 1934 requiring standardisation of the unemployment insurance schemes set up by the workers' organisations. Only members of those organisations which apply the provisions of the Order will in future be entitled to the supplementary benefit accorded by the State. The rate of members' general contributions and the proportion to go into the unemployment fund must be approved by the Ministry of Social Welfare; the normal rates and maximum duration of benefit must be determined by the rules of the organisation concerned.

Denmark. — Notwithstanding the substantial improvement in industry, the number of persons who no longer satisfy the conditions of benefit laid down in the Unemployment Act steadily increased, and at the end of August 1934, 45 per cent. of the unemployed had no right to benefit from the unemployment funds or continuation funds. In consequence, a Bill was introduced in October 1934 providing for a temporary extension of the right to benefit from recognised unemployment funds, but this was not adopted.

Finland. — An Act regulating the establishment and maintenance of unemployment insurance funds was promulgated on 23 March

1934, to come into force on 1 January 1935. The Act stipulates that unemployment funds must not carry on any other functions than those it lays down and must not be connected with any other organisation in such a way as to restrict their independence. Membership of another society or organisation may not be made a condition of admission to membership of a fund. The Ministry of Social Affairs is the competent authority to decide on the grant of State subsidies to the different funds, the amount of subsidy depending in each case on the amount of benefit paid by the fund to its members. Membership of a fund is confined to Finnish citizens of 15 to 60 years of age. The maximum benefit payable is raised from 10 to 30 Finnish marks a day, but must not exceed two-thirds of the wage; benefit may be paid for 120 days in a year; there is a qualifying period of six months and a waiting period of not less than 6 days or more than 18 days. Applicants for benefit are disqualified if they refuse employment at a wage equal to that paid customarily to workers in their trade or, in the case of relief works, to four-fifths of such wage. The other conditions follow the usual lines.

France. — There has hitherto been no general regulation governing the relation between benefits under the voluntary insurance scheme and assistance allowances, this question being dealt with by the local authorities concerned. A Decree was therefore adopted on 2 October 1934 laying down definite rules to be applied in each case. The Decree provides that where an unemployed person is drawing benefit from a trade union or mutual unemployment insurance fund, the total benefit granted by that fund, plus the relief granted by the unemployment assistance fund, including allowances and supplements of all kinds granted by communal or departmental authorities, may not during the whole time for which it is received exceed 70 per cent. of wages plus the amount of family allowances customary in the trade and district.

A Decree of 15 December 1933 extended to craftsmen and independent manual workers a system of unemployment relief corresponding to that provided for wage-paid workers by the municipal or departmental unemployment funds. Under the new Decree special funds established by the communal or departmental authority for the assistance of this class of worker may receive subsidies from the National Unemployment Fund subject to certain conditions.

Germany. — The principle of self-management by joint committees containing representatives of employers and workers has been abandoned, and a Decree of the Ministry of Labour of 10 November 1933 transferred to the President of the Institution for Employment Exchanges and Unemployment Insurance all the duties which hitherto devolved on these committees. A number of measures were also adopted to increase the penalties inflicted on unemployed persons in receipt of benefit or assistance who accept paid employment without notifying the employment

exchanges, and to extend them to persons who give work to such people without notifying the exchanges. Another change was introduced by a Decree of 11 December 1933 restoring the waiting period in force before the Legislative Decree of 5 June 1931, which considerably prolonged it. The waiting period is thus once more 14 days for unemployed persons without dependants, 7 days for those with one to three dependants, and 3 days for those with four or more dependants. A new scheme, which came into force on 1 June 1934, regulates the method by which the cost of local assistance to the unemployed is to be shared between the Government and the local authorities. The new scheme provides that only those local authorities in whose territory the number of unemployed in receipt of assistance exceeds 1 per cent. of the population will be entitled to a subsidy, which will be payable only in respect of the excess. The Government will pay a fixed subsidy on these lines determined on the basis of the population and the unemployment rate in the area.

With regard to relief in kind, the total value of donations in cash or in kind collected for the winter relief system amounted to 358 million RM. for the year 1933-1934. Of this sum 184 million RM. were collected in cash and the rest in kind. The value of relief distributed amounted to about 347 million RM. and the total number of persons relieved, including members of families, was 16,600,000.

For the year 1934-1935 it was assumed that donations in cash would be derived principally from the monthly collections and the monthly sales of badges in the streets. Apart from these collections, the principal resources of the relief system would be derived from voluntary levies on wages and salaries. Gifts in kind would be received from industrial, commercial and handicraft undertakings, members of the liberal professions, etc. The basis of the gifts in kind would be constituted by donations from farmers; there would also be collections of food products, including collections in undertakings manufacturing foodstuffs. The money collected would be used principally for the purchase of food and fuel.

Great Britain. — The Bill amending the insurance scheme and reorganising the emergency allowances, which was introduced towards the end of 1933, received the Royal Assent on 28 June 1934. Part I of the new Act concerns unemployment insurance and continues the scheme then in force on rather more liberal terms than those which had been in operation since the economy measures of 1931. It provides that the minimum age for entry into insurance shall be the same as the general minimum school-leaving age (which is 14 years at present) instead of 16 years as it has been hitherto. The contributions in respect of insured persons between 14 and 16 years are fixed at 2d. per week from the employer, the insured person, and the Exchequer. Benefit begins to be payable at the age of 16, but it may also be paid to persons over 16 in respect of any boy or girl of 14 dependent upon them who is unemployed and not subject to any disqualification for benefit.

The maximum period of benefit is as a rule 156 working days a year, but this period may be extended in the case of contributors who have been insured for at least five years, for whom the maximum benefit period may attain 312 working days. The rates of benefit are restored to the level at which they stood before the economy measures in 1931.

An Unemployment Insurance Statutory Committee was set up by the Act to give advice and assistance to the Minister in connection with unemployment insurance, this Committee to consist of not more than 6 members appointed by the Minister. One of the immediate duties of the Committee was to enquire into the feasibility of an insurance scheme for agricultural workers. The Committee submitted a report to the Government recommending that agricultural workers should be brought within the scope of insurance, and that, inasmuch as the rates of contribution and of benefit of the existing scheme are not suitable for agriculture, a special scheme should be established.

Part II of the Act set up an assistance scheme to take the place of the transitional provisions of the Act previously in force. The scope of the assistance scheme is wider than that of the insurance scheme and covers not only those who are insured and have exhausted their rights to benefit, but also about four million workers, including agricultural labourers and domestic servants, who are outside the insurance scheme. An Unemployment Assistance Board is set up to assist all persons to whom Part II of the Act applies who are in need of work, to promote their welfare, and in particular to make provision for the improvement and re-establishment of the condition of such persons with a view to their being in all respects fit for regular employment, and to grant unemployment allowances to such persons. This Board will be responsible for administering the needs test, which was formerly undertaken by the local public assistance authorities. Regulations governing the application of this needs test were drawn up by the Board and approved by the House of Commons on 20 December 1934. The procedure for making allowances is: first, a provisional assessment of needs without any regard to resources; next, a computation of the resources available to the applicant; and thirdly, a final assessment of needs by ascertaining the amount by which the provisional assessment exceeds the available resources, but with wide discretionary powers to adjust the amount of the final assessment according to the special circumstances of the particular case. A new principle is introduced by the provision of a sliding scale of rent allowances. The regulations also contain detailed provisions governing the calculation of the available resources of the household, which may be either capital assets or income or may belong either to the applicant or to members of his household. An Unemployment Assistance Fund is also set up, the resources of which will be derived mainly from money voted by Parliament, but the local authorities, hitherto responsible for the administration of public assistance, are required to make annual contributions to the Fund.

Irish Free State. — A new Unemployment Insurance Act, raising the rates of contribution of both employers and workers, came into operation on 1 April 1934.

Japan. — A mutual aid scheme for seamen was set up by the Seamen's Union, and came into operation in April 1934. Seamen who have been engaged for at least one year on board a vessel, have paid their contributions in full, and have unsuccessfully applied for work at one of the seamen's employment exchanges, are entitled to a benefit of 12 yen per month, after a waiting period of three months. If the unemployment lasts more than six months, the benefit is reduced to 9 yen per month. The unemployed seamen in receipt of benefit must work 8 days per month during the first three months and 6 days per month during the succeeding six months. The cost of the scheme is estimated at 180,000 yen during the first year, one-third being borne by the seamen and two-thirds by the Government.

Netherlands. — A Circular was issued by the Government to local authorities on 30 May 1934, announcing a reduction in the maximum rates of subsidies granted to the trade union unemployment insurance funds.

New Zealand. — The Minister of Finance, in submitting his annual financial statement on 23 August 1934, said that the unemployment position had considerably improved during the year. The number of workers who were a charge on the Unemployment Fund was 60,000, a decrease of 9,000 since the corresponding date in the previous year. He announced that a reduction of 2d. in the £ would be made in the emergency unemployment charge levied on salaries and wages and other income. This reduction was made effective by an Order in Council and came into operation on 1 October 1934.

In August 1934 an increase was made in the rates of sustenance paid to the older men and those not physically fit for whom work could not be found. This was considered necessary as increasing difficulty was being experienced by local authorities in finding suitable work, and the Unemployment Board was unable to adhere strictly to its original policy of requiring work in return for relief.

Poland. — In March 1934, the Government decided to simplify the organisation of unemployment relief by abolishing the State employment exchanges and handing over their work to the Unemployment Fund, which was then administering unemployment insurance. By a Decree of 24 October 1934, a further simplification was introduced by abolishing the Unemployment Fund, and transferring its functions to the Employment Fund, which was established in 1933 for the purpose of financing public relief works. In this way the administration of the three principal elements of the campaign against unemployment, namely public works, unemployment insurance, and employment exchanges, is entrusted to a single institution. The provisions of this Decree were to come into effect on 1 April 1935.

Spain. — An Act promulgated on 7 July 1934, amongst other provisions, increased the subsidies granted by the National Unemployment Fund to organisations which insure their members against unemployment. The insurance funds may also receive advances and special grants from the National Fund, and will contribute to the National Fund 1 per cent. of the contributions paid by their members, instead of 5 per cent. as hitherto. For these purposes the capital of the Fund was increased by one million pesetas.

Sweden. — A Bill providing for the establishment of a voluntary insurance scheme was passed into law and came into force on 1 January 1935. The system is maintained by contributions from the workers and the payment of a subsidy by the State. To be entitled to a subsidy, a fund must be accepted as an approved unemployment fund by the Social Board. An approved fund must, as a general rule, have at least 500 members. With certain exceptions, membership of a fund is open to wage earners over 16 years of age, but persons who have worked on their own account or with a near relative for a period of more than 5 months during the preceding 12 months are excluded from the scheme, as are foreigners, unless they belong to a country with which a reciprocity agreement has been concluded.

Benefits are payable to contributors in respect of whom 52 weekly contributions have been paid during the 24 months preceding unemployment, and in the case of members who have previously drawn benefit, 26 contributions in the preceding 12 months. Further conditions are that an applicant must be capable of and available for work and must have registered with an official employment exchange. Daily benefit must not exceed 6 or be less than 2 kronor. The funds are free to fix the rate of benefit within these limits subject to the condition that in the case of members with dependants it may not exceed four-fifths, and in other cases three-fifths, of the usual wages paid in the locality to persons in the same occupation. For women members and members who are under the age specified in the rules of the fund, special rates of benefit may be paid. This benefit may be lower than the minimum otherwise prescribed. The benefit period may not exceed 120 days or be less than 90 days during 52 consecutive weeks, and the waiting period must not be less than 6 days or more than three months.

The State subsidy towards the cost of benefit will be fixed in proportion to the average benefit paid by the fund and the extent of unemployment among its members. The subsidy towards the administrative expenses amounts to 2 kronor per member per year, plus an amount to cover the salaries of a member of the board of the fund and an auditor appointed by the supervising authority.

Switzerland. — Owing to the persistence of unemployment and the state of the finances of the unemployment insurance funds, the Federal authorities felt it necessary to consider a recasting of the

whole system. A reorganisation was carried out by an Order of 27 February 1934, which is to remain in effect for the duration of the depression.

Under this Order suspension of the right to benefit for periods varying between 4 and 12 weeks may be imposed upon persons who become unemployed through their own fault, or who do not take advantage of suitable opportunities of employment, or who fail to attend training courses provided for them. As regards the rate of benefit, the new Order fixes the maximum amount of wages to be taken into consideration for the purpose of calculating statutory benefit at 16 francs a day for unemployed persons with several dependants; 12 francs for those with one dependant; and 10 or 8 francs for those with no dependants, according to whether they are under or over 22 years of age. Any dependants in excess of these limits give rise to a supplementary benefit calculated at the reduced rate of 30 per cent. The Order also stipulates that alien seasonal workers shall not be admitted to an insurance fund.

United States. — The first legislation concerning unemployment benefits in this country, the Wisconsin Unemployment Reserves and Compensation Act, came into force on 1 July 1934. The Act establishes a State unemployment reserve fund, to which every employer of 10 or more persons contributes 2 per cent. of his pay roll. No contributions are paid by the State or the workers. Each employer's account in the fund is kept separate, and no such account is liable for benefits beyond the current resources of the account or paid to persons not discharged by the employer in question. To be eligible for benefits employees must have been resident in Wisconsin for two years prior to the beginning of the period of unemployment, and have been employed for forty weeks within the two-year period. The Act is administered by the State Industrial Commission.

A Bill to encourage the enactment of State unemployment compensation legislation, known as the Wagner-Lewis Bill, was introduced into the Federal Congress on 5 February 1934, but failed to secure enactment. A feature of the Bill was that it did not prescribe what kind of benefit scheme should be adopted, but left each State considerable freedom to determine this for itself. President Roosevelt, in his Message to Congress on 4 January 1935, urged the enactment of legislation providing for Federal encouragement to the States in respect of unemployment compensation, and a Bill on the subject was introduced in due course.

With regard to relief, various agencies have been established to co-operate with the Federal Emergency Relief Administration. In November 1933, at which time more than 3,800,000 families and single persons were in receipt of relief, the Civil Works Administration was formed to give immediate employment on emergency work at regular rates of pay to four million unemployed persons. It was financed jointly by funds from the Public Works Administration and the Federal Emergency Relief Administration, and States, counties and towns were also expected to contribute. The

Civil Works Programme was closed on 31 March 1934, and as a result the number on relief rose sharply in April, while the persistence of drought conditions from April to July increased relief demands in areas where a decrease would normally be expected. The Emergency Work Programme was therefore initiated to replace the Civil Works Administration. It aimed at a gradual rehabilitation of the unemployed, who were divided into three groups for relief purposes: distressed families in rural areas; those comprising "stranded populations" or persons living in communities previously supported by a single industry which had become non-existent; and the unemployed in large cities. In July 1934 emergency relief was given to 4,334,000 cases, of whom 1,706,000 received work relief and the remainder direct relief.

A rural rehabilitation programme was inaugurated in April 1934 in co-operation with the Department of Agriculture. The work included the selection of poor land by the Agricultural Adjustment Administration and other Federal agencies, and the purchase of land and the rehabilitation of the people by the Federal Emergency Relief Administration, either by their voluntary movement to more fertile land or by employing them on land projects. In August 1934 it was reported that the Federal Surplus Relief Corporation, established by the Federal Emergency Relief Administration, had distributed more than 75 million dollars' worth of surplus commodities for relief purposes.

Yugoslavia. — The Finance Act for the year 1934-1935 introduces changes in the duration and rates of unemployment benefit. The scheme hitherto in force provided for the payment of unemployment benefit for a maximum period of 6 weeks in any year. Cash benefit might not exceed two-thirds of the unemployed person's earnings or 10 dinars a day. The new Act provides that the Minister of Social Affairs and Public Health may fix the duration of benefit, subject to a maximum of 20 weeks a year, and the rate, which must not be less than 5 or more than 15 dinars a day. Duration and rate will depend on the length of the period during which the person concerned has been insured and the amount paid in contributions during the five years preceding unemployment.

Public Works

More and more Governments are turning to public works as a means of dealing with the economic depression. There are two kinds of public works policies. One of these regards such works as merely a method of distributing relief to the unemployed, it being considered better to require work in return for relief payments than to make cash payments without any return from the workers. In this case, the wages and conditions of labour are usually less favourable than those customary for workers in normal employment. Relief works of this kind are usually accompanied by

a system of cash relief for those unemployed who are not absorbed on the relief works. Relief works are more expensive than cash relief, but on the other hand they have the advantage of preventing the demoralisation of the workers.

Public works are, however, being increasingly regarded, not primarily as a means of providing relief for the unemployed, but as a method of promoting economic recovery by increasing public investment in development works of economic importance at a time when private investment is at a low ebb. In this case, although the works are occasionally carried out under relief conditions, they are mostly undertaken on the ordinary conditions applicable in private industry, or even in certain instances on superior conditions so far as wages and hours of labour are concerned. Stress is laid not only on the number of unemployed to whom temporary employment is given, but also on the distribution of purchasing power through the wages paid on the job and in the manufacture and transport of materials and through the additional wages paid as a result of the spending of the new purchasing power. As it is important to use the idle capital awaiting investment, such works are usually financed by loan, repayment to take place when prosperity returns.

It is impossible entirely to distinguish relief works from other public works, because every effort is made to ensure that relief works shall be of economic utility to the country or district in which they are undertaken, and the main real differences lie in the wage rates and other conditions of labour, and in the methods of financing adopted. There was a considerable increase during 1934 in public works of both kinds. Italy has for years had a large-scale programme of works which is being carried out over a comparatively lengthy period; and, more recently, interesting experiments have been made in Germany, Sweden and the United States.

Public works policy has for many years been the subject of international discussions, to which reference has been made in previous issues of the *I.L.O. Year-Book*[1]. In June 1934, the *International Labour Conference* adopted a resolution on the subject introduced by Mr. Jouhaux, the French Workers' delegate. This resolution read in part as follows:

> The Conference requests the Governing Body to ask for periodical reports from the Office on the measures taken or proposed in different countries on the subject of public works. These reports will in particular give information concerning the programme of large-scale works drawn up in the various countries, and the measures undertaken by the national authorities to co-ordinate the preparation of these works on a uniform basis, measures concerning the recruitment and the conditions of employment of the workers engaged in public works, and the effect of public works on the situation of the labour market. On the basis of these reports, the Governing Body is requested to investigate what steps can be taken to facilitate the application of the Recommendation relating to public works adopted by the Conference at its Session held at Washington. With regard to works of an

[1] See also *Public Works Policy*, Studies and Reports, Series C, No. 19.

international character, the Governing Body will endeavour, in co-operation with the competent bodies of the League of Nations, to facilitate the necessary collaboration between the various countries concerned.

This resolution was brought before the Governing Body in October 1934 and was referred by it to its Unemployment Committee, which, in April 1935, invited the Governing Body to include public works among the questions to be considered for the Agenda of the International Labour Conference. A report on the subject has been published by the International Labour Office under the title " Public Works Policy ", setting forth the works undertaken in recent years, the methods of financing the works, the conditions of employment, and administrative procedure.

The Assembly and Council of the *League of Nations* have also given consideration to the question of public works in connection with a report on the work of the Committee of Enquiry into Questions of Public Works and National Technical Equipment. The Council decided that it would be useful to collect information on the experience acquired in the different countries, and the Secretariat therefore asked Governments to communicate particulars concerning the main public works undertaken since 1929 in each country. The information received was published in a report entitled " National Public Works ". Copies of this information were communicated to the International Labour Office and were taken into account for the report on public works policy referred to above.

Argentina. — At the end of 1933 an economic recovery scheme was adopted including an extensive programme of public works. The Federal Government was to allot the necessary credits for the carrying out, within two years, of public works which would normally be spread over a period of seven or eight years. The first part of this programme comprised irrigation, harbour and sanitary works, the construction of public buildings and railway lines, and various works in connection with the Ministries of Agriculture, War and the Marine. The total estimated expenditure under these different heads during 1934 was 151.5 million pesos, or 92.5 million pesos more than in 1933. The second group of works comprised road development. The National Road Department has been authorised to spend 133 million pesos for this purpose from 1934 to 1936, instead of the normal amount of 85 million. To this sum must also be added the Federal grants to the provinces for road maintenance and construction, amounting to 44 million pesos, which will, in turn, give rise to additional expenditure.

A Social Assistance Committee has been set up to provide relief for the unemployed in the form of work and the Committee intends to build dwellings for the unemployed. A land settlement scheme has also been inaugurated.

Australia. — The Prime Minister, when submitting the Commonwealth Budget for the year 1934-1935, announced that the Govern-

ment had decided on a substantial increase in public works expenditure, particularly on post office work. The total amount available for new works would be £A4,005,051, an increase of £A1,976,641 on the actual expenditure for 1933-1934. In addition, the estimated expenditure of the State Governments on public works in 1934-1935 is about £A22,000,000.

In New South Wales, the results of the Emergency Relief Works scheme are considered to have fully justified its introduction. In addition to numerous works being carried out by local governing authorities, a number of major works are in progress from funds made available by the Unemployment Relief Council.

In Victoria, the policy of the Government is to require work in return for sustenance; while in July 1933 the percentage of men receiving sustenance who were performing work in return was only 36, in July 1934 the percentage had risen to 78.

Bulgaria. — By an Act of 19 November 1934 every registered unemployed person may be called up to enlist for auxiliary public works or to follow vocational training courses; he will receive either benefit or wages for his work or a combination of the two.

Canada. — The Public Works Construction Act, which received the Royal Assent on 3 July 1934, provides for construction work to be undertaken throughout the Dominion at a cost not exceeding 40 million dollars.

Chile. — A Bill was introduced providing for the construction of roads, river correction work, and schemes for the prevention of floods. These works have to fulfil certain conditions. For example, they must be organised as relief works, that is to say, the pay of the workers employed must be considered as benefit and not as wages; in carrying them out the State must not be hampered by the provisions of social legislation; and they must be organised simultaneously in different parts of the country in order to prevent an influx of labour to the capital.

Czechoslovakia. — The Government decided towards the end of the year to continue the grant of subsidies to local or provincial administrations for the execution of public relief works. In 1935 the sum of 45 million kč. will be granted for this purpose, and the works will provide employment for about 10,000 unemployed persons. In accordance with a decision taken by the Government in 1933, the 40-hour week, the restriction of the use of machinery, the engagement of labour through the employment exchanges, the wage rates provided for by collective agreements and, the provisions of labour legislation have been applied on all works undertaken or financed by the Government.

Danzig (Free City of). — The Senate issued an Order which came into force on 1 April 1934, governing the organisation of public relief works. The Order fixes the hours of work, the rate of hourly wages and the family allowances payable, and stipulates that

engagements on relief works shall be made only through the public employment exchanges.

Estonia. — The Government has drawn up a programme of measures against unemployment which provides for an extension of public works. The policy is to replace relief works, which have been found ineffective, by more productive work such as land improvement and drainage and maintenance of roads and bridges. It is also proposed to co-ordinate under a single Government authority the planning and financing of these works.

France. — The Government approved a proposal in April 1934 for the preparation of a comprehensive programme of public works, to be financed out of the reserves of the social insurance funds and to be undertaken in different areas in proportion to the extent of unemployment. In May, two Decrees were issued establishing the financial and administrative framework of the scheme; and an Act of 7 July 1934 laid down the method of determining the financial contribution of the State and the railways. The programme contemplated a total expenditure of about 10,000 million francs on large-scale public works during a period of five or six years, and it was estimated that the scheme would enable the number of unemployed to be reduced by 80,000 during the winter of 1934-1935. One of the Decrees of 15 May regulates the partial financing of the works by loans from the social insurance funds to the public authorities, and provides that 75 per cent. of the available resources of the old-age funds and the old-age and invalidity funds and the General Guarantee Fund must be collected from 1 June 1934 to 31 December 1940 in a common account to be administered by the Deposit and Trust Fund and invested by it primarily in loans for public works to reduce unemployment. The second Decree provides for the establishment of a Committee to administer the scheme, with extensive powers in regard to the execution and financing of the works.

Under the Act of 7 July the State share of the expenditure may not exceed a total of 2,897 million francs and will be paid in the form of annuities to the bodies undertaking the work as a contribution to the interest payments on the loans raised. A Decree of 26 July fixes the exact distribution between the various Government departments of the State contribution and provides for six successive annual payments. Work done by the railways receives no State subsidy, but requires the authorisation of the Government, and the Act provides that additional capital expenditure may be incurred during the years 1934-1940 to the extent to which loans are made from the social insurance funds up to a maximum of 2,725 million francs. A number of other measures have been introduced laying down the general procedure to be followed and prescribing rules concerning distribution of labour and the conditions of work. The programme came into operation on 3 October 1934 with the inauguration of a group of works entailing an expenditure of 1,340 million francs, which were estimated to provide

workers in the building, metal-working and electrical trades with approximately 12 million days' work.

Germany. — A big programme of public works has been carried through with beneficial effects on the index of production and the index of unemployment, but certain difficulties have arisen in connection with the monetary and financial aspects of the works, with the result that in the latter part of 1934 they had to be slowed down somewhat. The works are financed by bills drawn on a number of special financing bodies, and these bills can be discounted at a bank and rediscounted at the Reichsbank. As the demand for capital in the open market is smaller than the supply, banks and insurance companies have been glad to avail themselves of these short-term bills, but this has tended to prevent the long-term rate of interest from falling, and private investment can hardly be expected to revive until there is such a fall. Consequently, although in June 1934 only about 2,400 million RM. had actually been spent out of a total expenditure approved of 5,400 million RM., it was decided to retard the programme by prolonging the time limits for its execution. On the other hand, the Minister of Finance announced that the only works that would be continued after the present programme is completed were those concerned with the construction of motor roads and work connected with land settlement. The hours of work on public works subsidised by the Government must not exceed forty per week, but regulations were issued at the end of 1933 providing that these hours might be exceeded in certain cases, particularly if the wages of those engaged on the works would otherwise be less than the benefit due under the insurance scheme. The President of the Institution for Employment Exchanges and Unemployment Insurance allotted 400,000 RM. for the provision of relief for unemployed professional workers. The sum was to be handed over to the Scientific Relief Association, which was to draw up a programme of urgently necessary scientific work of value to the community.

Great Britain. — A programme of slum clearance is being carried out over a period of five years at a total estimated cost of £115 million. It is anticipated that the work will provide direct employment for 70,000 workers and indirect employment for 40,000 workers during the whole of the five-year period.

Hungary. — A Bill was introduced to provide for the financing of various public works. It empowers the Ministry of Finance to issue Treasury bonds up to a maximum of about 10 million pengös for the purpose of meeting the cost of the works in question. In addition, the Ministry of Commerce is empowered to carry out a scheme of road construction involving the expenditure of about 10 million pengös.

Italy. — During the period 28 October 1922 to 30 September 1934 the total expenditure of the Treasury on public works amounted to about 22,000 million lire. In the eleven months ending 30 September 1934, the Government authorised expenditure amounting

to 3,000 million lire. Some of this money was raised by loan and will be repaid by means of annual payments over a period of years. The actual expenditure during the eleven months in question amounted to about 2,000 million lire. About 43 million man-days of employment were provided.

Japan. — The budget appropriation for public works for 1934-1935 has been reduced considerably, smaller allocations being made to the Ministry of the Interior for road, canal and harbour building and to the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry for clearing and draining land and reafforestation purposes. The expenditure in 1934 was estimated at 205 million yen as compared with 443 million yen in 1933. The special credits for 1934-1935 for unemployment relief works have been considerably reduced. The reductions as compared with the previous year amount to 13 million yen and 3,570,000 days' work.

Lithuania. — An Act of 22 December 1933 established a fund to finance unemployment relief works. The resources of the fund are derived from contributions from the State, local authorities, employers and contractors. The subsidies granted must cover the cost of labour on the works undertaken, the other expenses being borne by the local authorities or contractors. Employment will be for five days in the week if the unemployed person has three or more dependants, four days if he has two dependants, and three days if he is unmarried.

Netherlands. — An Act was passed, providing for the inclusion in the 1934 budget of a credit of 60 million florins for the purpose of financing public works. The Government added that the credit asked for represented a first instalment and that further credits might be requested if the execution of the programme proved to be a useful measure.

Palestine. — Arrangements were made with the British Government by which the British Treasury was authorised to guarantee the principal of, and the interest on, a loan not exceeding £2,000,000 to be raised by the Government of Palestine in Great Britain. The proceeds of the loan were to be used for Arab resettlement, long-term agricultural credits, and various public works.

Panama. — An Act was promulgated on 31 October 1934 extending the operation of the unemployment relief measures previously in force, and particularly the National Unemployment Fund, into which are paid the proceeds of a tax on earnings. The Fund is used to finance public relief works.

Persia. — A series of Bills was passed in 1934, one of which empowered the Treasury to appropriate a sum of 180 million rials from the proceeds of taxes on sugar and tea to finance the continuation of construction work on the Trans-Persian Railway. The budget for the year 1313 (commencing 21 March 1934) provided 40 million rials for various public works. Another Bill passed on 4 March 1934 empowered the Agricultural and Industrial Bank to

grant loans to manufacturers who would otherwise be obliged to discharge workers owing to lack of the necessary working capital.

Poland. — The Government, pursuing its policy of co-ordination, drew up a programme of capital investment for 1934-1935, including therein works financed by the national budget, the State monopolies and various funds established for specified purposes. This programme was estimated to cost 321 million zloty and to give employment to over 200,000 workers. The works carried out with the assistance of loans and grants from the Employment Fund and the Investment Fund gave employment to more than 100,000 persons in 1934. In addition, the works for which loans were made by the Ministry of Social Welfare gave employment to about 30,000 persons.

Portugal. — The Government is carrying out an extensive public works programme embodying a rural development scheme, urban improvement work, and a scheme for the improvement of sanitary conditions in villages and small towns.

Spain. — An Act promulgated on 7 July 1934 dealt, among other things, with the planning of public works so as to give the maximum of employment. It provided for the establishment of a National Committee to advise the Government as to works which should be given preference, the places and times at which they should be carried out, and the date of issue of the loan by which they should be financed. Employment on these works may be given only to Spaniards or persons guaranteed equal treatment by law, and the materials used must be produced in Spain. The necessary funds for the execution of the 1934 public works programme were to be obtained by means of a loan of 50 million pesetas.

Sweden. — There has been a great expansion of loan expenditure during the last two years, and a large part of the public works programme was financed in this way, thus breaking with the former policy of raising loans only for revenue-producing works. In the year 1933-1934 total loan expenditure amounted to 250.6 million kronor, or about 25 per cent. of the total budget, and in 1934-1935 it was estimated at 220 million kronor. The Government now considers that unemployment has been so much reduced and economic activity has so far recovered that further loan expenditure of this kind is not required. The budget for 1935-1936, therefore, does not include any item of loan expenditure for non-revenue-producing public works. In March 1934 the Government introduced a series of Bills dealing with unemployment. They are based on the policy which was accepted by the Riksdag in 1933, most importance being attached to providing openings for employment on extraordinary public works and special " reserve works " for the unemployed, supplemented by a limited system of cash relief. The Government was authorised to borrow 180 million kronor for this purpose in 1933-1934. The estimated expenditure for the same purpose in 1934-1935 is 125 million kronor.

Switzerland. — The Federal Council drafted a general programme for providing employment and otherwise resisting the depression, which was adopted by Parliament in December. It includes a number of measures which will enable public works to be distributed judiciously over the country and spread over a longer or shorter period of time according to the extent of unemployment. A Central Employment Office is set up to co-ordinate works undertaken by the Federal, cantonal and communal authorities and to study employment openings. The programme also provides for the execution of a large emergency works scheme estimated to cost the Confederation about 40 million francs during the years 1935 and 1936; the total cost during the same period, including the share of cantonal and communal authorities and the Federal railways, is estimated at 150 million francs. The scheme consists largely of railway and fortification work, and the construction and improvement of roads; it is expected to provide employment for 15,000 workers for two years. A draft Order submitted to Parliament towards the end of the year proposes an extension of the facilities accorded to cantonal and communal relief works. The Government has been following this policy for some years, the most recent measure being the opening of a credit of 3 million francs under a Decree dated 4 June 1934. The subsidy allowed by the Federal authorities for works of this sort may not exceed 30 per cent. of the sums paid in wages, or 50 per cent. in exceptional cases. Provision is also made for emergency work for unemployed non-manual workers and artists.

Union of South Africa. — As part of its programme of public works for the relief of unemployment among European workers, the Government decided in the latter half of 1934 to undertake an unusually large irrigation scheme. Besides providing work on the scheme itself, it is hoped eventually to settle some 5,000 to 6,000 families on the land when the scheme is finished.

United States. — Practically the whole of the 3,700 million dollars set aside for public works under the National Industrial Recovery Act of 1933 had been allocated by the middle of August 1934. It was estimated that 30 per cent. of all the allotments had been spent and about 28.8 per cent. of the man-hours required to complete the projects had been used up by 1 August. The number of persons employed directly at work on construction sites was substantially maintained at 250,000 from 1 December 1933 to the end of March 1934, and has since increased to 675,000. The average for September 1934 is estimated at 700,000. Among the Federal projects, roads have accounted for one-half of the total expenditure and one-third of the allotment. Among the non-Federal works, railroads, having between one-fourth and one-fifth of allotments, have accounted for over 60 per cent. of expenditure. In his Message to Congress at the beginning of January 1935, President Roosevelt put forward a new public works programme, which he hoped would give employment to 3,500,000 persons and enable the Federal

Government to wind up its expenditure on cash relief. This programme would cost about 4,000 million dollars, for which he proposed to make provision in the budget for the year 1935-1936. This sum, together with money required for other relief and recovery measures, would lead to a total budget deficit of over 4,500 million dollars. An interesting feature of the relief works organised under the auspices of the Civil Works Administration at the beginning of 1934 was that many of the works were intended specially for unemployed women workers.

Uruguay. — An Act of 23 February 1934 allotted the sum of 1,200,000 pesos to the campaign against unemployment. A Decree issued on the same date stipulated that a part of this sum should be used to repay loans contracted for the purpose of combating unemployment and that the balance should be divided among different municipalities for the purpose of financing public works.

Yugoslavia. — Supplementary regulations were issued during the year concerning the execution of public works. These regulations provide for the establishment of district public works councils throughout the country, to draw up lists of public works in each district and plans for their execution. In each province there is to be a provincial public works council, which will draw up an annual programme on the basis of the district councils' reports. The provincial programmes will subsequently be submitted to the Cabinet, which will thoroughly examine them and allot the requisite credits out of the State public works funds.

With a view to encouraging an expansion of economic activity, the National Workers' Insurance Office decided to place at the disposal of the local bodies part of its available funds. The money may be lent only to public bodies and may be utilised only for clearly defined purposes: water supply, electrification works, the building of hospitals and sanatoria, and improvement works in general. The annual sum to be devoted to public works of this kind will be about 20 million dinars. The Government has announced its intention of proposing the inclusion of a further sum of 100 million dinars in the budget for 1935-1936 for public works.

Other Forms of Occupation for the Unemployed

Various measures have been employed to maintain the physical fitness and efficiency of the unemployed. Labour camps, mainly intended for unemployed young persons under 25 years of age, have been instituted in many countries. Land settlement and allotment schemes have been set on foot with the dual object of enabling the unemployed to supply some of their own needs and of giving them healthy occupation. Physical training, reconditioning and recreation centres have been organised both by Governments and by voluntary welfare associations. To provide for the large number of boys leaving school for whom there is little chance of obtaining work, agricultural training courses have

been initiated either on farms set up for the purpose or with individual farmers.

In view of the discussion which is to take place at the International Labour Conference in June 1935 on unemployment among young persons, the International Labour Office has prepared a report on the subject [1], which contains statistical data and information on the school-leaving age and the age of admission to employment, general education, vocational training and social service measures, productive occupation, placing and the development of possibilities of normal employment.

Australia. — The majority of the States have initiated rural training schemes where boys leaving school are given intensive courses in agricultural work, in some cases supplemented by educational classes. Vocational training courses have also been set up and measures taken to improve the qualifications of youths for absorption into industry.

Austria. — A voluntary labour service has been established for young unemployed persons under 25 normally engaged in handicrafts, industry or commerce, and to some extent also for unemployed agricultural workers. Public authorities and public utility corporations are entitled to have work done by this service and the Government reserves for it a proportion of the public works carried out under the relief work programme. The Government either continues to pay unemployment benefit to the volunteers or more usually pays to the body which organises the work a contractual allowance for all the unemployed persons engaged by it. Volunteers receive rations, clothing, and a daily allowance of 50 groschen. In May 1934 the number of volunteers was 16,000, of whom 8,611 were in camps.

Canada. — The Dominion Government continues to provide one-third of an amount not to exceed 600 dollars per family for the purpose of enabling families who would otherwise be in receipt of cash relief to settle on the land and become in some measure self-supporting. The remaining two-thirds of the expenditure is contributed by the province and the municipality concerned. The camp scheme for single homeless unemployed men in need of relief continues to operate. Under this scheme the Department of National Defence organises camps for these men where they receive food, fuel, clothing and shelter, and are given work on undertakings of public utility. An Order in Council dated October 1933 provided for the care of 35,000 of these men during the period 1 November 1933 to 31 March 1934; the number actually in camp on 15 February 1934 was 19,725.

Czechoslovakia. — The introduction of a voluntary labour service was decided upon by the Council of Ministers in May 1934. The first camps were set up experimentally and organised by the

[1] *Unemployment among Young Persons.* International Labour Conference, 1935, Report III.

Ministry of Social Welfare. The camps accept young men between 18 and 24 years of age. They are mainly employed on road and railway building and repairing, but in addition to manual labour the programme includes educational courses, sports, and physical exercises.

In districts where unemployment is particularly acute the Ministry of Social Welfare decided to establish training and instruction centres for young unemployed persons. The number of persons admitted to these centres is limited to 50, and only young persons between 18 and 20 who are in dire need will be accepted. Among other things the centres provide courses in general and vocational education, youths being occupied chiefly in workshops while young women are taught cooking, sewing and domestic science. For the time being only forty centres were set up.

Another measure to maintain health and physical efficiency was taken by the municipal authorities of Prague. This consisted in the establishment of a special fund of 200,000 kč. to pay for medical attendance for the unemployed and their families, the fund to be administered independently of the city's other institutions for the relief of unemployed persons.

Danzig (Free City of). — An Order of 19 June 1934 converts the voluntary labour service which has existed since April 1932 into a compulsory service. All citizens between the ages of 17 and 25 are required to join, the period of service being one year. The Senate administers the service and organises the work, which must be chosen so as neither to compete with undertakings employing ordinary labour, nor to cause the dismissal of regular workers.

Denmark. — By an Act of 20 May 1933, the Government was granted a credit of 3 million kroner for the purpose of providing voluntary employment for young unemployed persons. This measure, which was at first introduced experimentally, was extended in March 1934 to 31 March 1935. Voluntary work is organised by local authorities, private organisations, trade unions and other similar associations. The service is open to young men between 18 and 24 years of age accepted by the Directorate of Labour, applications for admission being received by the local employment exchanges.

France. — A plan for the assistance of young unemployed persons of both sexes was carried out by the local sections of the Young Christian Workers' Organisation. The essential object is to bring together young unemployed persons with a view to helping them to find work, alleviating their distress both mental and material, and in particular helping them to utilise their enforced leisure for the purpose of practical and general education. Funds are raised by the publication of periodical bulletins or newspapers and the organisation of collections, lotteries, etc., to meet the cost of material relief.

Finland. — In view of the extent of unemployment among young persons, the Government drafted a scheme for the institution of camps. These are divided into two groups: one includes persons of 16 to 20 years and the other persons of 21 to 25 years. The first group is attached to agricultural undertakings, though the members learn other trades besides agriculture; they spend not more than one year in camp. In the second group the work more nearly resembles the former relief works, but special attention is given to welfare work and general education. Difficulties having arisen in respect of the choice of suitable farms, the application of the scheme was postponed until 1935, but it was anticipated that experimental camps for men between 20 and 25 years of age would be set up before that date.

Germany. — A voluntary labour service for women has been established. The object of this service is to train girls for their functions as mothers and housewives and to facilitate the carrying out of the National Socialist demographic and economic policy, which aims at diverting women workers from industrial and commercial employment to the home and the land. The service is open to girls between the ages of 17 and 25, and volunteers must undertake to stay not less than 30 weeks. The Institution for Employment Exchanges and Unemployment Insurance subsidises their employment in centres authorised by the President of the local employment exchange, and as a general rule for 26 weeks, which may be extended to 52 weeks in special cases.

During June and July 1934 the Labour Service was organised on a National-Socialist basis. It was detached from the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Labour and transferred to the Department of the Interior; the connection of the Ministry of Labour with the labour service was to be confined to the payment by the Institution for Employment Exchanges and Unemployment Insurance of the subsidies granted by the Government and the Institution to bodies and persons employing volunteer workers. Special schools were established for the training of officers for the labour service.

Great Britain. — Provision for the instruction of juveniles (under 18) has been extended by the Unemployment Act, 1934, which imposes a statutory obligation on local education authorities to provide courses of instruction for unemployed juveniles in all areas where the numbers of such juveniles make these courses necessary. Another clause of the Act empowers the Minister to require the attendance at any authorised course of all juveniles under 18 whether insured or not, provided they are capable of and available for work and have no work or only part-time or intermittent work. With regard to adults (over 18 years of age), the Act of 1934 makes provision for a continuation of existing training and instruction schemes and it authorises the new Assistance Board to enter into agreements with local authorities under which unemployed persons may be employed on work for the authority of such a character as will render them more fit for regular employ-

ment. Employment under such a scheme must not exceed three months and the rate of wages must be that customary in the district.

Allotments have been organised mainly by certain local authorities and by the Society of Friends. On 1 December 1934 it was reported that the Society of Friends, with the aid of a Government grant, had helped 117,000 men with allotments during the year, and in addition 800 men had been assisted on group holdings where, in addition to tilling the land, they also kept fowl and pigs.

An experiment in "subsistence production" was initiated in March 1934 in the rural district of Upholland. The object of the scheme was to find out whether satisfactory arrangements could be made to enable chronically unemployed and reasonably fit men amongst the older age groups to improve their standard of living by healthy, productive but non-competitive occupation. The principle followed is production for use by the producers themselves and the advantages of group co-operation are procured by means of a system of exchange. The experiment, which is financed by gifts of money from private sources, was started on a small scale by a selected group of unemployed persons, but an extension of the scheme has now been made possible and plans are being drawn up for similar experiments on a larger scale.

Italy. — The Minister of Corporations has issued a Circular instructing the provincial authorities to arrange for supplementary vocational training courses for the unemployed and specialised courses for workers in employment, in view of the fact that the recent reduction of the hours of labour has led to an increased demand for skilled labour and that in some parts of the country the supply is limited.

Luxemburg. — A Grand Ducal Order of 14 April 1934 makes provision for the vocational training of young unemployed workers. Under this Order the Government grants subsidies for training such persons for occupations for which there is a shortage of labour, provided they are in need and that they are nationals of Luxemburg and resident there. The subsidies are paid through the employment offices, which undertake the placing of apprentices in undertakings. Employers are required to pay apprentices engaged under the Order the wages customary in the occupation and district. Apprentices who benefit by the provisions of the Order must be over 14 and under 21 years of age.

Poland. — The Association for the Assistance of Unemployed Young Persons, which is subsidised by the Ministry of Social Welfare and the Unemployment Fund, is the central body responsible for the organisation of the voluntary labour service. The objects of the service are to provide young unemployed men with work under conditions designed to prepare them for their subsequent occupation, to give them a better civic education, and to inspire them with a love of work in the interests of the community. Manual labour is the chief item in the programme of occupation, consisting

in the execution of public works such as railway and road building, river correction and land improvement, and also employment in workshops. Volunteers are enrolled by the local unemployment committees or through youth organisations and distributed to employment centres outside the towns. Each centre contains 100 to 400 workers housed in accommodation provided free of charge by the military or municipal authorities or specially built by the Association. The centres are open to young men from 17 to 22 years of age who have not yet performed their military service; for girls and young women the age is 15 to 18. In 1934 there were 60 unemployment centres containing about 9,000 workers.

The Federation of Non-Manual Workers recently took steps to provide for the vocational training of unemployed non-manual workers. With a view to the better distribution of non-manual workers on the labour market, the Federation decided to establish an institute for vocational training and retraining. The tasks of the Institute include the following: methodical study of the problem of unemployment among non-manual workers, vocational retraining of non-manual workers with a view to their absorption in occupations different from those they previously exercised, and the provision of new posts for non-manual workers in occupations which have not hitherto been open to them on a large enough scale. The Institute includes a Scientific Committee with the duty of conducting research into unemployment; and the vocational retraining is carried out by means of courses lasting six months which are given free of charge to certain classes of students.

Saar Territory. — Under a Decree of 8 November 1933 the Governing Commission laid down regulations for a voluntary labour service. This service was open to all unemployed young men between the ages of 21 and 25 years who were in receipt of unemployment relief. As a rule the volunteers were engaged for a period of 20 weeks during which they received their ordinary unemployment benefit, plus a supplement of 25 per cent. The work was organised by the local authorities, who might employ the volunteers on works of public utility which they could not afford to have carried out in the ordinary way or in the form of relief work.

Sweden. — A special committee was appointed to enquire into unemployment among young workers. The committee recommended, among other measures, the extension of the courses of training for unemployed young workers organised by the local unemployment committees, the expansion of the voluntary labour service, and experiments with special works for young workers. On 28 April 1934 the Government introduced a Bill based mainly on these proposals, and containing measures intended primarily for the assistance of unemployed workers between 18 and 21 years of age. The Minister of Social Affairs estimated that during the financial year beginning 1 July 1934 the number of unemployed persons in the age group 16 to 21 would average 20,000. The special measures proposed in the Bill would provide for 15,000 of these.

With the extension of relief works contemplated under the general unemployment relief programme, it was assumed that the great majority of the remaining 5,000 would be provided for in the ordinary way. The Bill provides for the assistance of unemployed persons of the ages in question in the form of training and occupation, 8,000 attending courses, 5,000 undertaking voluntary labour service, and 2,000 being found employment on the special relief works for young workers. The Bill proposed a credit of 5.5 million kronor for the measures contemplated. The Bill ultimately became law, but according to press reports the measures have only been carried out to a limited extent owing to the improvement in the juvenile unemployment situation.

Switzerland. — A Federal relief plan submitted to Parliament in the form of a draft Decree calls for the encouragement of voluntary labour service for young unemployed men under 24 years of age. The subsidy which the Federal Government proposes to pay to bodies organising such services is not to exceed two-fifths of the expenditure on wages, while the cantonal and local authorities would be required to pay at least an equal sum. The men belonging to the labour service centres would continue to be registered at the employment exchanges, so that they could be restored to normal employment as rapidly as possible.

Union of South Africa — The Department of Defence of the Union has organised a special service battalion in which unemployed youths between the ages of 17 and 22 may enlist. The objects of this battalion are as follows: (*a*) to provide a means of temporary employment for the better educated young men of the country; (*b*) to sustain the morale of the younger generation and by means of military discipline create a more self-reliant citizen; (*c*) ultimately to find suitable and more permanent means of employment after a period of military training. The plan provides for the training of 1,990 youths. They receive military and physical training, and a limited number also receive vocational training. The battalion forms a pool from which the defence, police, prisons and other Government departments draw suitable recruits, according to their requirements. The battalion is a unit of the Permanent Force, and in addition to being clothed, housed and fed, members receive a minimum daily rate of 1s.

United States, — Under an Act of 31 March 1933 a series of camps was established under the control of the Civilian Conservation Corps. It was originally proposed that this force should be made up of 250,000 young men between the ages of 18 and 25 years, but later it was decided that ex-soldiers and a limited number of experienced woodsmen should also be enrolled and the total strength increased. A second series of camps, entirely separate from the Civilian Conservation Corps, is operated for Indians on Indian reservations. A third series is made up of camps in Puerto Rico, Alaska and Hawaii. The men are taken on for six-monthly periods, at the end of which they may sign on again, but in order

that the scheme may benefit the widest possible circle of unemployed the maximum period of service of each worker is limited to twelve or fifteen months. The men are clothed, fed and housed under canvas and receive wages at the rate of 30 dollars a month. In August 1934 the total authorised strength of the Emergency Conservation Work personnel was 369,838; of these 352,600 were members of the Civilian Conservation Corps, 14,861 Indians on Indian reservations, and 2,377 were employed in outlying possessions. The Civilian Conservation Corps included 284,125 men between 18 and 25 years of age, 33,225 ex-soldiers and 35,250 experienced woodsmen. There were 1,696 camps in operation.

A Federal programme is also being worked out embodying a combination of part-time industrial employment with gardening on a scale large enough to furnish a considerable proportion of the family food supply. Two agencies of the Federal Government are supporting this programme, the Subsistence Homesteads Division of the Department of the Interior and the Federal Emergency Relief Administration. The Subsistence Homesteads Division was allotted 25 million dollars for this purpose under the National Industrial Recovery Act; its projects are intended as steps in a process of redistribution of surplus population and to provide homes for stranded industrial groups and part-time industrial workers. The Federal Emergency Relief Administration projects are designed to aid families now on relief to become self-supporting and are intended mainly for agricultural workers. The net value of the food produced per settler is expected to be about 200 dollars a year. The provision of part-time industrial employment is a difficult feature of the programme, and it is hoped to attract industrial enterprises to the community and to develop handicrafts adapted to the skill and aptitude of the settlers.

To maintain the health of unemployed persons various rulings have been laid down by the Federal Emergency Relief Administration for the improvement of medical, dental and nursing services for sick unemployed persons in receipt of relief, and the use of Federal relief money has been authorised to pay for medical attendance in the homes of the unemployed persons.

Other Unemployment Measures

In this section, a number of enquiries and measures are referred to which do not fit conveniently into any of the previous sections. Some particulars will be found of investigations made into different aspects of the unemployment problem in Belgium, Great Britain, Assam (India) and the United States, and of measures for the provision of houses for the unemployed in Australia. In a number of countries steps have been taken to restrict the admission or employment of foreigners. Details of these measures are given in the section on " Organisation and Control of Immigration ".

Australia — Two Acts put into force a scheme for providing homes for the unemployed. Under the Housing of the Unemployed

Act, which received the Royal Assent on 29 June 1934, a Trust was set up composed of a Minister and eight members appointed by the Governor, whose functions were to assist unemployed and other necessitous persons to purchase or rent suitable houses. The Trust was also to provide for the construction of dwellings and arrange for their occupation by the unemployed on terms which would encourage them ultimately to secure them for themselves. Where possible, land fit for cultivation would be obtained to enable the occupiers of the houses to grow some of their own food. The Housing of the Unemployed (Grant) Act, which also received the Royal Assent on 29 June, provided for a sum of £200,000 to be transferred from revenue to a special account for the use of the Trust in carrying out the scheme. The co-operation of the public was invited in the form of gifts of money or land or other assistance.

Belgium. — The Solvay Institute of Sociology continued its enquiries into the living conditions of unemployed workers drawing insurance benefit in various Belgian cities. In 1934 it published the results of its enquiry in the Charleroi area. In this area the reduction in monthly income brought about by unemployment in the families studied was large, varying from 32.5 per cent. to 66.7 per cent. Household expenditure was necessarily cut down and in many cases far-reaching changes were made in the manner of living; the amount spent on rent was often excessive, representing from 12.6 per cent. to 31.4 per cent. of the total expenditure. The psychological effects of unemployment were also studied and attention was drawn to the lassitude and hopelessness often engendered.

Great Britain. — Four commissioners were appointed by the Government in April 1934 to investigate conditions in certain depressed areas where unemployment was particularly acute and to suggest remedial measures. Their reports, which were issued towards the close of the year, contained a wide range of practical proposals and suggestions and, in addition to recommendations for local relief measures, brought forward strong arguments in favour of a national policy and Government action. Each report laid emphasis on the serious problem presented by the big labour surplus that was unlikely to be absorbed into industry in the near future in any of the areas investigated. Specific proposals were made to meet the special conditions obtaining in the different areas, but the following measures were recommended in varying degrees by all four commissioners: a public works programme; land settlement and afforestation; the granting of financial facilities for new small industries; the encouragement of industrial transference, especially of boys and girls; the provision of more extensive training facilities; the encouragement of centres for the unemployed; and the promotion of housing schemes.

The reports were discussed in Parliament, and the Special Areas (Development and Improvement) Act received the Royal Assent on 21 December 1934. The Act provided for the appointment of two commissioners with wide powers to initiate, organise, prosecute

and assist measures designed for the economic development and social improvement of these depressed districts. The commissioners were to make suggestions to and co-operate with Government departments, local authorities, voluntary organisations and other bodies, and in particular to act in association with the Unemployment Assistance Board in matters relating to the promotion of the welfare of persons to whom the Unemployment Act, 1934, applies. As work on the land offered prospects of occupation and subsistence to those who could not be employed in industry, the commissioners were given power to acquire land compulsorily and to hold it or sell it or transfer it to local authorities or other public bodies. As regards finance, it was announced in the House of Commons that a preliminary sum of £2,000,000 would be paid out of the revenue of the years 1934-1935 into a special fund, issues from which would be under the control of the Treasury. The commissioners were also empowered with the consent of the Treasury to accept any gift or bequest for purposes within their functions.

India. — Here unemployment affects primarily the professional and middle classes. A special Committee was appointed in Assam in December 1933 to enquire into the problem and to devise schemes to relieve it. The Committee has issued an interim report suggesting that an economic survey of Assam should be undertaken covering the natural resources of the province, its large-scale and cottage industries, existing marketing facilities and the possibility of their future expansion, and the advisability of starting new industries.

United States. — A series of studies has been undertaken by the Federal Emergency Relief Administration into various aspects of the unemployment problem, such as its extent with regard to a particular class of worker, the distribution of unemployed persons by occupation, industry, sex, age, etc. The object of these studies was to help in the formulation of relief programmes. One such enquiry was made with the co-operation of the States and local authorities to determine the share of relief costs which States might reasonably be expected to bear; another to find out how many persons in receipt of relief were capable of employment in industry and how many were likely to be permanently dependent on some type of relief; yet another to determine the best and most rapid method of enabling rural families to become self-supporting.

Federal funds have been utilised for the employment of needy unemployed teachers in rural schools, to extend educational opportunities to the unemployed, and for grants to students in colleges and universities to enable them to complete their courses. Special measures have also been taken to protect the children of the unemployed from the consequences of the depression, such as the provision of meals to schoolchildren who showed signs of improper and insufficient feeding and the organisation of nursery schools to be conducted by qualified unemployed teachers for children of the pre-school age.

Employment Exchanges

The primary function of employment exchanges is to adjust the supply of, and the demand for, labour, by providing a mechanism through which workers can be put in touch with vacant posts and employers with the most suitable workers available for their vacancies. Arising out of this function is another of very great importance, namely, to compile statistics which enable those concerned to know when the supply of labour is in excess of the demand or when demand outruns supply. These statistics thus serve as an economic barometer indicating the ups and downs of economic fluctuations. They may play a great part in indicating to the public authorities the time when public works programmes should be extended or retarded. These characteristics of employment exchanges are being increasingly recognised and in the following notes reference will be found to a reorganisation of the public employment service which has taken place in a number of countries. The unemployment of recent years has necessarily placed a great strain on the exchanges and measures have been taken in certain countries with the object of giving preference to particular classes of people, such as members of certain organisations, or workers in particular age groups, or men rather than women, or of preventing people from engaging in several jobs simultaneously. Another question to which considerable attention is being paid at the present time is that of regulating or in some cases abolishing fee-charging employment agencies. Particulars of measures which have been adopted in various countries will be found below.

Austria — A Ministerial Circular issued to the district industrial commissions on 16 June 1934 lays down rules for preferential treatment by the public employment exchanges of members of the Defence Corps, the Federation of Trade Unions and the Patriotic Front. For employment on public works priority must be given to members of the Defence Corps in possession of employment cards; next, to unemployed persons in receipt of relief, preference being given to members of the Patriotic Front; and thirdly, to all persons not included in the other classes. In the case of work for which special qualifications are necessary, the qualifications of the applicants are the deciding factor. For private employment too the vocational qualifications are the deciding factor, but members of the Defence Corps in possession of employment cards have the right to priority of employment up to 4 per cent. of the staff of the undertaking concerned.

Belgium. — A Royal Order of 27 July 1934 reorganised the public employment service and set up employment and unemployment offices which are responsible not only for placing work but also for the supervision of unemployment insurance societies.

By a Royal Decree of 8 December 1934 the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare is empowered to limit the employment of women

in order to favour the employment of men. Before using these powers the Minister is required to consult the most representative employers' and workers' organisations or the joint board of the industry in question, and he may decide, after consultation with the organisations concerned, that the replacement of women workers by men shall be carried out by the employment exchanges. A maximum percentage of women may be fixed for any industry, trade or occupation, but the application of a quota is not contemplated in undertakings where economical working normally depends on the employment of women.

A further Decree of the same date empowers the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare to fix the proportion of foreign workers which may be employed in industrial and commercial undertakings.

Bulgaria. — An Order of 2 December 1933 provides for the establishment of three regional employment exchanges. These exchanges will include an office for placing in employment, an unemployment insurance office, a conciliation committee, and an office for legal aid and education of workers. The Order describes in detail all the tasks to be carried out by these exchanges.

China. — A campaign against unemployment among the educated classes was set on foot by students of the higher education institutions of Peking. As a result of their demands, an employment and vocational guidance office has been established for university students, known as the National Academic Enquiry and Employment Bureau. Its duties will consist in making enquiries and collecting information concerning vacancies in all the educational establishments of the country, in studying the problem of unemployed graduates in China, in recommending them for educational posts and in drafting measures to enable persons with engineering and scientific degrees to apply their knowledge.

Czechoslovakia. — A Legislative Decree was issued on 20 April 1934 establishing a system of Government control of dismissals and suspensions of work and requiring longer periods of notice. The Decree had retrospective effect as from 15 March 1934 and will remain in operation until 30 June 1935. An Order has been issued by the Minister of Commerce providing for the regulation of fee-charging employment agencies. The administrative authorities are required to exercise strict supervision over the work of these agencies and to take severe measures against those which infringe the regulations. A revision of all existing concessions is to take place.

Estonia. — Important changes have been made in the organisation of employment exchanges by a Decree of 20 June 1934. According to the provisions of this Decree the exchanges are to carry on their work free of charge and their registers are to be open to all persons over 14 who have resided for two months or more in the district in which the exchange operates. An unemployed person to whom the exchange offers work is required to accept it unless he can

show good reason for refusing. Any unemployed person who, without good reason, refuses to accept work offered by the exchange or commits a breach of labour discipline will be struck off the register for a period of two years.

France. — The rates of subsidies granted by the State to departments and local authorities instituting public employment exchanges were amended by a Decree, issued on 30 June 1934, which has effect as from the second half of the previous year. The Decree makes provision for four different classes of subsidies, and for the purposes of assessment divides the local employment exchanges into classes according to the size of the population of the district where they are situated. Subsidies vary from 20 to 40 per cent. of the expenditure according to scales which are based on the average monthly placing statistics.

On the other hand, several Decrees and Circulars have been issued defining the measures to be taken to abolish or limit the holding of more than one post at a time in the public services with a view to reducing unemployment in the occupations concerned. A Legislative Decree of 4 April 1934 provided that as a general rule no person shall be allowed to hold more than one salaried post under the Government or the departmental, communal or colonial authorities or in public undertakings. A further Decree of 25 October 1934 set up a Committee without the approval of which no exemptions under this rule might be granted. Government services have been asked to see that their officials refrain from engaging in any paid activity outside their own work and the Minister of the Interior has issued to the Prefects a Circular dealing particularly with the communal administrations.

Germany. — An Act to regulate the engagement of labour, the object of which is to stop the movement of workers from the country districts to the towns, was adopted by the Government on 15 May 1934. It empowers the President of the Institution for Employment Exchanges and Unemployment Insurance, first, to rule that in specified districts no worker or salaried employee not domiciled in the district may be engaged without a special permit from the competent employment exchange; secondly, to restrict the engagement of agricultural workers in certain categories of non-agricultural undertakings; and thirdly, to require employers in non-agricultural undertakings in specified districts to dismiss workers and salaried employees who have been employed in agriculture at any time during the preceding three years. The Act also contains provisions regarding the postponement of relief works and the limitation of the number of unemployed engaged thereon. The President of the Institution issued a series of Decrees on 17 May to give effect to the Act. The enforcement of the Act in Berlin resulted in a large fall in the number of unemployed, and on 30 August the President ordered its extension to a number of north German cities, exceptions being made with regard to seamen.

On 19 June 1934 an appeal was issued by the leader of the Ger-

man employers' organisation and the President of the Institution of Employment Exchanges and Unemployment Insurance calling on all employers in commerce and industry to replace the younger workers employed in their undertakings as far as possible by unemployed men who were older or had family responsibilities. The adjustment was to be carried out in collaboration with the employment exchanges, and the workers discharged were to be mainly unskilled workers. Measures taken both before and as a result of the appeal led to numerous difficulties and to a feeling of insecurity among both employers and employed persons. An Order was therefore issued on 10 August 1934 providing that the President of the Institution of Employment Exchanges and Unemployment Insurance should have sole competence to regulate the distribution of employment. Accordingly, on 28 August the President issued an Order providing for the compulsory replacement, under the direction of the employment exchanges, of all workers under 25 (with certain exceptions) by unemployed persons above that age or having family responsibilities. The Order applied to public administrations as well as to private undertakings, excluding agriculture and forestry, shipping and domestic service. Heads of undertakings and the employment exchanges were to satisfy themselves of the possibility of placing young workers thus discharged in other posts, in the voluntary labour service, or in the Agricultural Aid. The Order further provided that no undertaking might engage a worker under 25 without the previous consent of the Labour Office. Provision was also made for the payment of subsidies to compensate for lowered efficiency to undertakings which engaged male employees over 40 who had been unemployed for long periods.

Great Britain. — On 2 March 1934 a deputation from the General Council of the Trades Union Congress and the London Trades Council put before the Minister of Labour arguments in favour of the abolition of fee-charging employment agencies. A resolution adopted by the Trades Union Congress asked that the Ministry should, wherever possible, establish specialised exchanges to meet the needs of specialised trades. It was urged that without total prohibition of these agencies it would not be possible to abolish effectively the undesirable practices which, it was alleged, had grown up in connection with them. The Minister replied that specialised exchanges had been established for the building and catering trades; they were being started experimentally for domestic servants and it was hoped to extend and develop the experiment.

Hungary. — With a view to remedying to some extent the existing unemployment among professional workers, the Government approached the manufacturers' associations, the banks and the representatives of agricultural interests, and invited them to give the necessary support to proposed measures for the purpose of securing employment for young persons holding certificates of the higher educational institutions.

Italy. — A Bill to institute employment books was introduced in the Senate on 2 November 1934. With a few exceptions, the Bill required all employed persons, including home workers, to possess employment books, and it was provided that no employment exchange might register a worker who could not produce his book, and that employers engaging persons whose books were not in order might be fined.

The main details which the book must contain are as follows: (1) holder's name, etc., place and date of birth, address, number and age of children, whether holder has been abroad, date of entry into the Fascist Party, particulars of military service, war record, whether disabled in the war, whether a war orphan, particulars of military decorations, etc.; (2) educational record; (3) medical certificate of fitness to work (in case of persons covered by the Act relating to employment of women and children); (4) full name and domicile of employer, name and headquarters of the undertaking, occupation, remuneration rate, trade union organisation to which holder belongs, date on which any employment began and ended; (5) accidents during employment and absence from work entailed; (6) sickness and length of absence involved; (7) number of invalidity and old-age insurance card.

During the first three years after the Bill has become law, the Minister of Corporations may limit its operation to specified trades.

Luxemburg. — An Order of 14 April 1934 aims at increasing openings for employment for salaried employees by making the engagement of certain classes of persons, such as those in receipt of pensions or annuities in excess of 8,000 francs a year and women office workers, conditional on the issue of a special permit from the Director of Labour and Social Welfare.

Mexico. — Regulations were issued on 6 March 1934 giving effect to the Act of 28 August 1931 relating to the organisation of public employment exchanges. A number of provisions affecting private agencies are also included. The Department of Labour is instructed to set up employment exchanges wherever necessary, their functions to consist in registering and publishing applications for employment and labour, keeping statistics thereof, and compiling data for use in investigating the causes of strikes. They are also required to assist in organising apprenticeship, vocational guidance and vocational training. An employer may not, without good reason, refuse to engage workers referred to him by an employment exchange, provided they fulfil the conditions attached to the vacancies.

Private employment agencies are prohibited except in the Federal District and the Federal Territories. Licences to keep private agencies will be issued by the Social Welfare Office of the Department of Labour, which will determine the conditions under which such agencies may operate and supervise their activities. Private agencies may not require any payment from the workers, but employers may be charged rates, which must be approved by the Social Welfare Office.

Palestine. — An Employment Exchange and Arbitration Office has been established at Tel-Aviv which is administered by a committee of three persons, consisting of the mayor of the town, a rabbi, and a delegate of the General Federation of Jewish Workers. The Exchange is entrusted with placing in employment and inspection of the building and public works industry and other industries in Tel-Aviv. Contractors are bound to employ only workers sent to them by the Employment Exchange.

Poland. — As stated above [1], the Employment Fund has been entrusted with the administration of public works, unemployment insurance and employment exchanges. Placing and vocational guidance will be carried out by employment exchanges attached to the local committees of the Employment Fund. The Central Committee of the Fund will fix the number and territorial scope of the exchanges; it may establish offices or sections for specified regions or occupations. Advisory boards composed of representatives of the employment exchanges, the Factory Inspection Service and the employers and workers may be set up at the exchanges. No placing fee is required of the workers. Employers who engage staff through the employment exchanges will be required to pay certain specified charges.

United States. — An emergency organisation to deal with the selection and placing of applicants for work on highways and public works constructed with the funds made available under the National Recovery Act was set up in July 1933. This organisation is known as the National Re-Employment Service and is under the direction of the United States Employment Service. The National Re-Employment Service differs from the State Employment Service in that it is financed and administered exclusively by the Federal Government and is a temporary organisation. In December 1933 there were 3,320 local re-employment offices in operation. Upon the completion of the work of the Civil Works Administration in the spring of 1934, the re-employment service was reorganised and the number of district offices reduced. By 30 June 1934 the total number of national re-employment offices was 648, each serving a specified area. During the 14 months ending 31 August 1934, 9,636,338 applicants had been registered by the re-employment offices and 5,971,153 had been found employment.

Uruguay. — An Act of 11 January 1934 provides that the Ministry of Labour shall establish in the principal town in each department an employment exchange under the Pension Fund for Industry, Commerce and the Public Services. No charge is made for the services of the exchange. A supervisory committee of three members—one representing the employers, one the workers and one the Government—is established in connection with each exchange. The activi-

[1] See above, under " Insurance and Relief Measures ".

ties of all the exchanges are centralised and co-ordinated in the National Employment Registration Office, which is set up under the immediate control of the Ministry of Labour.

Migration

The most recent migration statistics reflect a situation distinctly different from that of the preceding year. The resumption observed in different quarters—which has been fairly marked as regards intercontinental movements—may vary in duration and intensity, but it can hardly now be doubted that the very low level of migration in recent years was an exceptional and transitory phenomenon. No doubt the figures for migration within each continent speak less clearly, and indicate that the depression is still having its effect; but it is in any case evident that the forces normally active are tending to re-establish the equilibrium, which was temporarily disturbed by the transformation of emigration into immigration countries, and *vice versa*, owing to the large volume of repatriation.

The tables given in Volume II show the volume of emigration and immigration during the last six years (1928-1933), continent by continent and country by country. The figures below give the total net *intercontinental* emigration or immigration for nationals of twelve European countries and for aliens of six oversea countries:

(In thousands)

	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
Twelve European countries	— 251.2	— 163.5	— 82.7	+ 114.5	+ 118.9	+ 70.2[1]
Six oversea countries	+ 220.4	+ 240.8	+ 166.3	— 24.3	— 64.8	— 36.0[2]

[1] Eleven countries, excluding Portugal.
[2] Four countries, excluding New Zealand and Urnguay.

Intercontinental emigration from a number of countries continued to fall in 1933, for instance, in Great Britain (27,000 departures, as against 34,000 in 1932), and Greece (10,800, as against 13,600), as also in several less important emigration countries. Of oversea immigration countries, there was a falling off in Argentina (24,300 arrivals, as against 31,300) and Canada.

But the figures for 1934 bring numerous proofs of a weakening in this decline, and even of a renewed rise. The Austrian oversea emigration total increased from 1,400 in 1933 to 2,200 in 1934, that of Great Britain from 26,300 to 29,200, and that of Italy from 22,300 to 26,100; while immigration into Canada went up from 5,900 to 6,400. A similar recovery had been visible earlier in a few countries which bulk large in intercontinental migration, and in these cases the 1934 increase is not a novelty; Poland's total for such emigration rose from 9,700 in 1932 to 17,200 in 1933 and 20,800

in 1934; immigration into Australia has been going up slightly for the last three years; and the number of immigrants into Palestine has increased year by year since 1931 from 4,300 to 7,500, 28,900 and 39,000.

Except for this last case, where the records have been broken, the level of oversea migration is still very low and in no way comparable with the average since the war—much less with that for the period of great economic expansion in 1927-1929. Moreover, to judge by certain statistics, especially the Canadian for 1934, the ratio of relatives (wives and children) to breadwinners remains high; and it should not be forgotten that the figure for European emigration to the United States—the principal country to which emigration from Europe is directed—continues its precipitous fall, and was only 15,400 in 1933, a reduction of over 90 per cent. in four years.

It is equally significant that 1934 saw a further and greater decline in the ratio of returning to departing emigrants in Great Britain, while in Italy a slight excess of departures over returns took the place of that typical depression phenomenon, an excess of repatriation over emigration, and in Poland the excess of departures was further increased during the year. The repatriation movement similarly declined more or less markedly in many other intercontinental immigration and emigration States.

Statistics relating to *continental* migration are much less complete than those for intercontinental migration, and it is difficult to distinguish a pronounced tendency in any direction. A number of increases were registered in 1933 and 1934, some of them anything but steady and reliable; yet, in most cases there were decreases which bore witness to the persistence of the economic depression.

Of the continental emigration countries, India, whence over 220,000 people emigrated in 1927, counted only 10,000 emigrants in 1933 against 20,000 in 1932. As regards Europe, the emigration figures fell off slightly in Belgium and Greece, and more strongly in Czechoslovakia (from 17,400 to 12,200). Continental emigration from Sweden remained stationary between the two years, while in Yugoslavia it recovered slightly in 1933. In Poland, the movement has grown steadily since 1932 (11,800, 18,400 and 21,800 for that and the next two years), owing to the outlet which agricultural employment in France continued to provide until 1934.

Of immigration countries, the continental inwards movement increased only in France and Palestine (France, 69,500 in 1932 and 74,600 in 1933; Palestine, 3,000 in 1933 and 5,200 in 1934). In the other immigration countries—except in the United States and Sweden, where continental immigration hardly varied—there were decreases: in Ceylon (from 143,700 to 121,300), Yugoslavia (from 8,200 to 3,900), Rumania (from 3,800 to 2,400), Belgium (from 14,900 to 10,000), Austria (from 6,700 to 4,800), Czechoslovakia (from 3,100 to 2,700), Greece (from 2,500 to 2,000), Hungary (from 1,400 to 800), etc.

At the same time, however, *repatriation*—another symptom of depression—lost a large part of the abnormal volume it had acquired in preceding years. Statistics of the emigration of aliens show that between 1932 and 1933 their departures fell from 4,100 to 3,600 in Rumania, from 14,900 to 10,000 in Belgium, from 108,500 to 74,600 in France, and from 31,100 to 11,400 in the United States, while in Ceylon the figure remained roughly unchanged. The same applies to the return of former emigrants to Greece in 1932 and 1933, while in these two years the total fell from 3,000 to 2,000 in Belgium, from 18,200 to 10,200 in Canada, from 32,700 to 14,900 in Poland, and from 146,300 to 111,200 in India. As regards 1934, the repatriation figure rose again in Poland (to 31,600), but fell in Italy (28,800, as against 39,000 in 1932 and in 1933) and in Canada (7,300 as against 10,200).

Organisation and Control of Emigration

Owing to unfavourable economic conditions and to the additional restrictions introduced in most immigration countries, emigration was very low in 1934. It is thus natural that few measures to organise it were taken during the year.

Nevertheless, in *Denmark* the Rigsdag approved the report of a committee which had been instructed to study the possibilities of emigration to oversea countries. A technical delegation was formed and was to leave on 20 September 1934 for Argentina, Brazil and Chile with a view to continuing the negotiations already begun with the Governments of those countries. Further, under an Act of 2 May 1934 to reorganise Danish emigration, its administration was placed in the hands of the Ministry of Social Affairs and an enquiry office was set up to advise and guide emigrants who need information on conditions in oversea countries. The Act also regulates the contracts which must be concluded between emigrants and emigration agents, and empowers the Government to issue regulations for the protection of emigrants during the journey.

In *Spain*, a Ministerial Order of 23 August 1934 gave renewed effect, in full, to the Royal Order of 25 September 1930, which prohibited the emigration to Cuba of adult Spanish men not in possession of contracts of employment.

Organisation and Control of Immigration

The policy of restricting immigration, instances of which have been mentioned in previous years, led to the passing of a fresh batch of measures in 1934. Most of these were aimed at safeguarding the employment of national labour.

Angola (Portuguese West Africa). — Legislative Decree No. 570 of 24 February 1934 governs the admission and residence of aliens

entering the Colony with a view to obtaining Government concessions or establishing industrial or commercial undertakings; they must pay a deposit, which is refunded on final departure from the Colony.

Argentina. — A new Immigration Decree, promulgated on 22 January 1934, provides for payment of a fee of 33 gold pesos for the consular visa of the passport and other documents required of immigrants. This is not applicable to immigrants entering at the request of relatives already resident in Argentina or to agricultural workers; the latter are required to deposit the fee, which is refunded to them as soon as they in fact obtain agricultural employment.

Austria. — A Government Order of 24 November 1933 prohibits the naturalisation of aliens, the object being to protect the national labour market. The Government may, however, permit naturalisation as a special measure in isolated cases.

Belgium. — A Royal Order dated 8 December 1934 authorises the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare to restrict the employment of foreign workers by fixing the proportion which may be employed in the whole country, or in specified regions or occupations. Before using these powers, the Minister is required to consult the employers' and workers' organisations concerned.

Brazil. — The new Federal Constitution of 16 July 1934 lays down that the quota of persons of any nationality authorised to immigrate in any one year may not exceed 2 per cent. of the number of persons of that nationality who have settled in Brazil during the last 50 years. Further, the concentration of immigrants in any part of Brazilian territory is prohibited. Two Decrees, dated 9 and 16 May 1934, govern the admission of immigrants; they impose a number of restrictions and provide that no alien may enter Brazil unless he is in possession of a letter of invitation (a permit issued at the request of a society or person already domiciled in Brazil, or of a Brazilian authority). In the case of agricultural workers whose admission is applied for by persons other than Brazilian authorities, letters of invitation are issued only if the workers have concluded contracts of employment with these persons.

Cuba. — A Legislative Decree dated 8 November 1933, the administration of which is governed by a Decree issued on the following 6 December, provides that at least 50 per cent. of the staffs of all industrial, commercial and agricultural undertakings must be of Cuban birth.

Dominican Republic. — Immigration is regulated by an Act and Administrative Regulations signed on 14 August and 7 September 1934 respectively. Under these measures the immigration authorities are required to ascertain the number of aliens employed in every undertaking in order to secure observance of the Act of 2 November 1933, which stipulates that at least 70 per cent. of the

workers employed by any undertaking must be Dominicans. Any person desiring to enter the country as an immigrant must obtain an immigration permit from the Ministry of the Interior, and pay a deposit of 50 dollars (United States), which is refunded on arrival in the Republic.

France. — On 20 November 1934 the Government decided on the following measures with the object of reducing the number of alien workers employed in the country: applications for employment cards by new immigrants are to be refused; every application for the renewal of an existing employment card is to be closely examined; each contract for public works or supplies concluded on behalf of the Treasury or any other public authority or a public service under concession must include a stipulation to the effect that the contract is to be carried out with French labour only. Moreover, a number of Decrees have been issued fixing the maximum proportion of foreign workers which may be employed in specified regions and occupations.

Guatemala. — A Decree issued on 7 May 1934 prohibits the admission of immigrants intending to take up paid employment in agriculture, commerce or industry. Exceptions may be allowed in the case of technical workers engaged by the Government or by private undertakings.

Honduras. — A new Immigration Act was passed on 14 May 1934. An Immigration and Settlement Office is responsible for the supervision of immigration and of the placing in employment and protection of immigrants. Immigrants are divided for settlement purposes into three groups: those immigrating without a contract of employment, those immigrating under a contract with the Government, and those engaged by private persons or undertakings. Special facilities are granted to immigrants of the first group. The Act also specifies the categories of persons who may be refused admission.

Luxemburg. — An Order dated 31 May 1934 lays down that aliens must hold identity cards.

Mexico. — A Ministerial Order of 16 February 1934 prohibits for an indefinite period the entry of persons coming to Mexico for the purpose of engaging in remunerated activity there.

New Zealand. — The provisions of the Immigration Restriction Amendment Act of 1931, which expired on 31 December 1933, were extended for two years. This Act gives the Government the power to prohibit or restrict the entry into New Zealand of persons of any specified nationality or race or of any specified class or occupation, and provides that no person shall land in New Zealand unless he has a permit granted by the Government.

Rumania. — A National Labour Protection Act was promulgated on 16 July 1934. It provides that in every undertaking at least 80 per cent. of each group of staff, and at least 50 per cent. of the

directors and members of boards must be of Rumanian nationality. The Council of Ministers also took steps to limit the admission of foreign artistes.

Turkey. — The Government approved Regulations for the administration of the Act of 11 June 1932 relating to trades and occupations in which only Turkish nationals may engage.

International Action

Bilateral Agreements

On 8 March 1934, *Belgium* and *France* concluded an arrangement relating to the admission of student employees. Each of the two States undertakes to admit a number of young workers, nationals of the other, who wish to improve their knowledge of the language and commercial and trade practices, while working in an industrial or commercial undertaking. The number of permits granted by each country will not exceed 150 a year.

Two similar agreements were concluded later in the year between *France* and *Sweden* on 9 June and between *Belgium* and *Germany* on 30 October, the first providing for the annual exchange of 50 student employees, and the second for 75.

Belgium and *France* also concluded on 8 March 1934 an Agreement to determine the zone in which the frontier system laid down by the Agreement of 4 July 1928 is to apply. In future the right to a frontier worker's card will be restricted to Belgian and French nationals whose place of residence in one country and place of employment in the other are both within the zone defined.

The Labour Treaty signed by *Austria* and *France* on 27 May 1930 came into force on 25 August 1934. This Treaty, which is based largely on the principle of equality of treatment, is very wide in scope, and covers emigration in general, the recruiting of emigrants, and immigrants' rights. An important feature is the stipulation that immigrants shall receive assistance in case of unemployment and participate in social insurance schemes; arrangements are also made in regard to their repatriation.

Multilateral Action

The position of refugees from various countries and the problem of placing them in employment and providing them with the assistance which they need were the principal subject of international action during the year under review, for the number of such refugees is growing and the questions which they raise are increasing in gravity.

The placing of refugees from *Germany* was continued under the direction of the High Commissioner appointed by the League of Nations and assisted by the Governing Body set up to that effect by the Council of the League. Of the 65,000 refugees in question,

27,000 have been able to settle permanently, most of them in Palestine. In the immigration countries financial arrangements have been made to facilitate such permanent settlement, and several organisations have undertaken the vocational retraining of young refugees.

The Committee for the settlement of the *Assyrians* of *Iraq* submitted a report on its work to the Council of the League of Nations in January 1934. The consent of the Brazilian Government having been obtained, the settlement of part of the refugees in Brazil—with the aid of a colonisation company—had been planned; and the Council took the scheme a step further by approving an investigation in Brazil to ensure that the land selected was suitable. However, the restrictions on immigration prescribed in the new Brazilian Federal Constitution make it impossible to carry out the plan, and the Council of the League therefore adopted a resolution instructing its Committee on this question to make fresh representations to the Governments of countries whose territory might lend itself to the settlement of the Assyrians, with a view to determining whether their establishment there can be realised.

On 27 September 1934 the Assembly of the League of Nations adopted a resolution urging Governments to accede as soon as possible to the Convention of 28 October 1933, which recognises the *international status of Russian and Armenian refugees*. It also recommended that Governments of countries obliged to support heavy charges through the presence of large numbers of unemployed refugees in their territories should consider the advantage of capitalising such charges by placing credits at the disposal of the Nansen International Office for Refugees, which would then be better able to settle unemployed refugees in countries willing to receive them.

International Regulation[1]

Ratification and Approval of Conventions and Recommendations Adopted by the International Labour Conference

Convention No. 2: Unemployment, 1919.

Latvia. — The Minister of Social Welfare informed the Office that his Government had decided to take the necessary steps to ratify the Convention.

Nicaragua. — Ratification registered on 12 April 1934.

Convention No. 44: Unemployment Provision, 1919.

Australia. — Presented to the Commonwealth Parliament on 13 December 1934; also referred to the State Governments for any legislative or other action which they may see fit to take.

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[1] The information given here relates to Conventions and Recommendations concerning unemployment, placing, and migration, and refers only to 1934. See the tables at the end of the volume for the general situation as regards the Conventions.

Colombia. — Submitted for examination to the authorities concerned.

Dominican Republic. — Submitted for examination to the Secretariat of Labour and Communications.

Great Britain. — Presented to Parliament in October 1934.

New Zealand. — Presented to the House of Representatives on 30 October 1934 and to the Legislative Council on 5 November 1934.

Rumania. — Referred for examination to the chambers of labour, the employers' and workers' organisations and the public authorities concerned.

Spain. — Submitted for examination to the Labour Council.

Union of South Africa. — The competent authority decided on 11 December 1934 not to ratify the Convention. The question of unemployment benefit in the Union is at present under investigation; should subsequent developments warrant it, ratification will again be considered at a future date.

Venezuela. — Submitted for examination to the services concerned.

Recommendation No. 44: Unemployment Provision, 1934.

Communication to the Secretary-General of the League of Nations

Australia. — Presented to the Commonwealth Parliament on 13 December 1934; also referred to the State Governments for any legislative or other action which they may see fit to take (14 December 1934).

Other Information

Colombia. — Submitted for examination to the authorities concerned.

Dominican Republic. — Submitted for examination to the Secretariat of Labour and Communications.

Great Britain. — Presented to Parliament in October 1934.

New Zealand. — Presented to the House of Representatives on 30 October 1934 and to the Legislative Council on 5 November 1934.

Rumania. — Referred for examination to the Chambers of Labour, the employers' and workers' organisations and the public authorities concerned.

Spain. — Submitted for examination to the Labour Council.

Union of South Africa. — The competent authority decided on 11 December 1934 not to adopt the Recommendation.

Venezuela. — Submitted for examination to the services concerned.

Convention No. 34: Fee-Charging Employment Agencies, 1933.

Australia. — Presented to the Commonwealth Parliament on 4 July 1934.

Belgium. — The competent service is examining the question of abolishing fee-charging employment agencies. This work is being done in connection with the reorganisation of the official unemployment fund offices now being carried out; henceforward these offices will be known as employment and unemployment offices.

Brazil. — Submitted to the competent authorities.

Chile. — Submitted on 18 December 1934 to the National Congress for approval.

China. — The Government informed the Office that it agreed in principle with the Convention; it was not, however, in a position to abolish fee-charging employment agencies immediately, since it had already promulgated provisional regulations to improve them and to abolish them by stages.

Denmark. — Submitted to the Rigsdag on 5 April 1934.

Estonia. — Submitted to the President of the Republic on 13 October 1934.

Finland. — In a proposal submitted to Parliament in April 1934 the Government asked for authority to ratify the Convention; since 1917 the Act respecting employment agencies has prohibited private persons from carrying on placing as a profession. This principle was maintained in the Act of 27 March 1926, which is at present in force, although the placing in employment of their own members by private associations, specially authorised for the purpose, is still tolerated; the fee that they may charge is fixed when permission is granted. The provisions of the Convention concerning both professional agencies and other agencies making charges are therefore in accordance with existing legislation in Finland. Since under Finnish law only a commune or an association may direct a fee-charging employment agency, and since placing by associations is authorised by special licence only, this Act also satisfies the provisions of the Convention requiring agencies which make no charge to make a declaration to the competent authority. The Act also imposes the penalties for which the Convention provides.

France. — Submitted to the Chamber of Deputies on 8 March 1934; the competent services are examining the question of ratification.

Germany. — The Government informed the Office that in respect of this Convention it had fulfilled in June 1934 the obligations laid down in Article 405, paragraph 5, of the Treaty of Versailles.

India. — The Legislative Assembly on 23 November 1933 and the Council of State on 14 December 1933 adopted a resolution recommending the Governor-General in Council not to ratify the Convention.

Irish Free State. — Presented to the Dail and Senate on 6 February 1934.

Japan. — Submitted to the Privy Council on 22 December 1934.

Latvia. — Submitted to the Cabinet on 22 December 1934.

Netherlands. — In April 1934, in a memorandum to the Second Chamber of the States-General, the Government stated that ratification of the Convention would involve amendment of existing legislation respecting the regulation of private employment agencies; it would also be necessary to amend these regulations on other points if they were to be brought into conformity with the Convention. Although in general prepared to introduce the principles of Conventions into legislation, the Government could not at present make any proposal on the subject of this Convention.

Norway. — In a report submitted to the Storting on 16 March 1934, the Minister of Social Affairs stated that an Act of 12 June 1896 regulated the conduct of private employment agencies. Under this Act and an Act of 12 June 1906 eleven permits had been granted to individuals and eight to associations. The last-named permits, together with three others granted since 12 June 1906, could be withdrawn without difficulty, and it would be possible to withdraw the remainder without making the State liable for compensation. But the Ministry of Social Affairs agreed with the Inspector of Employment Exchanges that out of consideration for these persons, whose conduct of their business had given no cause for complaint, ratification of the Convention should be postponed for the present. In any case, a new Act respecting private employment agencies would be required and the Ministry would in due course submit to the Storting a proposal for a new Act, after the adoption of which the question of ratifying the Convention could be considered.

Portugal. — Submitted to the competent authorities on 2 March 1934.

Siam. — Referred to the competent authorities for their consideration. The Government, while in sympathy with the purpose of the Convention, is not prepared, in view of existing circumstances, to take any action in the matter.

Spain. — A Bill for the ratification of the Convention was submitted to the Cortes on 18 December 1934.

Sweden. — In a report submitted to the Riksdag on 16 February 1934 the Minister of Social Affairs proposed to postpone for the time being consideration of the ratification of the Convention, since the question of preparing legislation to give effect to it was only in a preliminary stage.

Switzerland. — In a report submitted to the Federal Assembly on 29 June 1934 the Federal Council proposed that the Convention should not be ratified. It pointed out that, in general, fee-charging employment agencies in Switzerland had not given rise to complaint in recent years and that, on the contrary, they had in various respects performed a public service by supplementing the public placing services. The Federal Council observed that if existing placing facilities were restricted, the State would be faced with a heavier task, which it could scarcely carry out in a fully satisfactory way, even with the help of a vast administrative system. The Federal Council's report was approved by the Federal Assembly on 19 September 1934.

Union of South Africa. — Laid on the tables of the two Houses of Parliament on 9 and 12 February 1934 and submitted to the Executive Council on 21 May 1934. The Council decided that the Convention should not be ratified. Although the policy of the Union is generally in accordance with the principle underlying the Convention, it cannot be ratified owing to the existence of certain conditions peculiar to the Union, due partly to the presence of a large Native population and partly to the fact that the Government agencies do not as yet cover the whole field.

Recommendation No. 42: Employment Agencies, 1933.

Communications to the Secretary-General of the League of Nations

Australia. — Presented to the Commonwealth Parliament on 4 July 1934 (16 July 1934).

India. — Presented to the Legislative Assembly on 23 November 1933 and to the Council of State on 14 December 1933; both Chambers adopted a resolution recommending the Governor-General in Council not to accept the Recommendation (17 January 1934).

Siam. — Referred to the competent authorities for consideration. The Government, while in sympathy with the purpose of the Recommendation, is not prepared, in view of existing circumstances, to take any action in the matter (19 February 1934).

Sweden. — Submitted to the Riksdag by the Government on 16 February 1934. The Government considers that the object of the Recommendation will be achieved to a certain extent by the adoption of a Bill respecting public employment exchanges which was submitted to the Riksdag in 1934 (21 July 1934).

Other Information

Brazil. — Submitted to the competent authorities.

China. — The Government informed the Office that it agreed in principle with the Recommendation; it was not, however, in a position to abolish fee-charging employment agencies immediately, since it had already promulgated provisional regulations to improve them and to abolish them by stages.

Denmark. — Submitted to the Rigsdag on 5 April 1934.

Estonia. — Submitted to the President of the Republic on 13 October 1934.

Finland. — The Government informed Parliament in April 1934 that the Recommendation contained no novelty for Finland, where its provisions had long been applied; no action was therefore required.

France. — Submitted to the Chamber of Deputies on 8 March 1934.

Germany. — The Government informed the Office that, in respect of the Recommendation, it had fulfilled in June 1934 the obligations laid down in Article 405, paragraph 5, of the Treaty of Versailles.

Irish Free State. — Presented to the Dail and Senate on 6 February 1934.

Japan. — The Council of Ministers decided on 21 December 1934 to adopt the Recommendation.

Latvia. — Submitted to the Cabinet on 22 December 1934.

Netherlands. — Submitted to the Second Chamber of the States-General in April 1934. Same observations as for the Convention.

Norway. — In a report submitted to the Storting on 16 March 1934 the Minister of Social Affairs stated that the public employment exchange system in Norway was based largely on the principles laid down in the Recommendation.

Switzerland. — In a report submitted to the Federal Assembly on 29 June 1934 the Federal Council stated that the principles of the Recommendation had already been put into effect. It therefore seemed unnecessary to propose any special action to apply them. The Federal Council's report was approved by the Federal Assembly on 19 September 1934.

Union of South Africa. — Presented to both Houses of Parliament on 9 and 12 February 1934 and submitted to the Executive Council on 21 May 1934.

Convention No. 21: Inspection of Emigrants, 1926.

Nicaragua. — Ratification registered on 12 April 1934.

CHAPTER VI

WORKERS' LIVING CONDITIONS

Vocational Training

During 1934 the effects of the economic depression continued to be felt in the field of vocational training: further progress was frequently held up, expenses were cut, and there was a reluctance to promote reforms and fresh measures. Attention must however be called to a number of encouraging symptoms, such as the improvements made in the vocational training of skilled labour, the insistent demand that such training should be of an educational character, the efforts made to link up general and technical education, and to combine intellectual and manual training, and the steps taken to regulate the training and employment of juvenile labour and to ensure adequate protection for young workers through the concerted action and real collaboration of all competent persons and parties.

National Activities

Argentina. — The authorities are contemplating the establishment in Buenos Aires of four technical schools for industrial workers, under the direction of the Ministry of Education, which will be highly specialised so as to meet the needs of the more developed industries of the country. Each school will have its own employment office and labour exchange.

Australia. — The New South Wales Ministry of Labour has recorded an increase in the number of apprenticeship indentures lodged for registration in 1934, which is attributed to an improvement in industry.

The new regulations concerning trainee apprentices [1] have had no adverse effects on regular apprenticeship. Since the introduction of the new system, 20 per cent. of the applications for registration made to the State Apprenticeship Commissioner have been for indentured apprentices.

In Victoria, the Employers' Federation has asked that more elasticity should be introduced in the State apprenticeship laws.

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[1] Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1933*, p. 267.

The trade unions for their part are urging the appointment of more inspectors to prevent the employment of unindentured or unregistered apprentices.

In Western Australia, the number of apprentices has fallen, especially in the building trades. In many instances employers have been authorised to dismiss apprentices for whom they were unable to find work. This situation is causing a certain amount of anxiety, for it is thought that it may lead to a shortage of skilled labour when times become better, and that this in turn may well force employers to engage skilled labour from abroad. It has been suggested that where the fall in the number of apprentices is due to the unwillingness of employers to accept full responsibility for their training, a remedy might be found in a system of transfer of apprentices from one employer to another so as to spread responsibility.

Belgium. — A number of Royal Orders were issued to further the organisation of technical education undertaken under the new regulations of 1933 [1].

At a meeting in March 1934, the Higher Council of Technical Education discussed the questions on the agenda of the International Congress on Technical Education at Barcelona and decided to submit to the Congress a resolution urging the various States to raise the statutory age for admission of young persons to employment, with a view to the systematic organisation of apprenticeship.

A special committee was set up by the Ministry of Education to draft new regulations concerning technical education for girls. In a report which it submitted to the Higher Council of Technical Education, the committee recommended that technical education for girls should cover all branches of industry and commerce, but that it should also include general subjects and training in housewifery.

The Administrative Committee of the Brussels Institute of Arts and Crafts is considering the possibility of introducing free education in all schools under the authority of the Institute.

Brazil. — By a Decree of 3 July 1934 the Vocational and Technical Training Inspectorate was reorganised as the Industrial Education Department.

Another Decree, dated 14 July 1934, authorises the foundation and organisation of a Federal Technical University.

Bulgaria. — A Legislative Decree of 25 September 1934 amended and supplemented certain provisions of the 1934 Act relating to commercial and industrial training.

Canada. — In Ontario, the reports of the Deputy Minister of Labour and the Chief Inspector for Apprentices show that the position as regards apprenticeship was very difficult during 1934.

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[1] Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1933*, p. 268.

These difficulties, which are attributed to the economic depression, have delayed the carrying out of apprenticeship contracts and employers are reluctant to accept apprentices owing to the prevalent unemployment.

Certain changes in apprenticeship law are thought to be desirable but have been deferred until times become better.

China. — The Ministry of Education convened a national conference on vocational training (Nanking, 7-10 December 1934) which discussed, among other things, the appointment of inspectors, increased expenditure on vocational training, the reorganisation of vocational schools, State grants and subsidies to model schools, and the training of teaching staff.

The Chinese Scientific Management Institute has extended the scope of its activities and has set up a continuation school for the commercial and industrial training of salaried employees and salesmen.

Finally, with a view to reviving the silk industry in the provinces of Kiangsu and Chekiang, the Minister of Industry has decided to establish a technical school in each of these provinces.

Estonia. — A " Juveniles Office " was set up by the municipality of Tallinn, with a section responsible for the vocational guidance of young persons. An advisory committee composed of teachers from primary, secondary and vocational schools and other persons interested in education, is to be attached to the office.

The main duty of the office is to provide physical, moral and social training for young persons who have left school but are still under 20 years of age. It will help such persons to choose a suitable occupation, provide facilities for their vocational training, supervise the organisation of their spare time, and when necessary, help them financially as far as its resources permit.

France. — The Association for the Advancement of Technical Education has drawn up the programme for a comprehensive economic enquiry into production and labour. The aim of the enquiry, which will cover existing industries, those that have been more or less given up, and the new ones that might be set going, is to obtain the information necessary for the better adaptation of vocational training to the realities and requirements of the national economic system.

The Eleventh National Congress of French Handicraftsmen (15-18 June 1934) discussed what reforms were needed in the system of apprenticeship to a craft.

On 21 February 1934, the General Confederation of Labour, acting on a report by the National Union of Elementary School Teachers, adopted a manifesto drawing attention to the dangers to which the younger generation is exposed by the world depression, and suggesting a number of remedial measures. This manifesto is a sequel to the proposals approved by the Confederation in 1931 for the reorganisation of workers' training and education.

Germany. — By a Decree issued on 11 May 1934 the President of the Reich set up a Ministry of Training and Education, to be responsible for all vocational and technical schools, vocational continuation classes, workers' educational institutions and associations of young persons.

The work carried out by the official vocational guidance offices increased to a considerable extent during the year ended 30 June 1934. During that year 600,000 persons applied to the offices (394,000 in the previous year), and 94,000 psychotechnical tests were carried out by the offices. Of the pupils leaving school during the year, 70 per cent. of the boys and 50 per cent. of the girls were placed in apprenticeship or provided with other opportunities for vocational training. With regard to the remainder, various arrangements were made to enable them to engage in a regular occupation, whenever possible of educational value. Among such measures may be noted the steps taken to provide girls with a years' training in housewifery in private families.

By way of experiment, the Prussian Ministry of Science, Art and Adult Education organised a year on the land for children leaving school at Easter 1934. About 20,000 children, of whom one-third were girls, spent nine months in settlements established in country districts, where they were given physical training and practical experience of agricultural work. One of the objects of the experiment was to promote vocational guidance, for it was hoped that a number of the campers would remain permanently on the land as apprentices, agricultural workers or farmers. Part of the instruction given to girls was on domestic subjects.

Under an Ordinance dated 25 April 1934 the number of young persons matriculating from school to be admitted to universities and similar establishments was limited to 15,000 (only 10 per cent. of the total number of candidates admitted may be girls). Those who are refused admission to the universities are directed towards other careers by the Federal Institution for Employment Exchanges and Unemployment Insurance. To facilitate their absorption into economic life, courses have been arranged to enable them to obtain a knowledge of various branches of commerce, industry and agriculture. The aim of all these measures is to prevent overcrowding in the universities.

A general vocational examination of an optional character was held for young workers all over Germany from 9 to 15 April 1934. More than a million persons took part in the examination, which was open to apprentices and workers of either sex of fourteen to eighteen years of age (fourteen to twenty-one years for commercial workers). The main object was to ascertain the capabilities and efficiency of the younger generation and incidentally to enable a thorough inspection to be made of working premises and vocational training establishments.

The Education Committee of the *Deutscher Industrie- und Handelstag* decided on 9 October 1934 to establish standard contracts for apprentices, commercial workers and craftsmen.

A number of other trade associations have taken similar measures. For example, the "Rekofei"[1], acting in conjunction with the German Salaried Employees Union and the *Hitlerjugend* organisation, has obtained approval for a plan for the training of apprentices in the food and drink trades. It hopes to get other branches of retail trade to adopt this plan.

The Federal Handicrafts Leader has issued rules concerning minimum holidays for all apprentices in handicrafts whose holidays have not already been regulated by collective agreement or special arrangements. The minimum is 12 days during the first year of apprenticeship, 10 days during the second year, 8 days during the third year, and 6 days during the fourth year.

The apprentice's legal guardian must be paid a special allowance during the holiday. In this connection an interesting experiment has been tried in the building trades: a collective agreement signed on 27 June 1934 contains a special clause granting apprentices six days' annual holiday with pay, fixed at eight times the hourly wage for each day's holiday.

Great Britain. — The new Unemployment Insurance Act, to which reference has been made in Chapter V[2], contains provisions under which certain boys and girls, who on leaving school find themselves unemployed, are compelled to attend courses of instruction of a general vocational nature. The aim of these provisions is not to train young persons for any particular occupation, but to facilitate their entry into employment by keeping them mentally and physically fit during periods of enforced unemployment.

India. — The Third Inter-University Conference (Delhi, April 1934) discussed the question of higher technical training, to which greater attention will in future be given in the curricula of the Indian universities.

At a meeting on 31 January 1934, the Senate of Bombay University approved in principle a proposal for the introduction of competency certificates for certain higher technical studies.

Irish Free State. — Vocational education committees in a number of districts have spent large sums to provide suitable school buildings. Since the adoption of the Vocational Education Act in 1930 the number of whole-time pupils attending vocational schools has increased to a considerable extent.

Italy. — Two Decrees, issued on 5 and 20 July 1934, deal with the training of the teaching staff in vocational training establishments. The first Decree lays down the conditions for examinations for posts in intermediate technical schools and institutions, while the second defines the qualifications required of candidates for such posts.

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[1] *Reichsverband deutscher Kaufleute des Kolonialwaren-Feinkost- und Lebensmittel-Einzelhandels.*

[2] See above, under "Insurance and Relief Measures".

New Zealand. — Employers have petitioned Parliament to repeal the Apprenticeship Act on the ground that it was not designed to meet the circumstances which have arisen out of the economic depression.

The Minister of Education has stated that as a result of the depression great difficulty is being experienced in placing children leaving school in employment suitable to their aptitudes and abilities.

Poland. — The authorities have redoubled their efforts to reduce the employment of juvenile labour.

With this end in view, steps have been taken to limit the number of young persons employed in industry in relation to adult workers, to limit the number of apprentices in relation to skilled workers, to increase the number of industries closed to young persons and to insist more strongly on a medical examination prior to engagement, to prohibit unpaid work by young persons in factories and to introduce an apprenticeship fee in the handicrafts, to regulate the work of young persons by special contracts of employment liable to be checked by the factory inspectors, to organise continuation classes during morning hours of work and to compel employers to allow apprentices to attend such classes, and to increase the penalties which may be imposed in case of infringement of the measures taken for the protection of young persons.

A Decree issued by the Minister of Education, which has been in force since 30 December 1933, fixes the details of the organisation of vocational and technical schools. Standard curricula have been published for the different classes of schools (handicraft, industrial, commercial, agricultural, domestic economy, etc.).

The Ministerial Council has adopted a Bill to regulate the vocational training of nurses and hospital attendants.

Rumania. — The Ministry of Labour has decided to grant bursaries to a certain number of workers, which will allow the holders to go abroad and improve their knowledge of their trade. To be eligible for a bursary, candidates must possess the certificate of an industrial school or an apprenticeship school and a worker's or overseer's work-book showing experience in a particular trade. Five years' experience in this or an allied trade is a minimum requirement. On returning to Rumania, the bursars are required to train skilled workers. Bursaries of this sort are granted in the following trades: glass, textile, metal-working and electrical engineering, precision tool trade.

On 1 October 1934, the workers' training schools were reopened and are now known, according to a decision of the Ministry of Labour, as " vocational courses for apprentices ". These classes, for which the Ministry of Labour has laid down precise regulations, will vary according to the industrial requirements of each locality.

The organisation of intermediate technical training on a new basis is at present under consideration.

Switzerland. — In virtue of the Federal Vocational Training Act, which came into force on 1 January 1933 [1], the cantons continued to pass legislation to bring cantonal apprenticeship laws into line with the Federal Act.

The laws and orders so far published generally make ample provision for vocational guidance. In all cases close collaboration has been established between the competent authorities and the occupational associations, which in many cases have actually drafted the apprenticeship conditions and the rules for examinations.

Among the important organisations which continued their activities during 1934 were the Swiss Association for Vocational Guidance and the Protection of Apprentices, and its special committees, such as the Vocational Guidance Committee for the Commercial Trades, the Technical Committee for the Hotel Industry, the Mountain People's Assistance Committee, etc.; the Conference of Vocational Guidance Experts, which met twice; and the Swiss Office for Women's Occupations. Attention may also be called to the Domestic Service Secretariat, a new institution, which aims at promoting training in the various branches of housewifery. The system of serving a form of domestic apprenticeship in private houses was further extended by the introduction of a " competency examination " for housewives, the first experiments along these lines being made in German Switzerland.

Turkey. — A Committee consisting of representatives from the Ministries of Public Works, Agriculture, and National Economy, and the General Staff, under the leadership of the Chairman of the Council of Education, has been instructed to draw up appropriate measures for the development of vocational and technical education.

United States. — An Executive Order was issued by the President of the United States on 27 June 1934 to regulate conditions of apprenticeship. An apprentice is defined as a person of at least 16 years of age who enters into a written contract clearly stipulating his conditions of apprenticeship. The apprentice must be employed in a regular manner, and the minimum period of employment is fixed at 2,000 hours.

The Federal Committee on Apprenticeship Training, set up by the Secretary of Labour, has prescribed minimum standards for apprenticeship contracts. A maximum length is fixed for the contracts, and at least 144 hours a year must be devoted to group instruction in general and technical subjects. An apprentice's wage must average 50 per cent. of the basic rate for journeymen.

Provision has also been made for the holding of regional conferences to discuss apprenticeship problems and to further the development of the system of apprenticeship. A number of such conferences have already been held, and have nominated State apprenticeship boards, composed of representatives of the National Recovery

[1] Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1933*, p. 272.

Administration, the State department dealing with questions of vocational education and labour, the State employment service, and employers' and workers' organisations in the State in question.

For the furtherance of vocational training, Congress decided to grant, during a period of three years, an annual subsidy of a million dollars to each of the following branches: agricultural training, domestic economy training, and training in handicrafts and industries.

U.S.S.R. — The Seventeenth Congress of the Communist Party decided to introduce compulsory technical training in rural schools. The State Planning Commission *(Gosplan)* and the Commissariats of Education and Finance of the R.S.F.S.R. have prepared a plan for the introduction of such training in the seven-year schools in all the autonomous Republics, regions and districts, to ensure that all children leaving primary schools in towns and industrial areas shall be admitted to the seven-year secondary schools during the school-year 1935-1936, and that those leaving primary schools in the country shall be admitted to secondary schools during the school-year 1937-1938.

International Activities

The *International Bureau of Technical Education* organised a session of the International Congress on Technical Education (Barcelona, 17-19 May), which was attended by about 600 persons from 28 countries. The principal resolutions adopted by the Congress are summarised below.

On the question of the economic and social aspects of technical education, the Congress declared that, in view of the economic and social importance of technical and vocational training, which to-day took the form of a complete occupational, civic and humane education, such education, by reason of the flexibility of its methods, the scope of its teaching, and the character, both economic and ethical, of its objectives, was perfectly suited to the needs of modern life, and should form part of the plan of development of all civilised nations.

On the subject of vocational guidance, the Congress examined the question of how the last year of compulsory schooling could be best utilised to further vocational guidance and preparation. It also discussed the duties and competence of doctors in connection with vocational guidance, and urged that an international committee should be appointed to study the possibility of a standard medical certificate, and that a list of occupations which could be carried on by persons suffering from heart disease should be drawn up. The suggestion was also made that the International Bureau of Technical Education should study the question of vocational guidance and training for persons suffering from physical or mental handicaps. Finally, the Conference urged that children proposing to enter a trade should be guided in finding employment

when leaving school and supervised throughout their apprenticeship by appropriate organisations set up in accordance with national laws.

As regards apprenticeship proper, the Congress expressed the wish that, on leaving school, children should begin their occupational training by a rational system of manual work, involving a general adaptation to a certain number of manual operations (pre-apprenticeship). The Congress insisted that the contract of apprenticeship should be a guarantee, a contract of education, and a means of regulation of vocational training, and urged that written contracts of apprenticeship should be made compulsory, and that the vocational training of the apprentice should be placed under supervision.

The Congress also adopted resolutions relating to the training of technicians, the regulation of higher technical education, the problem of openings for graduates of higher technical institutions, and the regulation of engineers' certificates.

The *International Bureau of Education* convened the Third International Conference of Public Education (Geneva, 16-20 July 1934), which was attended by 38 official delegates representing the education authorities of their respective countries. The Conference adopted resolutions concerning the duration of compulsory school attendance and the question of raising the school-leaving age, admission to secondary schools, and economies in the matter of public education.

The Fifth International Congress on the Teaching of Housewifery (Berlin, 21-26 August 1934), organised by the *International Federation for the Teaching of Housewifery*, was attended by 500 persons from 22 countries. The main questions on the agenda were: the application of science to housewifery, the rationalisation of domestic work, and domestic apprenticeship in families. The Congress expressed the desire that apprenticeship in housewifery should be put on the same footing as other forms of apprenticeship as regards contracts and competency certificates, and that this form of apprenticeship should be adopted more widely, since the family, whether located in towns or the country, was the best training ground for life.

The Eighth *International Congress on Psychotechnics* (Prague, 11-15 September 1934) studied various aspects of psychotechnics in primary and secondary schools, in industry and commerce, in transport and in Government services. A number of resolutions were adopted, bearing mainly on the study of the child mind and the question of industrial pathology. It was decided that the next Congress should make a more detailed study of questions common to both psychotechnics and medicine.

The Sixth *International Congress on Moral Education* (Cracow, 11-15 September 1934) was attended by representatives of 30 different countries.

The section of the Congress entrusted with the study of the relations between morals and labour discussed the following questions: introduction to problems of occupational life in primary and secondary schools as a basis for scientific vocational guidance; the educational value of compulsory labour service; the organisation of relief for unemployed juveniles in Poland; moral aspects of unemployment among young persons; the necessity of encouraging education legislation and the protection of minors in industry, and bringing the two into harmony; the psychological and social importance of vocational training of young persons for several trades; problems relating to the duration of compulsory education; and the standards of physical and intellectual maturity to be required for admission to practise a trade.

The *International Society for Commercial Education* held its Sixteenth International Commercial Extension Course (Paris, 29 July-11 August 1934) for the purpose, as in previous years, of promoting improvements in the training of employees in commercial undertakings, and in particular of facilitating their initiation into the commercial experience and practices of the various countries.

A number of other organisations, stirred by the gravity of the juvenile unemployment problem, discussed this question at meetings held during 1934, and many of the resolutions adopted also put forward demands bearing primarily on the principles and methods of vocational training. For example, the *Inter-Parliamentary Conference* (Istanbul, 24-29 September) adopted a resolution urging that the period of compulsory school attendance should be extended, and that every opportunity should be given to young persons to develop their vocational capacities.

The *International Labour Office* has also continued its investigations into various aspects of vocational training. During 1934 it completed two general reports, one dealing with the position of children and young persons under labour law, the other with problems of vocational guidance.

The movement in favour of international agreement on certain aspects of vocational training, while not going so far as to suggest the general regulation of such matters, made further progress in 1934. At the Eighteenth Session of the International Labour Conference, the Belgian Government delegate urged that the aspects of vocational guidance of interest to labour, that is to say, the economic and social aspects, should be discussed in the near future by a Session of the Conference.

Utilisation of Workers' Spare Time

The efforts made in various countries to encourage the workers to turn their leisure moments to good account increase as the general trend towards shorter hours becomes more defined. Public opinion, too, is insisting more and more on the necessity of pro-

viding the workers with the means of using their spare time, whether regular or due to exceptional circumstances, to the best advantage. To give only one example, Mr. Oliver Stanley, the British Minister of Labour, told the Congress of the International Co-operative Alliance in September 1934 that he could imagine no question of greater importance to-day, or one that was likely to have greater importance in the future, than that of workers' spare time.

National Activities

Belgium. — The Higher Council for Popular Education has devoted a considerable part of its time to the organisation of an International Spare Time Exhibition, which will form part of the World Exhibition in 1935.

The Central Workers' Education Committee is at present giving careful attention to the study of teaching systems and the organisation of travel facilities for the workers. A National Workers' Travel Federation has been set up under the auspices of the Board, which is also contemplating the establishment of an Educational Films Office.

Canada. — Economic difficulties have led to various schemes for the utilisation of workers' spare time. The existing highly developed system of education is supplemented in several original ways. For example, the great majority of those university students who take up manual work during their vacations in order to earn a living devote part of the time to educating the masses. The result has been called a " university in overalls ". Students who during the day are employed on lumbering, in mines or in the labour camps organised for the unemployed, pass their evenings in organising classes for their fellow workers. In addition to the usual wages from their employers, they receive an allowance for their teaching work.

Czechoslovakia. — The outstanding event of the year was the Workers' Olympiad organised at the beginning of July. This manifestation attracted a large number of participants, foreign visitors, and spectators in general.

France. — The Central Workers' Institute, set up by the General Confederation of Labour in 1932, reported an increase in the number of its pupils. During 1934, a week of special courses was organised in Belgium at the Uccles School.

The youth hostel movement is also making rapid progress. The Secular Youth Hostel Centre has fitted up 40 hostels since 1933, and contemplates opening another 30 in the future.

In the realm of sport, the Normal School of Physical Training, set up in October 1933 as a complement to the courses given at the Physical Training Institute of the University of Paris, is now completely installed. It includes classrooms and libraries, gymnasia

with the most modern equipment, a playing field of 2 hectares, and laboratories.

Germany. — On the anniversary of the foundation of the "Strength through Joy" movement, which is responsible for the organisation of workers' spare time, statistics were published to illustrate the work of the movement during its first year of existence. The number of workers who made use of the travel facilities offered by the movement was over 2,000,000, and 1,700,000 of them spent their annual 7-10 days' holidays in this way. The total amount spent on these tours was about 40 million RM., which meant among other things that the State railways alone earned additional receipts to the amount of 7 million RM., notwithstanding the large reductions made in fares. Another 80,000 persons took part in the cruises arranged. A still greater development of the activities of the organisation is foreseen for its second year of existence. It is considered that three or four million persons will spend their annual holiday on cheap tours, and another 150,000 persons on cruises. In order further to facilitate travel, a sort of special savings system has been instituted under the name of "*Reise-sparkarte*".

With regard to sport, the organisers of the "Strength through Joy" movement are forming a body of qualified instructors; 900 have already been trained and sent to local branches of the movement. The Sports Department organised 8,500 courses of training, which were attended by 460,000 persons in all.

A special effort is being made to encourage an appreciation of the beauty of labour by educating employers as well as workers. Lecture and inspection tours were organised in the factories with a view to ascertaining what improvements were needed.

The "Strength through Joy" movement organised about 70,000 theatrical and other performances at reduced prices for the benefit of the working classes. In Berlin alone, 500,000 workers were able to attend the theatre at a cost of 70 pf. each. In addition, cinema performances were organised in a number of districts.

The movement to provide youth hostels has made remarkable progress. During the last ten years, the number of night's lodgings provided increased more than fivefold; in 1922, it totalled 1,100,000 for 1,400 hostels; in 1934, the twenty-fifth anniversary of the foundation of the movement by Richard Schirrmann, the total was over 6,000,000 for 2,800 hostels.

With regard to adult education, the former People's Colleges *(Volkshochschule)* have been transformed, as in Munich, into schools for national education. The Munich College, which formerly had about 1,000 pupils, was attended in 1934 by 7,500. The number of lectures given in this school has much increased.

Great Britain. — The movement for the provision of facilities for the utilisation of spare time has always had many and varied aspects, and during 1934 certain of these were particularly pro-

minent. For example, there is the attempt made in Cambridgeshire to set up a rural college scheme which links up a central school with branches for adult education in the villages. The aim is to organise a central school for adult education in each village. Another district has tried setting up a centre where adults and children over school age can find facilities for study and recreation. In Wales, certain large estates are being used to provide education and recreation centres for large groups of persons. This has been done, for example, at Coleg Harlech, and the experiment is gradually spreading to other districts.

Attention must also be called to the initiative shown by the Workers' Education Association, which organised a summer school on the continent, with a programme including a visit to Geneva and the International Labour Office.

Norway. — The committee appointed in 1933 by the Minister of Education to study the means of co-ordinating the adult workers' education movement recommends that local popular education councils should be set up, and that State activity in this field should be extended.

Panama. — The Secretary of State for Labour submitted a Bill to the National Assembly in October 1934 for allocating a sum of 25,000 balboas to the construction of an educational and cultural centre for the working classes.

Poland. — The Workers' Institute of Education and Culture is systematically organising rest camps for workers, which have been set up in the neighbourhood of Gdynia, and are open to workers employed in State undertakings and municipal establishments.

United States. — The Federal Civil Works Administration early in the year approved the use of Government funds for the development of means of recreation: parks, sports grounds, etc. In addition, the Workers' Education Bureau has organised what are known as labour institutes, a system of public debates for the working population in a large number of districts. In the realm of sport, the workers are beginning to organise. A Workers' Sports Federation has been formed which includes American, Czechoslovak, German and Finnish unions.

U.S.S.R. — The movement for the organisation of the workers' spare time takes a number of forms. Special attention is devoted to the suppression of illiteracy.

The Communist youth associations are showing special interest in the utilisation of spare time. Encouraged in this matter by the Government, the Union of Communist Youth seems likely to play an important part in this field. According to figures quoted to the Congress of Soviets held at the end of 1934 and the beginning of 1935, extensive cultural work is being carried on in rural districts. The number of workers' clubs and "red corners" is increasing rapidly, not only in machine and tractor stations and on State farms, but also on collective farms.

INTERNATIONAL ACTIVITIES

The *Socialist Workers' Sports International* decided at its Seventh Congress (Karlovy Vary, October 1934) to open negotiations with the Red Sports International of Moscow. The President has also established contact with workers' sports associations in the United States.

Early in November 1934 the Third International Conference of the *Youth Hostels Movement* was held in London and was attended by representatives from 13 European States. The Conference adopted a number of proposals to facilitate and simplify foreign travel for young persons.

The Seventh Congress of the *International Federation of Teachers' Associations* (Prague, August 1934) adopted a resolution concerning the spare time of young persons. The Federation confirmed the resolutions adopted at its Congresses of Stockholm and Santander, and declared itself to be in favour of any system which would give unemployed young persons the opportunity of undergoing an apprenticeship which would be a real form of education and not merely specialised training, and any system of education which would enable unemployed young persons to withstand the demoralisation resulting from unemployment. The Congress also affirmed its readiness to encourage exchanges of young persons between one country and another, and to co-operate for this purpose with the International Youth Hostels Movement.

At a meeting in Geneva in November 1934, the Unemployment Committee of the *Save the Children International Union* pointed out that the Union took an interest in the question of the utilisation of spare time in conjunction with that of the reduction of hours of work in two ways: it was interested in what parents did with their spare time, because of the family, and it was also interested in what young workers did with their spare time.

The *International Co-operative Alliance*, at its Congress (London, September 1934) expressed the opinion that the co-operative societies should assist workers to organise their spare time.

The first *International Congress of Educational Cinematography*, (Rome, April 1934) adopted a resolution recommending collaboration in international action in the field of the utilisation of workers' spare time.

During a meeting held on 29 June 1934, which was attended by representatives of the Belgian Higher Council for Popular Education, the " Dopolavoro " of Italy, the National Recreation Association of the United States, the World's Alliance of Young Men's Christian Associations, the Socialist Workers' Sports International, the International Federation of Christian Trade Unions, the International Office for Workers' Gardens and Allotments,

and the Central Workers' Institute of the French General Confederation of Labour, it was decided to set up an *International Committee on Workers' Spare Time.* A provisional Board was appointed. The first meeting of the new Committee is expected to take place at Brussels in 1935 during the World Exhibition.

Housing

In 1934 many countries (e.g. Germany, Great Britain, Italy) recorded an increase, in some cases considerable, in house building activity, while several others (e.g. France, United States) showed at least signs of a revival in the near future [1].

Generally speaking, attention is directed mainly towards the question of the provision of cheap housing accommodation and more especially the construction of small dwellings. This is the case in Great Britain and in the British Dominions, where slum clearance campaigns have long been a feature of housing policy (Australia, Canada, Great Britain, Union of South Africa). It may also be noted that the Governments of several American republics have taken steps to encourage the building of cheap dwellings (Argentina, Chile, Colombia, Mexico). In other countries, housing measures take a different form, house owners being encouraged to repair and improve existing dwellings (Austria, Germany, Poland).

Argentina. — Chapter XXVII of the Social Welfare and Assistance Bill of 28 August 1934 deals with town-planning from the social standpoint; it enumerates the measures to be taken to provide housing facilities for the poorer classes.

Austria. — In June 1934 there was a certain amount of friction between landlords and tenants on account of the rise in rents. At the beginning of July an Act was passed to encourage landlords to repair and improve their property. Administrative regulations in pursuance of this Act were issued in October and November 1934.

France. — Under an Act of 27 July 1934 the provisions of the Loucheur Act of 1928, as amended by subsequent legislation, are to remain in operation until 31 December 1935. It may be recalled that State financial assistance for the encouragement of building, as defined in the Loucheur Act, was suspended in March 1933. The period of validity of that Act is thus extended by one year to compensate for the holding up of State subsidies. According to the explanatory note to a draft resolution submitted to the Chamber of Deputies in November 1934, it appears, however, that the departmental credit funds and all the other bodies engaged

[1] For details, the reader may refer to the building industry statistics which the League of Nations began to publish in 1934 in the *Monthly Bulletin of Statistics.*

in the construction of cheap dwellings have been unable for many months past to obtain advances, and this in spite of the fact that the Marquet Public Works Plan makes provision for advances and in particular for the investment of 300 million francs for slum clearance in Paris.

Germany. — The revival in building, already noted in 1933, continued to be even more rapid in 1934. The total estimates again put the net increase in the number of dwellings at 300,000 for the year, a figure which practically equals the yearly average for the most favourable period (1927-1930). The figures for the first nine months of 1934 show that for towns of over 10,000 inhabitants the number of building permits issued was 81,981 (52,672 for the corresponding period in 1933), the number of buildings begun 71,581 (47,596) and the number completed 114,061 (63,345). A large part of the net increase in the number of dwellings was due to the transformation of buildings, and more particularly to the subdivision of large flats.

In spite of this revival, the housing situation is considered to be very critical. In the first place, the marked increase in the marriage rate in 1933 and 1934 (by 23 per cent. and 36 per cent. respectively in large towns) and the fall in unemployment have increased the demand for new houses, relatively few of which were built between 1931 and 1933. Secondly, the measures taken to promote the conversion of house property and the building of small houses for occupation by the owner *(Eigenheim)* have been found insufficient to speed up the construction of small dwellings. The question of the re-introduction of large State subsidies similar to those granted prior to 1931 is under contemplation.

In these circumstances, the housing question continues to be one of the most important of the day. By a decision taken on 4 December 1934, the Ministry of Labour has again been entrusted with all matters connected with land settlement and housing in general.

Among important measures taken during the year, attention may be called to those for the regulation of relations between landlords and tenants. At the beginning of 1934, the two large associations of landlords and tenants agreed to establish a standard type of lease. Following a vigorous campaign against landlords who refuse to let to large families, the two associations, acting in conjunction with the Large Families Association, concluded a second agreement intended to facilitate the housing of large families and to prevent disputes. Persons or families who fail to comply with the established rules will in future be excluded from their respective associations.

Great Britain. — The index of building activity, which was 155 in 1933 as compared with 100 in 1928, rose to 180 in 1934 with a maximum of 210 in July. Official figures issued in December 1934 in connection with the introduction of a Bill on overcrowding show that about 300,000 dwellings were built in one year. Of this

total, 250,000 were built by private enterprise without the help of State subsidies.

This, however, is only one side of the housing question. The problem of slum clearance and overcrowding is as yet only partly solved. At the beginning of the year, the Minister of Health issued a White Paper summarising the information relating to slum clearance which the local authorities were required to provide in reply to a Ministerial Circular of April 1933.

It is estimated that the total number of houses to be built in place of the cleared slums will not be less than 300,000. The magnitude of this scheme is indicated by the fact that between 1875 and 1914 the number of persons rehoused as a result of slum clearance measures was 108,000. Since the publication of these figures the public has been informed of the investigations in progress, the programmes prepared, and the results achieved. The number of slum dwellings demolished during the six months ended 30 September 1934 was 18,000 as compared with 19,500 during the previous three years. The introduction of a Bill to abolish overcrowding is the direct outcome of this whole campaign.

Italy. — There was a noticeable increase in building activity during 1934. During the first five months of the year, the number of dwellings built in 17 large cities was 18,433 (11,598 in the corresponding period in 1933), with 68,838 rooms (42,802 in 1933). In general, housing questions have been given much attention in official circles and in the press.

Special attention has been called to the necessity of improving rural housing conditions, a matter to which the Head of the Government referred at length in his speeches of 18 March and 6 October 1934. The financial and technical aspects of the problem are being studied, and a substantial increase in house building activity throughout the countryside may be predicted.

Spain. — A Decree of 10 May 1934 defines the functions of the Housing Policy Committee set up in 1931. The Committee is to draft new town-planning legislation with a view to giving a fresh stimulus to building and co-ordinating the measures taken by the State, the municipalities and private undertakings in this field.

United States. — No definite revival in the building of dwelling houses is to be recorded. The index of this activity, which was 12.8 in 1933 as against 100 in 1928 remained stationary in 1934 (7.7 in February, 15.8 in June). All that can be said is that the situation from September onward seemed a little better than in 1933, the result not of any new building, but rather of the reconditioning of existing buildings.

The prospect of a general revival is by no means unfavourable, but it is not at all certain that private enterprise will be able to cope with the renewed activity which is predicted. On the contrary, there is more and more reason to believe that the State will be called upon to play an important part in this field. This, at any rate, is the impression given by the resolutions adopted by the

Federal Conference on Labour Legislation which met in February 1934 and recommended comprehensive State participation in the administration and financing of housing schemes. The same impression is given by the President's Message to Congress of 8 June, the National Housing Act of 27 June 1934, which supplements the 1933 Acts concerning loans to home owners, and the Home Owners' Loan Corporation Act of 27 April 1934.

Towards the end of 1934, an advisory housing committee, composed of 25 eminent experts, was set up by the Federal Housing Administration.

International Activities

During 1934, no international housing conference of any importance was held, as most of them were due to meet in 1935. The continental congress of building societies which had been fixed for November 1934 was postponed to a later date. The International Building Property Union, in pursuance of resolutions adopted at its Rome Congress in 1933, continued to make preparations for its next congress, which will be held at Brussels in June 1935 during the World Exhibition.

The Health Section of the League of Nations has begun an enquiry into the possibilities of international action for the improvement of rural housing conditions, in pursuance of certain decisions taken by the League Assembly.

CHAPTER VII

WORKERS' GENERAL RIGHTS

Right of Combination in Trade Unions

During 1934, the trade union movement underwent a number of radical changes. It is characteristic of most of the measures taken that the legislative authorities, hitherto content to confer legal status on the trade associations, now seek to incorporate them in a comprehensive social, economic and even political structure.

This process of reorganisation, the early stages of which have been described in previous issues of the *Year-Book*, has not yet been completed in most countries. For this reason the analysis given below must naturally deal less with the effects than with the form of the new institutions, of which moreover only the essential features are noted.

Austria. — The trade union movement was completely reorganised during 1934. As a result of the events of 8 February, it will be remembered that the Federation of Free Trade Unions and its affiliated organisations were dissolved.

Now, the dissolution of the most important trade union organisation in the country raised the question of the continued activity, if not the actual existence, of a number of social institutions, such as collective agreements, works councils, industrial courts, and conciliation and arbitration boards, which were based wholly or partly on the dissolved trade unions.

To meet this situation, the Federal Government issued a number of provisional Orders to maintain and operate during the period of transition the laws governing relations between workers and employers, e.g. the Order of 16 February 1934 concerning collective agreements, those of 16 and 23 February 1934 concerning works councils, that of 23 February 1934 concerning conciliation boards and industrial courts, and that of 24 February 1934 concerning craftsmen's corporations. These Orders substituted for the members of the free trade unions, who had been deprived of their powers, representatives appointed by the authorities.

These were, however, purely temporary measures pending a much wider reorganisation of social, economic and even political life on a corporative basis. This scheme of reorganisation was to be, and has in part been, carried out in successive stages: (1)

reorganisation of workers; (2) reorganisation of employers; (3) union of workers' and employers' associations in trade corporations.

The Austrian Constitution of 1 May 1934, anticipating to some extent the scheme for corporative reform, provided for the establishment of a Federal Economic Council. (This Council, the Council of State, the Cultural Council and the Council of Provinces, together constitute the four consultative chambers which go to make up the Federal Diet, the new legislative power in Austria.) The Federal Economic Council is to consist of seven corporative chambers representing respectively agriculture and forestry, industry and mining, handicrafts, commerce and transport, banking and insurance, the liberal professions, and the public services.

It should be noted that while the corporation of public servants is to be composed solely of employees and the corporation of agriculture solely of persons engaged in farming, whether employees or workers, the other five corporations are to be formed by uniting the workers' and employers' organisations in a single organisation.

To what extent has this programme actually been carried out ?

Under the Government Order of 2 March 1934, the first step towards corporative organisation was taken by the establishment of the Confederation of Austrian Workers and Salaried Employees.

According to this Order, the Confederation comprises five national trade federations for the following five groups: industry and mining, crafts, commerce and transport, banking and finance, liberal professions.

In scope the Confederation covers the whole of Austrian territory. It is required to carry out its duties in a Christian, patriotic and social spirit to the exclusion of any party activity. The Confederation is a body corporate with legal personality and is placed under the supervision of the Federal Ministry of Social Administration.

Enrolment in the Confederation is free; membership is acquired by admission. The Confederation may refuse admission, in particular (1) if the applicant has been convicted in a court of law on account of a crime or of an offence against public order or public morals, unless the validity of the sentence has expired or been annulled; (2) if administrative penalties have been imposed on the applicant on account of action hostile to the State or Government; (3) if there is ground to suspect that the applicant might abuse his membership of the Confederation for purposes of class war or political agitation.

The Order of 2 March 1934 was completed by an Order issued on 3 December 1934, defining the rules of the Confederation of Austrian Workers and Salaried Employees.

While confirming the principal provisions of the Order of 2 March concerning the competence of the Confederation, the conditions under which persons may be admitted to membership, etc., the new Order contains more detailed provisions relating on the one hand to the occupational and territorial structure, and on the other hand to the composition, working, powers and duties, of the Confederation and its affiliated bodies.

According to these rules, each of the five national federations is divided into national trade unions, each of which is made up of the persons employed

in a group of cognate industries within the larger category. Workers and salaried employees may set up separate national trade unions. The national trade unions are divided into provincial trade unions, made up in turn of local trade unions.

The different provincial trade unions in each of the provinces (including the city of Vienna) which belong to the same federation, join to form provincial federations, and these in turn are linked within each province in a provincial cartel. The provincial cartels are subdivided into district and regional cartels. Lastly, the different trade unions in each locality join to form a local cartel.

The administrative organs of the various trade union bodies are all formed on a uniform pattern, and include a general meeting, an executive committee and a responsible head. The meeting elects the committee, which in turn elects the head.

The employed persons belonging to the different organisations may exercise their right to vote only in their local unions. All workers and salaried employees belonging to the unions who are over eighteen years of age, have been members for at least six months, and are up to date with their contributions, have the right to vote. The elections are carried out by direct secret ballot; to be successful a candidate must obtain a majority of votes. Any worker or salaried employee of Austrian nationality who has been a member of the Confederation for at least a year, and is up to date with his contributions, may stand for election.

The general meetings of the various bodies in the higher stages of the system are formed either of the committees or of the heads of the subsidiary bodies. Thus the committees of the local unions form the general meeting of the local cartel, and the heads of the local unions, the general meeting of the provincial trade union. This process of selection and delegation continues from stage to stage until the summit of the pyramid is reached, namely the general meeting of the Confederation itself, which is composed of the chairmen of the national trade unions and the provincial cartels.

Inversely, each successive organisation from the top downwards exercises the appropriate supervision over those immediately below it. The appointment of the head of a local union, for instance, must be confirmed by the head of the appropriate provincial trade union; and he in his turn requires the approval of the corresponding national trade union.

The choice of leaders of the national trade unions, the provincial federations, the provincial cartels, the national federations and the Confederation itself is subject to the approval of the Minister of Social Administration.

In the same way the internal rules of each organisation, which must be drawn up in accordance with a model issued by the Committee of the Confederation, require the approval of the next superior body in each case.

The same hierarchical principle appears in the distribution of powers among the different organisations; in its particular field each of the inferior bodies may exercise, under the supervision of the appropriate superior body, the powers which the latter has delegated to it. It will suffice here to describe the powers of the higher organisations, namely the national trade unions, the national federations and the Confederation itself.

The duties of the national trade unions, in addition to supervision of the appropriate subsidiary organisations, are:

(*a*) to conclude, amend or terminate collective agreements in conformity with existing legislation, subject to the authorisation of the competent national federation; to be valid these agreements must be signed by the head of the national trade union and the head of the national federation, and before concluding the agreement the national trade union must consult and come to an agreement with the provincial federations concerned;

(*b*) to propose, with the consent of the head of the competent national federation, that an agreement be declared a common rule, in accordance with the Act of 18 December 1919 concerning the establishment of conciliation boards and collective agreements (see below, under " Collective Agreements ");

(*c*) to open procedure for conciliation and arbitration in case of collective labour disputes;

(*d*) to appoint and dismiss, on the recommendation of the provincial union, the trustees provided for in sections 11 (3), 27 (1) and 29 (2) of the Federal Act of 12 July 1934 (see below, under " Works Councils ").

The main duties of the national federations, in addition to supervision of the subordinate bodies, are:

(*a*) to deal with the social and economic problems of the corporation in agreement with the corresponding employers' organisations;

(*b*) to establish and administer economic and social institutions and schemes for vocational guidance, on the lines laid down by the Confederation;

(*c*) to examine and approve collective agreements concluded by the national trade unions.

The principal duties of the Confederation, in addition to supervision of subsidiary bodies, are:

(*a*) to define the territorial and occupational scope of its affiliated organisations;

(*b*) to conclude, amend or terminate any collective agreements which cover more than one national trade union;

(*c*) to carry out the other duties with which it is entrusted by legislation and which it has not delegated to its subordinate organisations.

The general meeting of the Confederation is empowered to amend the Confederation's rules, to draft regulations for elections, to vote the budget and the balance sheet, and to decide all important points connected with trade union organisation.

As a counterpart to the Confederation of Austrian Workers and Salaried Employees, the Act of 17 October 1934 established a Federation of Austrian Manufacturers, which takes the place of the former Federation of Austrian Industries. A Decree was issued on 31 December 1934 fixing the rules of this new employers' organisation.

It will suffice here to say that the methods of organisation and working and the duties of the Federation of Austrian Manufacturers are modelled on those of the Confederation of Austrian Workers and Salaried Employees [1].

The other employers' organisations have not yet been constituted, but the Minister of Social Administration has announced the early establishment of employers' organisations for handicrafts [2], commerce and means of communication, banking and credit institutions, and the liberal professions.

To sum up, the organisation of workers and salaried employees has already been completed, while that of employers is in progress. It has so far been impossible, therefore, to set up any economic corporation properly speaking. On the other hand, the Corporation

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[1] Cf. *Industrial and Labour Information*, Vol. LII, No. 9, pp. 271 et seq.

[2] The Confederation of Handicraftsmen was set up by an Act of 12 March 1935.

of Public Servants (which, as already stated, includes only employees) was established by the Act of 19 October 1934 as amended by the Decree of 19 January 1935.

The National Corporation of Public Servants comprises all active public servants *(Berufstätige)*, whether engaged under private contracts or otherwise, including salaried employees of the Federal Railways and teachers, and all persons connected with the profession of public servant *(Berufszugehörige)*, including retired public servants, members of the families of public servants and their dependants.

Public servants are divided into occupational groups, which in turn are divided into service groups. For the defence of their interests there are, in addition to the National Corporation of Public Servants *(Beamtenbund)*, corporations *(Kameradschaften)* for the various services. All these bodies are incorporated.

The essential functions of the corporative organisations are: (1) to defend the honour and dignity of the profession; (2) to defend the economic interests common to all public servants; (3) to represent the Corporation in the public organisations and institutions for which provision is made by law; (4) to administer the property of the Corporation; (5) to carry out all other functions entrusted to the Corporation by law.

The corporative organisations have the right to represent their members in dealing with the public authorities, to draw up reports and memoranda, to formulate proposals, and to act as intermediaries between the different services of the profession and the authorities. The public authorities must take account of the desires of the corporative organisations so far as they are compatible with the interests of the service.

The corporative organisations must carry out their functions in the spirit of Christianity, patriotism and social justice, and must subordinate the private interests of the profession to the general interest. The functions of the National Corporation are to supervise the service corporations and to manage all business common to the whole profession.

Supervision over the corporative organisations of public servants is exercised by the Chancellor's Department and covers all their activities. The supervisory authority may delegate its representatives to meetings, annul decisions taken, relieve the presidents and members of the executive committees of their functions, or dissolve the committees and entrust their functions to trustees; where a committee is dissolved, the supervisory authority must take steps for the appointment of another within four weeks.

All existing associations the functions of which are in whole or in part the same as those of the Corporation of Public Servants will dissolve or amend their rules before 1 March 1935 in such a way as to exclude from their functions those which fall within the scope of the Corporation; failing this they will be dissolved. In the event of voluntary dissolution, the association may by majority vote decide on the disposal of its property. Where the association is dissolved compulsorily, the Chancellor's Department will transfer its property either to the national corporative organisation or to the corporative organisation of a particular service.

Belgium. — A Bill introduced by Mr. Heyman, former Minister of Labour, was discussed by the Chamber of Representatives on 18 December 1934. Its aim is to confer legal status on employers' and workers' trade associations, on the collective agreements concluded between such associations, and on the joint trade committees composed of their leaders. The Bill also provides for the establishment of regional committees and a national committee of production which to all intents and purposes will play the part of economic councils.

The preamble to the Bill states that by combining in a single measure all the various provisions concerning trade associations,

collective agreements, joint trade committees and production committees, it is sought to organise the various trades, set up authorities for them and promote their regulation.

Brazil. — The Decree of 12 July 1934 which took the place of the Decree of 19 April 1931 [1] strengthens the public character of workers' and employers' trade associations and widens their powers.

The new Decree regulates in detail the establishment, working and internal organisation of the primary associations, their federations, unions and confederations [2]. It should be noted that only after recognition by the Government can employers' and workers' organisations legally style themselves " trade associations " and acquire legal personality and the privileges attaching thereto.

Once they have been officially recognised, the trade associations become the organisations of the economic and occupational groups of the country. It is then their duty to defend the interests of the group or trade and those of their members, to co-ordinate the rights and obligations of employers and workers in relation to economic and social conditions and to co-operate with the Government in the study and solution of problems directly or indirectly affecting the interests of particular groups.

In their capacity as organs for the defence of particular trades, the associations are entitled to approach the administrative and judicial authorities not merely on their own behalf or on that of their members, but also as representatives of the trade or group. They may establish and administer employment agencies, schools and any other institutions for social welfare and relief, with the exception of co-operative institutions, which fall within the province of the co-operative societies alone.

As organs of the co-ordination of the rights and obligations of employers and workers, the associations have the right to conclude or approve collective agreements and to co-operate, in conciliation boards and labour courts, in the settlement of disputes between employers and workers.

The exercise of the right of association is protected by a number of legal provisions. Workers holding executive office in their unions may not be prevented from carrying out their duties, nor may they be transferred to another post in such a way as to render it difficult for them to carry out their duties, unless the Minister considers that there are good grounds for such transfer. If the worker is absent from his work for more than one day for the purpose of carrying out his duties as an officer of a trade union, he shall be considered as on holiday without pay.

A trade unionist who loses his employment by reason of the abolition of his post shall be given preference, other things being equal, when the post is restored. Employers are prohibited from

[1] Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1931*, p. 473.
[2] Cf. *Industrial and Labour Information*, Vol. LII, No. 2, pp. 37 et seq.

taking any action against workers on the ground of their activities as trade unionists. If a worker is discharged in these circumstances, he is entitled to an allowance equivalent to as many months' wages as he has years of service. If his wage is withheld or reduced, he is entitled to payment in full. In addition, the employer may be punished by a fine.

Workers organised in recognised unions must be given preference for employment in the public services and on public works.

The new, like the earlier, Decree prohibits political or religious propaganda, as well as all canvassing in favour of candidates for an election which by its nature or aim is foreign to the interests of the associations. On the other hand, a certain number of members of the National Assembly must be nominated directly by the recognised trade associations.

Finally, Article 120 of the Brazilian Constitution, which came into force on 16 July 1934, guarantees freedom of association and combination and the right of self-government of trade associations.

Bulgaria. — In this country, too, the trade union movement underwent considerable changes in 1934.

In the first place, a Decree of 30 July 1934 completely changed the conditions of organisation of State employees and public servants, by introducing the principle of a single association for each occupation or service [1].

This principle was subsequently extended to all employers' and workers' organisations by the Decree of 13 September 1934, supplemented by the Legislative Decree of 11 January 1935 [2]. According to the new regulations, trade associations are incorporated bodies and represent the interests of the whole body of persons belonging to the same occupation, whether they are members of the association or not. The essential duties of the associations are to appoint representatives to the organs of State and local institutions, to act as an instrument for applying the Government's economic and social policy, to assume the defence of the occupational and general interests of their members before public institutions and private individuals, and to organise mutual aid funds and social services.

Workers and employers may not belong to the same occupational organisation. Manual and non-manual workers, even if employed in the same undertaking, may not belong to the same occupational organisation.

The election of the executive committee must be approved by the competent Minister, who may order a new election or appoint a new committee *ex officio*. The chairman of the committee is chosen from among its members and represents the organisation.

The resources of the trade associations are derived from an annual contribution which is compulsory for all persons represented by the organisation whether they are members or not.

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[1] Cf. *Industrial and Labour Information*, Vol. LI, No. 8, pp. 257-258.
[2] Cf. *Industrial and Labour Information*, Vol. LIII, No. 6, pp. 180-182.

Existing trade associations must convene a general meeting within a period fixed by the competent Minister for the purpose of adapting their rules to the new regulations. Where occupations possess more than one organisation, the Minister must *ex officio* appoint the executive committee pending the convening of a general meeting. All workers must enter their names on lists kept by the factory inspection services, and craftsmen, traders and manufacturers on lists kept by the chambers of commerce or industry, wherever such chambers exist. All other members of associations must enter their names on special lists, deposited with the municipal authorities.

All assets and liabilities of existing occupational organisations are transferred to the new organisations which take their place.

According to recent statements, this reform of the trade associations is merely a prelude to the organisation of the State on corporative lines. The Government is at present considering the establishment of seven corporative bodies for, respectively, peasants, workers, industry, handicrafts, commerce, public servants and salaried employees, and the liberal professions. These bodies will send representatives to the future Parliament as well as to the municipal and provincial councils.

Canada. — Recent legislation in certain provinces to regulate industrial relations and wages is obviously influenced by the system of codes of fair competition in force in the United States.

For instance, the Alberta Trade and Industry Act of 16 April 1934, which came into force on 19 October 1934, provides for the convening of conferences of representatives of the employers and workers in any trade with a view to studying the means of alleviating any harmful conditions or practices which may affect the trades in question. These conferences may fix minimum wage standards which, provided they are approved by 66 per cent. of those engaged in the given trade or by persons owning 66 per cent. of the capital invested in the trade, may be made compulsory for all employers in the trade concerned. An employer may not interfere directly or indirectly with the free selection of representatives of any trade association or with any lawful activity of an association.

The British Columbia Male Minimum Wage Act of 1934 extends the scope of minimum wage legislation to include all adult male employees in any industry, trade or occupation, with the exception of farm labourers and domestic servants. The administration of this Act is entrusted to the newly constituted Board of Industrial Relations, consisting of the Deputy Minister of Labour, the Chairman of the Economic Council and three other members, of whom one must be a woman. The Board is empowered to hold such enquiries as it considers adequate and to make Orders fixing minimum wages for workers of either sex.

Similarly, in Manitoba, the Minimum Wage Act, which formerly applied only to boys under eighteen years and to women, has been

extended so as to apply to all workers employed in a number of industries and trades.

Similar measures have been taken in Saskatchewan, where the Minimum Wage Act, which formerly applied only to women employed in shops and factories, was amended on 1 June 1934 and now covers male workers in such establishments.

Finally, the Government of the province of Ontario has announced that the present wage legislation is to be replaced by a new Act which will provide for the fixing of minimum wages in each industry for both men and women. (For Quebec see below, under "Collective Agreements".)

Cuba. — During 1934 the Government promulgated three Legislative Decrees relating to trade associations. The first, issued on 9 March 1934, deprives of its legal status any workers' organisation which has supported an illegal strike, and annuls all collective agreements between employers and such organisations, except where the workers returned to their work within twenty-four hours.

The second Decree, issued on 18 March 1934, merely supplements the first and states that all persons who belong to the executive committees of dissolved organisations may not within the next two years belong to the new executive committees, or act as workers' delegates or representatives. In the preamble to this Decree the Government states that it is not opposed to the formation of new unions or to the continued activity of existing unions, but that it is bound to prevent the unions from again becoming the tool of elements of disorder.

The third Decree, issued on 10 March 1934, forbids agents, salaried employees and workers in the service of the State, the provinces or the municipalities to form associations for the purpose of imposing their claims on the authorities by means of a coalition or a strike. Infringements of the provisions of the Decree are punishable by six months' to two years' imprisonment, or a fine of 500 to 5,000 pesos, or both.

Danzig (Free City of). — The example of Germany was again followed in Danzig during 1934. The main provisions of the Labour Regulation Act of 8 May 1934 were based on the German Act of 20 January 1934 (see below, under "Works Councils"). Under rights laid down in the Constitution of Danzig, an instrument guaranteed by the League of Nations, the free trade unions which had been dissolved in 1933 were able to reorganise their ranks, but, following an award given by the Civil Court of Danzig on 21 December 1934, all their property was transferred to the National-Socialist works cells and the heads of the free trade unions were debarred from collecting contributions.

Germany. — A detailed account was given in the *Year-Book* for 1933[1] of the origin, working and composition of the German Labour

[1] Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1933*, pp. 283-286.

Front and the labour trustees, two new institutions set up during the course of 1933. It will be remembered that the Labour Front replaced the former associations of employers and workers and reorganised them on a new footing, while the labour trustees provisionally took over the functions of the old trade associations in regard to such matters as collective bargaining and conciliation and arbitration.

This provisional system underwent fundamental alterations during 1934. Two changes of great importance were made in the organisation of the Labour Front. In the first place, it is no longer based, as in 1933, on associations of employers and workers, as such, but on the individual membership of all German citizens exercising an economic activity, without distinction of trade or class. In the second place, the Labour Front was incorporated in the National-Socialist Party and in consequence of the Act of 1 December 1933 concerning the unity of the Party andthe State acquired, like the Party itself, the status of a public institution. Similarly, the structure of the Labour Front was remodelled in all respects on that of the Party.

Territorially, the Labour Front, like the Party, is divided into thirteen areas corresponding to the thirteen districts of the labour trustees. These areas, following the subdivisions of the Party, are in turn divided into regional and local groups, works communities, cells and blocks.

Industrially, the Labour Front consists of eighteen national works communities *(Reichsbetriebsgemeinschaften)*, subdivided in turn into regional, district and local communities. These communities comprise the workers, salaried employees and employers belonging to the branch of industry for which they are constituted.

Thus the basis of organisation is no longer the occupational association, but the undertaking. The members of every undertaking —including the head of the undertaking himself — employing at least ten workers are organised in a works community, which is placed under the supervision of the National-Socialist cell of the undertaking. Undertakings employing less than ten workers, as well as works contractors and home workers, are grouped by locality in cells and blocks.

The national works communities may set up separate sections for the occupational groups *(Berufsgruppen)* within their competence.

The legal status of the German Labour Front, whose plan of organisation has just been outlined, was finally established by an Order issued by the Chancellor on 24 October-11 November 1934, which defines the aims and nature of the Labour Front as follows:

According to section 1, the German Labour Front is an organisation of all Germans engaged in mental or manual work. All Germans engaged in such work, including members of the former trade unions of workers and salaried employees and employers' associations, may be members of the Labour Front on a footing of complete equality and without prejudice to their membership of another occupational organisation of a social, economic or political character.

The Chancellor may decide that legally recognised corporative organisations shall be members of the German Labour Front.

The aim of the German Labour Front is to create a working community of all Germans *(Volks- und Leistungsgemeinschaft)*. In order to obtain the maximum benefit for this community, the Labour Front must ensure that each of its members is enabled to take his place in the economic life of the nation, under such moral and physical conditions as may render him capable of the highest output.

The German Labour Front is an integral part of the National-Socialist Party. The Chief of the Party General Staff, appointed by the Head of the Government and Chancellor of the Reich, controls the Labour Front. He appoints and dismisses the other officers of the Labour Front, who must be chosen primarily from the Party organisations, namely: the National-Socialist Works Cells Organisation, the National-Socialist Organisation for Commerce, Industry and Handicrafts, the Storm Troops and the Defence Troops.

The territorial organisation of the Labour Front is based on that of the National-Socialist Party. Its occupational organisation will be carried out according to the principles laid down in the programme of the National-Socialist Party with a view to the organisation of the national economic system. The details of the territorial and occupational organisation will be determined by the Chief of the Party General Staff, and published in the Service Bulletin of the German Labour Front. The same authority will decide on the right of admission to the Labour Front. The Treasurer of the National-Socialist Party is responsible for supervision of the funds of the Labour Front.

The Labour Front must ensure industrial peace by seeing that heads of undertakings understand the just claims of their staff, and that the staff understand the situation and possibilities of the undertakings in which they are employed.

The Labour Front must find a compromise between the legitimate interests of all parties concerned on the basis of the principles of National-Socialism, so as to reduce the number of cases that must be brought before the courts under the provisions of the Act of 20 January 1934. The right to represent the persons concerned for the purpose of bringing about such agreement is vested exclusively in the Labour Front. The establishment or interference of other organisations in this field is prohibited. The National-Socialist workers' spare-time organisation called " Strength Through Joy " and the vocational guidance system are both attached to the Labour Front. Finally, the Labour Front carries out the functions assigned to it by the Act of 20 January 1934 (see below).

The property of the former associations of employers and workers and their affiliated organisations and economic undertakings is transferred to the Labour Front, and constitutes a primary fund for the financing of its welfare services. The object of these services is to provide subsistence for members in case of need, to maintain the most fit in their occupational activities, to secure for them an independent existence, and so far as possible, to enable them to acquire property.

Lastly, central legal consulting offices have been set up for the benefit of members of the Labour Front, who are required to apply to these offices before raising any action in the labour courts. According to section 11 of the Labour Courts Act, the heads and members of the staff of the offices may defend or appear for workers and salaried employees or for employers in the labour courts. Similarly, the Labour Front may in any particular case authorise a lawyer to represent either of the parties before the courts.

This brief description shows that the Labour Front as reorganised has no more competence to regulate conditions of employment and relations between employers and workers—work formerly in the hands of the trade associations—than it had in its original form in 1933. This function was dealt with by the Act of 20 January 1934 for the regulation of national labour.

As a detailed account is given of the main provisions of this Act in the following sections dealing with other matters (works

councils, collective agreements, conciliation and arbitration, individual contracts of service, administration of labour law), it will suffice here to give a summary outline of its principles.

The Act of 20 January 1934 establishes industrial relations on the dual principle of the leadership of the employer, who is responsible for the social well-being of his workers, and the loyalty of the workers to their leader. Thus, the centre of gravity of the new social policy is the undertaking. The employer is the leader of the undertaking; he makes decisions for his staff on his own responsibility on all social questions affecting the undertaking.

In undertakings which normally employ at least twenty persons, the employer is assisted by confidential councillors, who form with him and under his leadership the confidential council of the undertaking (see below, under " Works Councils ").

As under the new regulations labour disputes (strikes, lock-outs, etc.) are illegal, the State must take the final decision in all matters of social interest. This task is entrusted by the Federal Government to labour trustees, who are under the service supervision of the Federal Minister of Labour, and are bound to observe the principles and instructions laid down by the Federal Government.

In accordance with the principle of leadership, a labour trustee takes decisions on his own responsibility; but to assist him in reaching them he must appoint an advisory council of experts, chosen from the various economic branches of his territory from lists submitted by the Labour Front. In addition to the council of experts, he may also appoint committees of experts to advise him in individual cases, especially in regard to collective rules of employment.

The two instruments for the regulation of conditions of employment are: (1) the establishment rules issued by the heads of undertakings employing at least twenty workers; (2) the collective rules issued by the labour trustees (see below, under " Collective Agreements "). In undertakings employing less than twenty workers, the head of the undertaking may fix the conditions of employment directly with his staff.

Lastly, the new system of regulation is based on the principle of " social honour ". The Act accordingly provides for the establishment of social honour courts to enforce respect for social duties and to punish any breaches (see below, under " Conciliation and Arbitration ").

The regulation of labour matters has been accompanied by the reorganisation of the economic system.

In accordance with the Act of 27 February 1934 for the economic reconstruction of Germany and the regulations issued on 27 November 1934, the German economic system has been divided into seven main occupational branches, viz. (1) industry (which in turn is divided into seven main groups); (2) handicrafts; (3) commerce; (4) banking; (5) insurance; (6) motive power; and (7) transport, which comes under special regulations.

Territorially, Germany is divided into thirteen economic areas

corresponding to the thirteen districts of the labour trustees; these areas may be subdivided into regional and local organisations.

These occupational and territorial organisations are represented at the centre by the Federal Economic Council, which is under the direct supervision of the Minister of National Economy, and in each of the thirteen districts by an economic chamber, each including a chamber of industry, a chamber of commerce and a chamber of handicrafts.

Italy. — The reform of the corporative system, the essential features of which were described in the *Year-Book* for 1933 [1], was completed during 1934.

The Act of 5 February 1934 is by its very nature a law of integration, its aim being to promote the development of the institutions outlined by the Act of 3 April 1926 and the regulations of 1 July 1926 concerning the legal organisation of collective labour relations, the Labour Charter of 21 April 1927, and the Act of 20 March 1930 relating to the National Council of Corporations.

As the new Act will in future regulate social and economic relations in Italy, it is analysed below in detail.

Organisation of the corporations. — According to section 1 of the Act of 5 February 1934, the corporations are to be established by Decree of the Head of the Government on the recommendation of the Minister of Corporations after the opinion of the Central Committee of Corporations has been heard. The President of a corporation must be a Minister or Under-Secretary of State or the Secretary of the National Fascist Party and must be nominated by Decree of the Head of the Government, who is also President of the National Council of Corporations (section 2).

The Decree establishing a corporation determines the number of members to compose its council and the number of members to be designated by each of the associations which are grouped in the corporation. These designations are subject to the approval of the Head of the Government, to be given in a Decree on the recommendation of the Minister of Corporations (section 3).

The corporations are organised on the basis of the main branches of economic activity; but special sections may be set up in a corporation, and their decisions are then subject to its approval. The Head of the Government may instruct two or more corporations to be jointly convened for the discussion of questions affecting several branches of economic activity. He may similarly issue Decrees, on the recommendation of the Minister of Corporations and after the opinion of the Central Committee of Corporations has been heard, setting up corporative committees to regulate economic activity in relation to specified products, and may call on representatives of the occupational groups and State Departments concerned and of the National Fascist Party to sit thereon. The decisions of the above-mentioned committees are subject to the approval of the competent corporations and of the General Assembly of the National Council of Corporations (sections 4-6).

According to the Ministerial Report submitted to the Senate, the corporative system built up of corporations for main branches of production, sections for occupational groups, committees for specified products, and joint corporations forms an organic whole capable of being adapted to economic realities and their many and varied developments and aspects.

[1] Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1933*, pp. 288-293.

Functions of the corporations. — In addition to the powers and functions conferred on it by the Act of 3 April 1926 and the Royal Decree of 1 July 1926, each corporation is empowered to draft rules for the collective regulation of economic relations and for centralised discipline in production. It exercises this right on the proposal of the competent Ministers or at the request of one of the associations grouped in it, subject to the approval of the Head of the Government (section 8).

The Ministerial Report stated in this connection that this power made the corporations a means of self-discipline and of controlling economic activities. It marked the passage from economic liberalism to the corporative system. The formula used was wide enough to cover the most varied forms of intervention and regulation in the economic field. It was worthy of note that the request of one of the associations grouped in the corporation was sufficient to set its regulating machinery in motion.

It was also interesting to note that, under section 12 of the Act of 20 March 1930, the exercise of regulating powers by the Council of Corporations in the economic field depended on the fulfilment of two conditions, namely, (1) that the associations concerned were in agreement to confer such functions upon it, and (2) that the Head of the Government had also given his consent. This meant that if the associations were not in agreement, the Council could not issue any rule. The rules issued by the National Council of Corporations were thus founded on the consent of the two associations, and they differed but little from the agreements which the associations might themselves conclude and submit to the Council for ratification.

The new Act, by giving the corporation the power to draft rules for the regulation of economic relations, made this power independent of a joint request by the associations. The rules drafted by the corporations were thus assimilated to Acts.

Under section 10, a corporation is empowered to fix, in accordance with the procedure indicated above, rates for public utility supplies and services, and for the prices of commodities offered to the public under privileged conditions.

This provision, said the Ministerial Report, made it clear that corporative discipline extended even to public utility supplies and services, which could not be regulated by agreement between associations; such agreement was, moreover, impossible, because, to meet the association representing those who furnished the supplies or services, there was no organisation to represent those who benefited by them, for such persons were indistinguishable from the vague class of consumers and, like them, could not have trade union representation as such. It was similarly found desirable to state that commodities sold to the public under privileged conditions also lay within the scope of corporative control. This provision would permit the supervision and regulation, when circumstances so demanded, of productive activity of this sort, in which an adequate defence of collective interests was particularly necessary because of the economic and technical conditions involved.

In addition to its economic powers, the corporation must, under section 12, give its opinion on all questions in any way concerning the branch of economic activity for which it is established, whenever it is required to do so by the competent public departments.

The Head of the Government may issue Decrees requiring the public departments to call for the opinion of the competent corporations on specified subjects.

In the Decree which establishes a corporation, or in a subsequent Decree to be inserted in the official collection of Acts and Decrees of the Kingdom, the

Head of the Government may abolish the advisory committees existing in the branch of economic activity for which the corporation is to be competent, whatever the nature of the provisions under which these committees were set up.

In virtue of this Act, twenty-two corporations have been established and divided into three groups. The first group—corporations representing a cycle of agricultural, industrial and commercial production—was formed by the Decree of 29 May 1934 and comprises the following corporations: (1) grain; (2) vegetable, flower and fruit-growing; (3) grape-growing and wine production; (4) oil; (5) beets and sugar; (6) animal husbandry and fishing; (7) timber; (8) textiles. The second group of corporations, each representing a cycle of industrial and commercial production, was established by the Decree of 9 June 1934 and comprises a further eight corporations: (9) metal working and engineering; (10) chemical industries; (11) clothing; (12) paper and printing; (13) building; (14) water, gas and electricity; (15) mining and quarrying; (16) glass and ceramics. The third group of corporations, representing the service industries and occupations, was established by the Decree of 23 June 1934 and comprises the following six corporations: (17) insurance and credit; (18) liberal professions and arts; (19) shipping and air transport; (20) inland communications; (21) entertainments; (22) hotels and restaurants.

The councils of these twenty-two corporations, which include 900 members, were invested in Rome on 10 November 1934 with the powers conferred on them by the Act of 5 February. Thus, the Italian corporative system has entered on the phase of practical realisation and it is by the light of experience that it will be possible to judge the real import of the reforms introduced.

The reform of the corporations entailed the reorganisation of the trade associations, as had been foreshadowed by section 7 of the Act of 5 February 1934. This section states that associations grouped in corporations are to become self-governing in matters regarding the associations, but are to continue to belong to their respective confederations in conformity with provisions to be issued by the Minister of Corporations.

Two Royal Decrees, issued on 16 August 1934 in pursuance of the above section, reduced the number of trade confederations from thirteen to nine, the four transport confederations becoming attached to the respective confederations of industrial workers and employers. In the second place, the local and provincial trade associations have been deprived of the legal status previously granted to them. An exception is made in favour of the liberal professions and the arts, where special conditions require the maintenance of the present structure.

Finally, and this is the most important change, the national trade federations and the national associations for the same industry or occupation have been reorganised to correspond to the new corporations. They now number seventy-nine, including the eight corporative federations.

The Royal Decrees of 16 August 1934 also approved the rules for the reconstituted trade organisations, revising the methods of organisation and working of the Italian trade unions.

Latvia. — The activity of the trade unions was suspended during 1934, but the Minister of Social Welfare has recently announced their early reorganisation on a new footing.

Pending this reorganisation, nine out of the twenty-eight former unions have been authorised to continue their activities under the supervision of a Government commissioner.

Lithuania. — In the place of the old free trade unions a Workers' General Representative Organisation has been set up. The main duties of this body are: (1) to represent the workers and protect their interests in dealings with the State and local authorities; (2) to represent Lithuanian workers at international conferences, etc.; (3) to express its opinions and make proposals to the State and local authorities on all subjects of a political or social nature directly or indirectly concerning the workers.

The Workers' Representative Organisation is authorised to set up a Workers' Association to safeguard the material and moral interests of its members, and, in particular, to defend wages and conditions of work; to organise institutions for mutual aid, thrift, insurance or co-operation; and to secure conciliation and arbitration in industrial disputes.

Portugal. — The corporative system, as described in the *Year-Book* for 1933 [1], was completed during 1934 by Decrees relating to labour courts (see below, under " Administration of Labour Law "), strikes and lock-outs, the Corporative Council and the Chamber of Corporations.

A short analysis of the texts dealing with the three last-mentioned matters is given below.

According to the provisions of the Decree of 18 May 1934 relating to strikes and lock-outs, an employer, whether an individual or a company, who wholly or in part suspends work in his establishments solely in order to force his staff to accept amendments to existing contracts or to prevent the amendment of such contracts, to enforce or prevent an interpretation of existing contracts and customs other than the usual interpretation, or to obtain advantages from the State, the administrative authorities or persons supplying him with raw materials, commodities or services, is liable to a fine of 1,000 to 50,000 escudos, his managers, directors and administrators being liable to imprisonment for not less than six months and not more than two years.

Technical workers, salaried employees and workers who, to the number of three or more, collectively abandon their work or perform it in such a way as to interrupt its regularity or continuity solely in order to compel their employers to accept new conditions of

[1] Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1933*, pp. 293-294.

labour or to concede any other kind of advantages, to resist lawful measures taken by the authorities, to oppose the amendment of existing contracts or to enforce or prevent an interpretation of existing contracts and customs other than the usual interpretation, are liable to a fine of 50 to 1,000 escudos. A term of imprisonment not exceeding one year may be substituted for the fine.

Employers, whether individuals or societies, technical workers, salaried employees and workers, who with a political aim in view commit any of the offences enumerated above are liable, in the case of employers, to be obliged to reside in some particular place *(destërro)* for a period of three to eight years, or, alternatively, to a term of imprisonment not exceeding one year and a fine not exceeding 80,000 escudos; workers convicted of such offences are liable to be forced to live in a particular place from three to eight years and to a fine not exceeding 2,000 escudos. If the offence is committed with a view to promoting revolutionary activities, the offender may be condemned to reside in a particular place for four to ten years or, alternatively, to imprisonment for two to four years and the payment of a fine of 20,000 to 100,000 escudos.

If any one of the offences mentioned above is committed with a view to compelling the authorities to adopt a given policy, or refrain from carrying out their duties, or to bringing pressure to bear on their decisions, the offender may be sent to prison for a period of not less than two and not more than four years.

Employers and workers who fail to carry out their obligations under a collective agreement are liable to a fine of 50 to 5,000 escudos or a term of imprisonment not exceeding three months. If employers and workers fail to comply with a collective labour agreement approved by the Under-Secretary of State for Corporations, they become liable to a fine of 25 to 250 escudos or to a term of imprisonment not exceeding twenty days.

Similarly, employers and workers who refuse to carry out or obey an award of a labour court in the matter of collective labour relations are liable—provided the offence does not entail graver consequences—to a fine of 100 to 1,000 escudos for each day's delay after the third day following the notification of the award. A term of imprisonment not exceeding three months may be substituted for the fine.

The penalties laid down in the Decree of 18 May 1934 may be increased in cases of repeated or multiple offences or if the suspension of work (strike or lock-out), or the irregular attendance at work is accompanied by violence, threats, sabotage, disturbance, tumult or riot, or if it occurs in public or public utility undertakings or in establishments set up to meet the general requirements of the population. In such cases, leaders, promoters and agitators are liable to the maximum penalties.

By the Decree of 15 August 1934 a Corporative Council was set up to unify and co-ordinate the duties of the different services taking part in the work of putting corporative principles into effect.

The Prime Minister is the Chairman of the Corporative Council, the other permanent members of which include the Ministers of Justice, Public Works and Communications, Commerce and Industry, and Agriculture, the Under-Secretary of State for Corporations and Social Welfare, and two professors of the Universities of Lisbon and Coimbra who are past or present holders of the Chair of Corporative Law. Besides these permanent members, any other Minister may take part in meetings of the Corporative Council dealing with subjects affecting his Department and concerning the corporative organisation of the nation.

The functions of the Corporative Council are to study the policy to be followed for the solution of the wider problems of administrative reform resulting from corporative organisation, and to impose unity of action on the public services in putting the corporative organisation into effect.

The Corporative Council meets when convened by the Chairman, who draws up in advance the agenda of the session. Members of the Council may make proposals to the Chairman and such proposals are discussed by the Council.

Decisions of the Council not involving departure from or amendment of legislation in force constitute rules to be followed in the corporative organisation of the nation and must be carried out immediately by the Ministries and public services to which they apply, as also by the Department of Corporations and Social Welfare.

Lastly, the Decree of 27 November 1934 established a Chamber of Corporations, which is to be composed of representatives of the local authorities or social interests. It will include twenty-three sections and will be required to give an opinion on all Bills before their submission to the National Assembly.

The rules of the Chamber are only provisional and will be amended when all the various corporations, of which the Chamber will be the centre, are definitely constituted.

United States. — The results of the National Industrial Recovery Act of 16 June 1933 have already been discussed under various heads in the present volume and it will therefore be sufficient here to indicate the progress achieved in connection with trade union protection.

Attention was drawn in the *Year-Book* for 1933 [1] to the conflict which had arisen between employers and workers with regard to the interpretation of section 7(*a*) of the Act, which establishes the workers' right to organise and bargain collectively. To meet this situation, the Government issued an Executive Order which established two new official institutions for the administration of labour law, namely, the National Labour Relations Board, which replaces the former National Labour Board, and a system of regional and special labour relations boards.

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[1] Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1933*, pp. 296 et seq.

The National Labour Relations Board is empowered to investigate issues, facts, practices or activities of employers or employees in any controversy arising under section 7(*a*) of the Act, or which are burdening or obstructing or threatening to burden or obstruct the free flow of interstate commerce, and to order and conduct, when it appears in the public interest, an election by secret ballot of the workers' representatives with a view to collective negotiations with the employers. The Board may order the production of documents or the appearance of witnesses, prescribe such rules and regulations as it deems necessary and assure freedom from coercion in respect of all elections. Violation of these provisions is punishable by a fine of not more than $1,000, or imprisonment for not more than one year, or both.

Congress was careful, however, to stipulate that nothing in the terms of the Order should " impair in any manner the right of labour to strike or to act in concert ".

Two special boards, one for the docking industry and one for the steel trades, have been established to deal with disputes in these two industries.

A report published in December 1934 states that during its first four months of activity the National Labour Relations Board dealt with 200 disputes, while the regional boards handled 1,477 cases affecting 600,000 workers.

Without going into the details of this report, it may be noted that the National Labour Relations Board has established the principle that the association selected by the largest number of voters is to be considered as the sole representative of the workers and, as such, alone qualified to conclude collective agreements (see below, under " Conciliation and Arbitration ").

An Act of 21 June 1934, regulating the organisation of labour on the railways, tends further to safeguard the free exercise of trade union prerogatives. This Act makes it unlawful for a railway company " to interfere in any way with the organisation of its employees or to use company funds in maintaining or assisting or contributing to any labour organisation, labour representative, or any other agency of collective bargaining, or in performing any work therefor, or to influence or to coerce employees in an effort to induce them to join or remain members of or not to join or remain members of any labour organisation, or to deduct from the wages of employees any dues, fees, assessments or other contributions payable to labour organisations, or to collect or to assist in the collection of any such dues, fees, assessments or other contributions ".

Finally, an important award given by the Supreme Court in November 1934 recognises for the first time that the Act of 23 March 1932 [1] to prevent the abuse of injunctions in labour disputes is a constitutional enactment.

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[1] Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1932*, pp. 282-283.

In future, the courts will no longer be able to recognise "yellow-dog" contracts, to issue injunctions prohibiting various acts of defence, mutual aid or trade union pressure inseparable from collective labour disputes, to convict the workers' organisations of unlawful coalition or conspiracy, or to prosecute trade unions or their officers for unlawful acts committed by members or agents of the unions.

U.S.S.R. — The reforms introduced by the Order of 23 June 1933 which abolished the Commissariat of Labour and its local organisations and transferred their duties to the General Council of Trade Unions of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics [1] have led in practice to State control of the trade unions. At the present time, the trade unions, which in their capacity of public organisations are recognised as incorporated institutions under Soviet law, also perform the duties of a State department empowered to administer social insurance, supervise the conclusion and application of collective labour agreements, exercise supervision over industrial safety and hygiene, and direct factory inspection from a legal and technical standpoint. Further, the trade unions are called upon to act as the local organs of public supervision for the Soviet Supervisory Commission. Their main duties in this field are to ensure the application and execution of labour plans in industrial undertakings, with special reference to output and wages, the sanitary condition of workshops, workers' housing, dining rooms and canteens, and cultural institutions (workers' clubs, day nurseries, etc.).

As the result of a decision of the Secretary General and the Central Committee of the Communist Party, which was approved by the General Council of Trade Unions, the greater part of the trade union federations of the Soviet Union have been reorganised and divided up into a number of smaller unions. A similar operation was carried out in 1931, when the number of unions was raised from twenty-three to thirty-four, and afterwards to forty-seven, by the division of each of the principal unions then in existence into several new associations. It would appear from a statement made by the First Secretary of the General Council of Trade Unions to a plenary meeting of the Council in September 1934 that the decision to make a further subdivision of the existing unions was actuated by the desire of the Communist Party to render the unions more flexible and better adapted to their new duties. The Government considered that the trade unions should include all workers, so as to facilitate State influence over the workers and the application of its labour policy. In 1934, only 78 per cent. of the workers belonged to the trade unions, this figure including seasonal workers. It would seem that the unions have been unable to increase their membership mainly because of the complexity of their structure and the remoteness of their head-

[1] Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1933*, p. 298.

quarters from certain important industrial districts. In order to remedy this defect, more than half of the new trade union federations will have their headquarters in the principal district for the industry in which their members are employed. Other accusations levelled at the unions is that they have proved themselves unable to direct the movement for Socialist competition organised to increase output, that they have not been able to adapt conditions of work to the requirements of production, and that they have failed to direct and utilise the social insurance system to this end. It was in order to facilitate the fulfilment of these tasks by the trade unions, to adapt them to their new duties as organs of State supervision, to enable them to play a more important part in the general plans for the industrialisation of the country, and to put a stop to certain trade unionists' passive opposition to the new trade union policy of the Government, that it was decided to break up into smaller units most of the existing unions and to increase the number of unions from 47 to 163.

Profit-Sharing and Workers' Participation in Management

Profit-Sharing and Shareholding by the Workers

No fresh legislation governing profit-sharing and shareholding by the workers is to be noted for 1934.

The existing schemes, due to the initiative of those concerned, have even suffered a certain setback in most countries. This was the case, for instance, in *Great Britain*, the only country which publishes general reports showing the changes in this field from one year to another.

According to statistics published by the Ministry of Labour in June 1934 for the year 1933, the total number of undertakings with profit-sharing schemes was 454, as compared with 464 in 1932, while the approximate number of employees entitled to participate was 217,000 as against 220,000. The average amount paid per head rose, however, from £9 10s. 3d. to £10 17s. 8d., and the average addition to wages from 5.2 to 5.5 per cent.

Works Councils

As a result of the fundamental changes made in the organisation of labour in Austria, Danzig and Germany, which have been described above (see under "Right of Combination in Trade Unions") the works council system has been completely reorganised and adjusted to the new social structure.

Austria. — The Works Community Act of 12 July 1934 repeals the Works Councils Act of 15 May 1919[1] and makes provision for the appointment of confidential councillors elected by the staff in all undertakings employing five or more workers; in undertakings employing twenty or more workers these councillors, together with the employer, form the works community.

The Act covers industry, mining, commerce, transport, banking and the liberal professions.

The main duties of the works community, i.e. the council formed by staff representatives and the employer, are to supplement collective agreements on particular points where the agreement provides for this procedure, to fix piece-work rates and average or minimum wages if the rates are not prescribed by a collective agreement, and to draft works regulations and fix disciplinary fines.

The employer, or his substitute, acts as chairman of the works community and convenes it at the request of the councillors at least once a month. The works community may take no decision unless agreement has been reached between the employer and a majority of the confidential councillors. In the event of failure to agree, the conciliation board, on application by either party, will make an award.

The confidential councillors, i.e. the representatives of the workers alone, have their own special duties. They are required, for instance, to supervise the observance of collective agreements and legislation relating to workers' protection and social insurance, to supervise the payment of wages, to collaborate in maintaining discipline within the undertaking, to take part in factory inspection, and to establish relations with the trade union organisation, especially for the purpose of proposing the conclusion or amendment of collective agreements. In undertakings employing twenty or more workers, the councillors have the sole right to establish and direct welfare work. For this purpose they may impose a compulsory contribution on the workers, and set up out of such contributions a special incorporated fund. The management of the fund will be confined to the councillors.

The councillors may oppose the dismissal of a worker in consequence of his activities in the Confederation of Austrian Workers and Salaried Employees or in his capacity as a councillor or member of a works community, or because he has announced his candidature for election as a councillor.

The councillors may only be dismissed for a reason recognised by law, unless their dismissal has been authorised in advance by the conciliation board.

Danzig (Free City of). — The new regulations relating to confidential councils, introduced in Danzig under the Act of 8 May 1934, differ only in some points of detail from the German regulations.

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[1] Cf. *Legislative Series*, 1919, Aus. 9 and 10.

For instance, the right to be elected to a confidential council is not subordinated, as in Germany, to affiliation to a given occupational organisation, such as the Labour Front. Contrary, also, to the German Act, which authorises the establishment of a confidential council only in undertakings employing at least twenty workers, the Danzig Act allows establishments employing from five to twenty workers to appoint a councillor, who, together with the head of the undertaking, forms the confidential council.

Germany. — The Labour Regulation Act of 20 January 1934 abolished the works councils set up under the Act of 4 February 1920 [1] and replaced them by councillors, whose main duties [2] are described below.

Section 5 of the Act stipulates that, in undertakings normally employing not less than twenty persons, the head of the undertaking shall be assisted by councillors, chosen from among the staff, who will act in an advisory capacity and form, with the head of the undertaking and under his leadership, the confidential council of the undertaking.

It is the duty of the council to promote mutual trust within the works community, to discuss any measures for the improvement of work, the establishment and maintenance of general conditions of employment and in particular of rules of employment, the maintenance and improvement of safety conditions in the undertaking, the promotion among all members of the undertaking of a spirit of solidarity, both among themselves and with the undertaking, and the welfare of all members of the community. The council must also try to settle all disputes arising within the undertaking, and must be consulted prior to the infliction of any fines provided for in the rules of employment.

In order to be eligible to serve on the council, an employee must be not less than twenty-five years of age and must have had at least one year's service in the business or undertaking concerned and at least two years' service in the same or an allied occupation or industry. He must be in full possession of his civil rights, must be a member of the German Labour Front, and must offer evidence of exemplary human qualities and every assurance that in all circumstances he will unreservedly support the interests of the national State.

The head of the undertaking, in agreement with the chairman of the National-Socialist works cell, must draw up a list of the councillors and their substitutes in March of every year. The staff of the undertaking is required to elect the council from this list by secret ballot [3].

If the employer and the chairman of the works cell cannot agree on a choice of candidates and their substitutes, or if it is

[1] Cf. *Legislative Series*, 1920, Ger. 1 and 2.

[2] Cf. *Industrial and Labour Information*, Vol. XLIX, No. 8, pp. 245 et seq., and Vol. L, No. 3, pp. 67 et seq.

[3] For the rules governing the election of confidential councils, cf. *Industrial and Labour Information*, Vol. L, No. 3, pp. 67 et seq.

not possible to appoint a council for any other reason, and in particular if the staff fails to approve the list, the labour trustee may appoint the requisite number of councillors and substitutes.

On National Labour Day, the members of the confidential council take a solemn oath before the staff to perform the duties of their office exclusively for the benefit of the undertaking and of the nation as a whole, setting aside all private interests, and to set an example to the members of the undertaking by the life they lead and the way in which they perform their duties.

The council may be convened as required by the head of the undertaking, and must in any case be convened if a meeting is demanded by at least half of the members.

The labour trustee may cancel the appointment of any member of the council on account of his unsuitability in circumstances or in person. The term of office of a confidential councillor who is removed from office expires on the communication of the trustee's decision in writing to the council. The term of office of a councillor also expires as soon as the decision of a social honour court (see below, under " Conciliation and Arbitration ") respecting him becomes enforceable. The majority of the council may without delay lodge an appeal in writing with the labour trustee against any decision taken by the head of the undertaking in respect of general conditions of employment, and in particular of the rules of employment, which does not appear to be justified by the social or economic conditions of the undertaking; but enforcement of the decisions contested is not stayed by the lodging of such an appeal [1].

Collective Agreements

Previous issues of the *Year-Book* have drawn attention to the fact that, far from inducing a return to individual contracts of service, the effect of the economic depression has been to strengthen the movement towards the collective regulation of industrial relations. This tendency was even more marked during the course of 1934.

In the sections of this chapter dealing with the right of combination in trade unions and conciliation and arbitration, a description is given of the new methods of social organisation and procedure that are being tried in order to prepare the way for, and facilitate the establishment of, general rules governing conditions of employment. The present section will therefore discuss only the steps taken to stabilise existing collective agreements, the legislation regulating collective agreements or consolidating their practical effects, and the new methods of securing the general determination of conditions of employment.

[1] For information on the rights of the works community in connection with dismissal, see below, under "The Individual Contract of Service".

Austria. — Following the dissolution of the free trade unions (see above, under " Right of Combination in Trade Unions "), an Order issued on 16 February 1934 provided that collective agreements concluded by dissolved associations, or associations which would be dissolved after 12 February 1934 by decision of the authorities, were to continue to remain in force, unless they had already been denounced at the time the Order came into effect but had not expired, in which case they were to cease to have effect on expiry of the period of notice given, but not later than 31 March 1934.

Under the Order of 2 March 1934, which established the Confederation of Austrian Workers and Salaried Employees, this organisation took the place of the dissolved unions as contracting party to all existing agreements falling within its competence from 1 May 1934, the date when the Order came into force. On this date the rights and obligations of the former parties ceased.

The same Order also made important changes in the system of collective bargaining. For instance, under section 8 the Confederation and its affiliated organisations have the sole right, within their competence, to conclude collective agreements and initiate conciliation procedure. Collective agreements so concluded apply to all workers and salaried employees within the territorial or occupational scope of the agreements, whether they are members of the Confederation or not.

Finally, the Decree of 3 December 1934, establishing the rules of the Confederation, deals also with collective agreements. Unlike the Order of 2 March 1934, it entrusts the right to conclude collective agreements, not primarily to the Confederation, but to the national trade unions, for the occupations within their competence and subject to the approval of the relevant national federation.

But since only the Confederation is incorporated, it alone, and not the national trade union which actually concluded the agreement, can be the formal signatory on the workers' side.

Further, the Confederation reserves the right to conclude collective agreements itself, and it may also refuse its consent. It is for this reason that a collective agreement concluded by a national trade union, in order to be valid, must be signed by the head of the union and by the head of the relevant federation. Collective agreements which do not fulfil these formalities may neither be registered nor published by the conciliation boards.

Lastly, the Confederation remains competent to conclude collective agreements itself, and will do so, particularly if the proposed agreements cover members of more than one national union.

Whereas under section 8 of the Order of 2 March 1934 collective agreements concluded by the Confederation are binding on all workers within their scope, whether members of the Confederation or not, the Decree of 3 December 1934 allows the national trade unions, with the consent of the head of the relevant federation, to propose the extension of the agreements to third parties, in

accordance with the Act of 1919 concerning the establishment of conciliation boards and collective agreements.

Brazil. — Section 121 of the new Federal Constitution proclaims the recognition of collective agreements.

Canada. — In the Province of Quebec, an Act dated 20 April 1934 provides for the extension of collective agreements to third parties. According to this Act, any association of employers or workers which is party to a collective labour agreement may request the Lieutenant-Governor in Council to issue an Order declaring this agreement binding. If the Minister of Labour deems that the provisions of the collective agreement have acquired a preponderant importance for the determination of conditions of labour in a trade or industry in the region for which it was concluded, he may recommend the approval of the petition to the Lieutenant-Governor in Council, who must then issue an Order declaring the agreement binding. This makes the clauses of the agreement fixing rates of wages and hours of work binding on all employers and workers of the same trade or industry who exercise their activity in the region covered by the agreement.

The provisions of a collective agreement made binding in this way govern, in the region fixed, all individual labour contracts in connection with the trade or industry covered by the agreement. However, when they are to the advantage of the employed, the provisions of an individual labour contract remain in force unless they are expressly prohibited by the agreement.

Every collective agreement liable to be made binding must take into account the situation prevailing in the various economic zones of the Province.

The parties to a collective agreement made obligatory must set up a joint committee to supervise its execution. This committee is entitled, through its delegates, to verify rates of wages and hours of work in establishments covered by the agreement; it may likewise exercise, for the benefit of skilled workers covered by the agreement, all rights of action arising out of the agreement, without having to prove an assignment of claim from the persons concerned.

The joint committee may set up a board of examiners to determine the qualifications of workers and apprentices covered by the collective agreement declared binding. If such a board is established, only the workers and apprentices to whom it awards a certificate of competency will be entitled to exercise the civil claims which may appertain to them under the agreement. Unskilled workers are not required to secure a certificate of competency. Workers belonging to a trade union are exempted from the examination referred to if the union itself requires its members to undergo such an examination.

The Lieutenant-Governor in Council may refuse to apply the provisions of the Act to any industry liable, in his opinion, to suffer through their enforcement serious injury from the competition of foreign countries or other Provinces.

Czechoslovakia. — The Legislative Decree of 15 June 1934 stipulates that existing collective agreements may not be terminated before 30 April 1935. In the case of collective agreements which expired or were terminated between 1 January and 27 June 1934 (the date when the Decree came into force), the wage rates effective on 27 June 1934 are to remain in force until 30 April 1935, unless new agreements are concluded.

Danzig (Free City of). — An Act similar to the German law was promulgated on 8 May 1934 and amended on 4 June 1934. It differs in certain details from the German law. For example, it applies to undertakings normally employing at least five to nine workers.

Existing collective agreements have been prolonged by a number of Orders, the most recent being that of 25 September 1934. The Labour Trustee retains the right to amend or terminate the extended collective agreements.

Denmark. — In the *Year-Book* for 1933[1], attention was drawn to the Act of 31 January 1933 which prolonged collective agreements for a further year. This period expired on 31 January 1934, and was extended; but in consequence of conciliation proceedings, collective agreements were prolonged for yet another year.

France. — In 1934 the National Economic Council undertook a comprehensive enquiry into collective agreements. In the conclusions which it adopted at a session held on 30 November 1934, the Council pointed out that the spread of collective agreements depended on the fulfilment of a number of conditions; such as the extension of occupational organisations, and the establishment of a sense of collective ethics—including, notably, the full realisation of the duties and responsibilities entailed by every freely concluded contract. It recommended that the various economic groups should forthwith make a vigorous effort to establish close relations, co-ordinate their work and draft agreements in every branch of production in which there was any chance of success. Finally, the Council declared its readiness to discuss at a later date the results obtained, so as to judge whether the experiment should be continued and developed, or whether there was need for correction, restatement or legislative action.

Germany. — As the section of the present chapter dealing with the right of combination in trade unions discusses the general principles of the Act of 20 January 1934 concerning the regulation of national labour, no more than a brief analysis of the provisions on the collective regulation of conditions of employment need be given here.

According to the Act, conditions of employment are determined on the basis of the undertaking in the first place, and only in the second place of the occupation or industry. In each undertaking, the employer, as its leader, and the salaried and wage-earning

[1] Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1933*, p. 306.

employees, as his followers, must work together to promote the objects of the undertaking and the common welfare of people and State. The head of the undertaking has to make all decisions affecting it. In this he is assisted by confidential councillors designated by the staff, who form with him and under his leadership the confidential council of the undertaking.

When an undertaking is unable to fix its conditions of employment the State steps in, taking the necessary action through a special institution, the labour trustees. These trustees, of whom there are thirteen for the whole country, are appointed by the Federal Minister of Labour in agreement with the Federal Ministers of the Interior and of Economic Affairs. They work under the supervision of the Minister of Labour and are required to observe the principles and instructions laid down for them by the Federal Government.

Their main duty is to ensure the maintenance of industrial peace, and in particular they are responsible for the application of the Act of 20 January 1934. Other duties may be assigned to them, and special trustees may also be, and have been, entrusted with specified duties.

The fixing of conditions of employment on the basis of the undertaking is carried out as follows: In each undertaking normally employing at least twenty persons, establishment rules must be drawn up by the head of the undertaking, who is required to consult the confidential councillors on the matter. In case of disagreement between the employer and the council, the latter may by a majority decision appeal to the labour trustee.

In addition to the provisions prescribed by law, the establishment rules may also contain provisions respecting rates of remuneration and other conditions of employment. When this is the case, minimum wages must be established which allow scope for the remuneration of individual workers according to the quality of their services. Provision must also be made for the possibility of appropriately rewarding special services.

Establishment rules are legally binding for the employer and for members of his staff as minimum conditions to which no exception to the detriment of the worker may be made in individual contracts of employment.

The labour trustee is responsible for supervising the application of establishment rules.

Direct intervention by the labour trustee in the regulation of conditions of employment may take two forms: In the first place he may lay down guiding principles for establishment rules and individual contracts of employment, but these principles have no binding force. Secondly, he may issue collective rules *(Tariford-nung)* when it is necessary to fix minimum conditions of employment for the protection of workers in a given group of undertakings. Such collective rules are binding for all persons coming within their occupational or territorial scope, and no exception may be made to them either in establishment rules or in individual contracts of employment. Collective rules have thus the same effect as a collec-

tive agreement, with the difference that they do not constitute an agreement between two parties, but a Government ruling.

Before issuing guiding principles or collective rules, the labour trustee is required to consult a committee of experts appointed by him for the purpose.

As the Act of 20 January 1934 repealed the Collective Agreements Order of 1918, all agreements concluded under the latter would have come to an end—a contingency of the utmost importance, considering the wide extension of collective agreements—if the new Act had not empowered the Minister of Labour to prolong existing collective agreements in the form of collective rules. In virtue of these powers, the Minister of Labour decreed, at first for a specified period and subsequently without any time limit, that collective agreements in force on 30 April 1934 should remain operative in the form of collective rules, subject, naturally, to their revision or suspension by the labour trustees. An exception was made for agreements applicable to a single undertaking, which were prolonged only until 30 September 1934, by which date they had to be replaced by establishment rules drawn up under the new Act.

Simultaneously with the Act of 20 January 1934, an Act was promulgated to regulate the organisation of labour in public departments and undertakings. Based on the same principles as the general Act, it regulates conditions of labour of wage-earners employed in such departments and undertakings who are not ranked as officials.

The period of validity of collective agreements applicable to public departments and undertakings was limited at first to 31 March 1935 and was subsequently extended to a date to be fixed by the Minister of Labour.

Great Britain. — It will be recalled that in this country collective agreements are not legally binding, but that in practice agreements concluded between employers' and workers' organisations are as a rule faithfully observed by both parties. During the recent economic depression, however, it has happened in the cotton industry, which has been particularly affected by the depression, that employers have engaged workers on conditions differing from those laid down by collective agreement.

Asked to intervene, the Minister of Labour prepared a Bill which in April 1934 was unanimously approved by a delegation of workers' and employers' representatives. Adopted by Parliament in a slightly amended form, the Bill received the Royal Assent on 28 June 1934. Its main provisions are summarised below.

As regards scope, the Act applies to the cotton manufacturing industry in the industrial area of Lancashire. It remains in force until 31 December 1937.

The aim of the Act is to give force of law to wage rates agreed upon by the employers' and workers' organisations representing the majority of the employers and workers covered by the Act. It therefore provides that when such organisations have concluded a collective wage agreement, they may make a joint application to

the Minister of Labour for the issue of an Order giving statutory effect to the rates of wages agreed. This application must be made public, and objections to it may be sent to the Minister in writing within a given period. On receiving such an application, the Minister appoints a board of three persons not connected with the cotton industry, but assisted by twelve assessors appointed in equal numbers by the employers' and workers' organisations concerned. After verifying that the organisations in fact represent the majority of the persons concerned, the board considers whether it is expedient to make the wage rates laid down in the agreement binding. If the three members of the board are unanimous on this point, they make a recommendation to the Minister that an Order be made to that effect. The Orders so issued by the Minister must set out the rates of wages declared binding, and any provisions of the agreement as to the conditions of earning or the method of calculating such wages. Where necessary, the Order may also contain further provisions to make plain who are the employers and classes of employed persons affected, but it may not change the terms of the collective agreement.

The result of the promulgation of an Order is that the provisions of the collective agreement become incorporated in all contracts of employment concluded in the cotton industry. Employers must keep a record showing that the wages paid are in conformity with the agreement; they are liable to a fine if they pay lower wages. Finally, the Order may be rescinded at the request of either party to the agreement.

Poland. — The Code of Obligations of 27 October 1933, which came into force on 1 July 1934, contains regulations concerning collective agreements in the general section of the chapter dealing with contracts of employment.

According to section 445, a collective agreement is an agreement concluded between an employer or a recognised association of employers and a recognised association of workers. In the absence of legal provisions to the contrary, it is binding only on the parties who have concluded the agreement and the members of the contracting associations. A collective agreement must be concluded in writing and may be denounced with one month's notice in cases where the period of validity and the length of such notice are not laid down in the agreement itself.

Any individual contract of employment less favourable to the workers than the provisions of the collective agreement is null and void, and its place is taken by the corresponding clauses of the agreement.

Saar Territory. — On 2 November 1934 the Governing Commission of the Saar Territory promulgated an Ordinance relating to collective agreements.

Under this measure, individual employers and, if their rules permit, associations of employers and employed persons, may be parties to collective agreements. Handicraftmen's organisations,

whether membership is voluntary or compulsory, are regarded as employers' organisations for the purposes of the Ordinance.

Associations of employed persons which accept as members employers in the same occupation as the members, or are not spontaneously formed for self-defence and independent of employers, employers' associations, political parties and allied or subsidiary organisations, may not be parties to collective agreements.

Collective agreements, which must be drawn up in writing, come into operation on the day following their registration with a Collective Agreements Board, composed of a chairman and two assessors, one representing the employers and the other the workers.

Failing stipulations to the contrary, the following are bound by a collective agreement: the parties, employers and employed persons who belong to one of the contracting associations or belonged to it on the date of conclusion of the agreement or within a specified period after that date, employers and employed persons who voluntarily adhere to the agreement, and any person who subsequently takes over an undertaking from an employer bound by the agreement.

Employers and employed persons who resign from the contracting associations after the conclusion of the agreement, persons bound by previous agreements, and persons who take over undertakings as provided above, cease to be bound by an agreement if it is amended or if they give notice of withdrawal from it. Such notice must be given in writing to the Collective Agreements Board and withdrawal takes effect a month later.

A collective agreement may be concluded for a limited or unlimited period. Any party may give notice, at the end of a calendar month, of termination of an agreement concluded for an unlimited period; the notice takes effect three months later unless otherwise stipulated. Any contracting party may apply for the annulment or amendment of the agreement if its observance can no longer equitably be required in view of fundamental and unpredictable changes in the conditions obtaining when it was concluded. The question whether such application is justified is decided by an arbitration board if there is a stipulation to that effect in the agreement; if not, the Collective Agreements Board decides.

A distinction is made between the effect of the agreement on individual employers and workers, on the contracting parties, and on other persons.

The provisions of the collective agreement determine those of individual contracts. An exception is permitted only if the agreement provides for it, or if it results in an improvement in conditions from the workers' point of view and is not expressly prohibited by the agreement. The contracting parties are required to abstain from all action directed against the collective agreement or any of its stipulations; and associations must take care that their members in no way contravene these stipulations.

A collective agreement takes precedence over every other form of regulation, including establishment rules, but excluding Acts and Ordinances and the regulations issued by the industrial accident insurance institutions with the object of preventing accidents.

At the request of one of the parties, a collective agreement which already applies to the majority of persons in the Territory who are engaged in the occupation concerned may be declared generally binding, in whole or in part, by decision of the Collective Agreements Board. According to administrative regulations issued on 7 December 1934, a collective agreement is deemed to apply to the majority of the persons concerned when it covers 75 per cent. of all workers employed in the occupation for which it was concluded.

The Board may not make such a decision, however, unless the parties have agreed as to such extension of the agreement and after opportunity has been given for the other persons concerned to express their views. Once such a decision has been made, the Board extends the provisions of the collective agreement to all employers and employed persons in the Territory who belong to the occupation to which the agreement applies.

The Ordinance came into force on 1 December 1934.

Spain. — As a result of revolutionary agitation in the autumn of 1934, the working of the joint labour committees was provisionally suspended and existing collective agreements were prolonged by an Ordinance issued on 17 December 1934.

U.S.S.R. — A general enquiry into the application of existing collective agreements was undertaken in 1934 by the General Council of Trade Unions of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics. The object of this enquiry was to secure (*a*) full utilisation of the sums allotted to promote industrial hygiene and safety and the building and equipment of workers' houses, dining rooms, etc.; (*b*) effective application of the safety and hygiene measures prescribed in agreements; (*c*) regularity in the payment of wages; and (*d*) better labour discipline, including full utilisation of the working day.

A resolution of the General Council of Trade Unions concerning the renewal of collective agreements stated that the use of standard contracts of a general character no longer corresponded to the requirements of production. In future, each undertaking or group of undertakings must prepare collective agreements which, while conforming to the plans and guiding principles laid down by the Government, should contain concrete and precise provisions based on the requirements of the undertaking or undertakings concerned and the real needs of the workers as a whole. The collective agreements must above all contain detailed provisions relating to remuneration, since " wages were the best instruments for increasing the output of labour and making full use of the possibilities of modern technical progress, while at the same time improving the material conditions of the worker".

The campaign against equalisation of wages must be pursued energetically in accordance with Government instructions, so that work might be paid for according to the quantity and quality of the worker's output and the value of his work to the State.

The opinion of the management of heavy industry on collective agreements is expressed in the official organ [1] of the industry, which declared that collective agreements ought to be flexible, concrete and realistic, and to reflect the special conditions of each undertaking. The so-called average wage and all levelling of wages were inadmissible, and collective agreements should take account of the desires of the Government on this point. They should also enable the head of the undertaking to use wages as a means of developing all the resources of the undertaking, improving the quality of production, etc.

Conciliation and Arbitration

A certain amount of progress is to be recorded for 1934 in the measures taken by various countries to improve the existing procedure or to set up new machinery for settling industrial disputes and fixing conditions of employment by means of conciliation and arbitration.

Australia. — The Commonwealth Conciliation and Arbitration Act, 1904-1928, as amended by the Act of 18 August 1930, was further amended on two points of detail by the Act of 13 December 1934.

The first amendment provides that the penalties laid down in section 44 of the principal Act for breach or non-observance of arbitration awards, may now be imposed only by a magistrate, or by an industrial magistrate.

Under the second amendment, which alters section 50(*a*) of the principal Act, the inspectors responsible for securing the observance of the Act are no longer appointed under the Commonwealth Public Service Act, 1922-1924, but are to be chosen from among persons not in public service who are specially experienced in social and industrial matters, in accordance with regulations to be issued by the competent Minister in pursuance of the Act.

An important Act, passed in October 1934 by the Parliament of the State of Victoria for the amendment of the Factories and Shops Act, provides that awards of the Commonwealth Court of Conciliation and Arbitration must, wherever practicable, be adopted by the States wages boards.

This provision, the effect of which is to make awards of the Commonwealth Court a common rule throughout Victoria in industries to which they relate, is designed to eliminate the diffi-

[1] *Za Industrializaciu*, 23 Nov. 1934.

culties hitherto caused by the co-existence of Federal and State systems of industrial regulation applying to the same industries.

In order to understand the object of this change, it must be remembered that awards of the Commonwealth Court cover only workers and firms or employers who are cited before it and made parties to the award. On the other hand, they do not apply to firms or employers who are not cited or to non-unionists. Consequently, an award of the Court is not in itself a common rule for the industry concerned.

Moreover, the system of regulation in Victoria functions through wages boards, composed of representatives of employers and workers and an independent chairman. It was previously open to a wages board to adopt, by unanimous decision, the conditions laid down by an award of the Commonwealth Court. In many cases, however, the boards were unable to reach the necessary unanimity, and it therefore sometimes happened that different conditions applied to workers in the same industry according as they were covered by an award of the Commonwealth Arbitration Court or by a decision of a State wages board.

Under the new provisions, unanimity is no longer required for the adoption of a Federal award by a wages board. A simple majority now suffices to render obligatory the incorporation of Federal awards in the decisions of wages boards. At the end of 1934 there were in Victoria 183 such boards, covering about 200,000 workers, who are naturally affected by this change.

It is an interesting fact that the last Australian Trade Union Congress was called upon to discuss a resolution which demanded the abolition of compulsory arbitration and called on all trade unions to withdraw from the Arbitration Courts and to adopt a policy of direct negotiations with the employers for industrial agreements. Opposed by the Secretary of the All-Australian Council of Trade Unions, this resolution was finally rejected by 72 votes to 48.

Denmark. — An Emergency Act passed on 20 April 1934 set up a compulsory Arbitration Board to settle a dispute which had broken out in an important branch of industry and which had led to a strike notwithstanding the efforts of the State Conciliator. The Board consisted of three members none of whom was to belong to an employers' or workers' organisation. Its award, which was to be final and given within a certain time, was issued within the specified time limit and accepted by the workers.

Germany. — The National Labour Regulation Act of 20 January 1934 repealed the various Orders governing conciliation and arbitration and set up a new institution in their place.

Strikes, lock-outs and all measures for collective coercion are forbidden and conditions of employment are regulated either by the head of an undertaking for the undertaking itself or by the labour trustees for an industry as a whole (see above, under " Collective Agreements ").

Disputes on points of law arising out of individual contracts of employment or the interpretation or execution of collective agreements still in force, or of collective rules promulgated by the labour trustees, remain within the jurisdiction of the labour courts (see below, under " Administration of Labour Law ").

But, apart from collective disputes and disputes on points of law, the Act lays down regulations for the settlement of cases arising out of gross breaches of the social duties incumbent on members of a works community. Such offences are dealt with by the new social honour courts. Although these are criminal or disciplinary courts rather than conciliation and arbitration institutions, their work must be briefly analysed here because they replace to some extent the former conciliation and arbitration boards.

Section 36 of the Act of 20 January 1934 states that offences against social honour are deemed to have been committed by the following persons:

(1) industrialists, heads of undertakings or other persons in supervisory positions who maliciously abuse their authority in the undertaking to exploit the labour of the employees or offend against their honour;

(2) employees who endanger industrial peace in the undertaking by maliciously fostering discontent among their fellows, and in particular those who as members of the confidential council deliberately interfere unduly in the management, or continually and maliciously try to undermine the corporate spirit of the works community;

(3) members of the works community who repeatedly address frivolous and baseless complaints and appeals to the labour trustee or who persistently contravene his written instructions;

(4) members of the confidential council guilty of the unauthorised publication of confidential information concerning industrial or business secrets obtained in performance of their duties and of the confidential nature of which they were informed.

The penalties which, under section 38, may be inflicted by the honour courts are, in order of gravity:

(1) warning; (2) reprimand; (3) disciplinary fine up to 10,000 RM.; (4) disqualification to act as leader of an undertaking or member of a confidential council; (5) removal of the offender from his post; in this connection, the honour court may prescribe a term of notice different from that fixed by law or by agreement.

A social honour court is set up in each labour trustee's district and will, on application by the trustee, deal with cases arising out of offences against social honour.

Each court consists of a chairman, who must be a public magistrate, appointed by the Federal Minister of Justice in agreement with the Federal Minister of Labour, and one leader of an undertaking and one confidential councillor, acting as assessors. The leader of an undertaking and the confidential councillor are selected by the chairman of the court from a list of candidates drawn up by the German Labour Front; they are chosen in the order in which they stand on the list, but preference is given to persons belonging to the same branch of industry as the defendant.

Notification of offences against social honour by members of an undertaking must be lodged in writing, together with a statement of the evidence, with the labour trustee in whose district the headquarters of the undertaking are situated. As soon as a labour trustee becomes aware through a notification or otherwise of any gross offence against social honour, he must investigate the matter, and in particular, hear the defendant and decide whether to appeal to the honour court. He must append to his application for the institution of honour court proceedings a statement of the results of the investigations made by him.

The honour court decides at its discretion in pursuance of the results of a public trial. It may examine witnesses and experts on oath either by request or *ex officio*, and may give instructions for the procuring of further evidence. The public may be excluded from the trial by the chairman of the court. The labour trustee is entitled to attend the trial and to make recommendations. The defendant may be represented at the trial by counsel holding a power of attorney in writing.

An appeal against the decision of the court may be lodged with the Federal Honour Court by the labour trustee in any case, but by the defendant only if he is sentenced to a disciplinary fine exceeding 100 RM. or to one of the penalties mentioned in section 38, No. 3 (4) and (5).

The Federal Honour Court has its headquarters in Berlin. For the purpose of making decisions it consists of two higher officials of the magistrature appointed by the Federal Minister of Justice in agreement with the Federal Minister of Labour, one to act as chairman and the other as assessor, together with one leader of an undertaking, one confidential councillor, and one person nominated by the Federal Government, to act as assessors.

The Federal Honour Court considers the grounds and substance of the decision of the honour court; it is not bound by the findings of that court and may alter the contested decision at its discretion.

Decisions imposing disciplinary fines are carried out by the labour trustee on the authority of a certified copy of the terms of the decision supplied by the clerk of the court issuing the decision and furnished with the attestation of enforceability in accordance with the provisions regulating the enforcement of sentences in civil cases. If the offender is disqualified to act as leader of an undertaking or as member of a confidential council, or is sentenced to removal from his post, the labour trustee supervises the carrying out of the sentence.

From a report published by the Minister of Labour on the working of social honour courts during the second half of 1934 it appears that between May 1934, the date of their establishment, and 15 December 1934 the courts dealt with sixty-one offences against social honour. The great majority of the proceedings (fifty-six out of sixty-one) were against employers, only five relating to workers. Twenty-two complaints were based on paragraph 1 of section 36 of the Act of 20 January 1934 and stated that

" the employers had maliciously abused their authority in the undertaking to offend against the honour of their employees " (abusive language, ill-treatment), while fifteen prosecutions arose from the allegation that the employers had " maliciously exploited the labour of their employees " (payment of wages lower than the statutory rates, undue prolongation of hours of work, defective housing conditions, bad food, etc.). In eight cases both these offences had been committed simultaneously, and in sixteen cases the employers were prosecuted for " having persistently contravened the instructions of the labour trustee " (failure to promulgate establishment rules).

Only one case was due to the charge that the workers had " endangered industrial peace in the undertaking by maliciously fostering discontent among their fellows ", and one complaint was lodged against a confidential councillor for having " continually and maliciously undermined the corporate spirit of the works community".

Thirteen decisions had been given by the end of 1934. In three cases the penalty of disqualification to act as leader of an undertaking was inflicted, in two cases for an unlimited term and in one for a period of six months. In the other cases the offenders were fined sums varying from 30 to 1,000 RM., or were given a warning or a reprimand.

All these decisions are subject to appeal to the Federal Honour Court, which was set up in January 1935.

Great Britain. — Early in 1934 an agreement was reached between the parties concerned with regard to the composition and functions of the Joint Conciliation Board set up for the road motor transport industry under the Road and Rail Traffic Act of 1933. The Board now consists of fifteen representatives of the employers and fifteen representatives of the workers, appointed by their respective organisations. Its duties are to fix wages and hours of work and conditions of labour, or to set up standard conditions under which such wages or working conditions may be established, nationally or otherwise, for those employed in the transport of goods by road. It may also make recommendations for the promotion of safety on the road, the health of the persons employed, and the efficiency of the industry.

India. — The Trade Disputes Act of 1929, which was originally limited to a period of five years, was prolonged indefinitely. This Act contains, among others, provisions for the appointment of temporary courts of enquiry and boards of conciliation as a means of adjusting collective labour disputes. The Royal Commission on Labour had recently recommended certain amendments to the Act with a view to the appointment of permanent courts of enquiry and conciliation boards. This proposed amendment was submitted to the provincial and other authorities concerned, but as the replies received from them showed a certain amount of divergency, it was found necessary to postpone for the time being any amendment to the Act.

In Bombay, an Act issued on 8 October 1934 set up a system of conciliation of disputes between mill-hands and their employers. The Act provides for the appointment of a Government Labour Officer, whose task will be to promote closer contact between employers and their workers, besides looking after the interests of labour, and for the appointment of a Commissioner of Labour to act *ex officio* as Chief Conciliator assisted by other special conciliators. It covers the City of Bombay and the Bombay suburban district and applies only to the textile trade or industry, but its scope may be extended by notification to any other area and to such other trade or industry as the Government may deem necessary. The Labour Officer is entitled to inspect and call for documents relevant to the grievances of workmen which may be in the possession of any employer or workman, and to make a report to the Conciliator about a trade dispute which exists or is apprehended. He may also represent workmen who are parties to a dispute before a conciliator. Detailed rules of procedure are laid down for the conduct of conciliation proceedings. A conciliator is invested with the same powers as are given to courts of law under the Code of Civil Procedure with regard to the attendance and examination of witnesses and the production of documents. He may inflict penalties on an employer who fails to appear or to be represented at the proceedings, or on anyone who interferes with the settlement of a dispute. No conciliation proceedings can take place under the Act in respect of any dispute which is dealt with under the Trade Disputes Act of 1929.

Italy. — The system for the conciliation of collective labour disputes was changed by the Corporations Act of 5 February 1934 (see above, under " Right of Combination in Trade Unions "). It will be remembered that under section 17 of the Act of 3 April 1926 concerning the legal regulation of collective labour relations, together with sections 44-45 of the Decree of 1 July 1926 issued under that Act and Declaration X of the Labour Charter, collective disputes may be brought before the labour courts only if the central co-ordinating bodies (i.e. the corporations) have attempted to secure an amicable settlement of the dispute and this attempt has failed.

Pending the establishment of the corporations, the Ministry of Corporations had undertaken the function of conciliating disputes, at first *de facto* and later in virtue of section 13 of the Act of 20 March 1930 concerning the National Council of Corporations.

On the constitution of the corporations by the Act of 5 February 1934, these duties were definitely transferred to the new organisations. Section 13 of the Act states that " a corporation shall make attempts at the adjustment of collective labour disputes through a conciliation board composed of members of the corporation itself, to be chosen by the president for each particular case, having regard to the nature and object of each dispute". Thus it is not the corporation as such which undertakes conciliation, but these duties are carried out by conciliation boards set up *ad hoc* for each

case. It was held necessary to proceed case by case because the corporations are constituted according to cycles of production, so that each includes a number of different occupations and industries.

Decrees issued on 29 May and 9 and 23 June 1934 in virtue of the above-mentioned section 13 of the Act of 5 February 1934 lay down the rules governing the composition and working of the conciliation boards.

Each conciliation board consists of three members appointed by the chairman of the corporation, one of whom represents the workers, another the employers, while the third, the chairman of the board, must be chosen from members of the Council of Corporations who are not affected by the dispute, and acts, as a rule, as the representative of the Fascist Party.

Conciliation proceedings are opened by one of the trade associations concerned in the dispute. In referring the case to the board, the petitioning party must supply the secretariat of the Council of Corporations with a copy of the minutes recording the failure of the negotiations for an amicable settlement, together with all documents and reports required by the board to enable it to take a reasoned decision. The Minister of Corporations is also required to provide the board with statistical and other information likely to facilitate the discussion and equitable settlement of the matter.

If conciliation succeeds, the arrangement arrived at is deemed to have the force of a collective agreement. If no agreement is reached, the parties are entitled to refer the dispute to the labour courts.

Norway. — The Act of 21 June 1934 to amend the Labour Disputes Act gives the State Conciliator the right to intervene in any threatened dispute and to open conciliation proceedings before notice of a stoppage of work is given. The object of this amendment is to enable the Conciliator to bring the parties together before their attitude to each other has become embittered by notice of a strike or lock-out. The new Act also establishes a permanent office for the Conciliator, who is required to keep in touch with conditions of employment in the field assigned to him. Other provisions of the Act contain rules relating to the method of voting on conciliation proposals.

Poland. — An Order was issued on 24 January 1934 in virtue of the Presidential Decree of 27 October 1933, which laid down guiding principles for the establishment of special arbitration boards to deal with collective disputes.

The Order contains detailed provisions on the constitution and composition of the boards and the procedure to be followed in the settlement of disputes between employers and workers in commerce and industry. It stipulates that proposals for the appointment of an arbitration board to deal with a particular dispute are to be made by the Minister of Social Welfare either on his own initiative or on application by persons or organisations concerned.

Arbitration boards include a chairman appointed by the Minister of Social Welfare, two members appointed respectively by the

Minister of Justice and the Minister with jurisdiction for the branch of commerce or industry affected, and not more than four permanent assessors appointed by the chairman of the board in equal numbers from candidates proposed by the Chambers of Commerce and Industry and by the most representative workers' organisations. Temporary assessors are similarly appointed by the chairman in equal numbers from candidates nominated by the parties to the dispute.

The award of an arbitration board becomes binding when accepted by the parties or confirmed by the Minister of Social Welfare, who may even declare it binding on all other persons in a specified trade or district. On the other hand, he may, in agreement with the Minister of Industry and Commerce, suspend its effect if economic conditions have been substantially modified since the date the award was issued.

A similar Order of 25 April 1934 provided for the establishment in the port of Gdynia of an arbitration board for dockers. This board is composed of a chairman appointed by the Minister of Social Welfare, one member appointed by the Director of the Gdynia Shipping Office, one member appointed by the Government Commissioner at Gdynia, and equal numbers of workers' and employers' representatives as assessors, selected by the chairman from persons proposed by the respective organisations. The powers of this board are also based on the Presidential Decree of 27 October 1933.

Sweden. — Towards the end of 1934, the Government published the text of a Bill to be introduced in the Riksdag early in 1935. The aim of this Bill is to prohibit " economic forms of militant action " such as boycotts, strikes and lock-outs, the denunciation of contracts of employment and leases, and other suspensions of economic relations resulting from the joint action of two or more persons, when it is directed against a neutral third party or, in certain specified cases, against the other party to a dispute. The Bill proposes to set up a special court for cases of this nature, on which the main economic and industrial interests affected by the new legislation would be represented.

United States. — The machinery for regulating disputes has been fundamentally altered as a result of the application of the National Industrial Recovery Act. A description is given below of the various official institutions now entrusted with the settlement of disputes and of the kinds of disputes with which they are called upon to deal.

In the first place, collective disputes which do not arise from the interpretation or application of the codes of fair competition are dealt with, as formerly, by the conciliation and arbitration services of the Federal Department of Labour or by those of the individual States [1].

[1] Cf. INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE: *Conciliation and Arbitration in Industrial Disputes.* Studies and Reports, Series A, No. 34, pp. 508 et seq.

In the second place, disputes connected with the interpretation or application of section 7(*a*) of the above Act fall within the competence of the National Labour Relations Board, which was established by the Executive Order of 30 June 1934 in the place of the former National Labour Board (see above, under " Right of Combination in Trade Unions ").

Now, while the National Labour Board was the outcome of the initiative of the parties directly concerned and was constituted on a joint basis, the National Labour Relations Board is an official body set up to administer labour law and composed of three impartial persons having no direct connection with the workers' and employers' organisations.

The competence of the National Labour Relations Board and that of the regional and special boards established under its auspices extended at the outset to all disputes " threatening the industrial peace of the country ". But, as in this connection its functions overlapped those of the conciliation services of the Department of Labour, it was decided at a conference held in November 1934 between representatives of the two parties concerned that in future only disputes about the violation of section 7(*a*) of the Act should be dealt with by the National Labour Relations Board and that all other disputes not arising from any such violation should be left to the conciliation services of the Department of Labour.

The National Labour Relations Board is not empowered to inflict the penalties provided for under the Executive Order, which states that infringements of the provisions therein laid down are punishable by a fine not exceeding $1,000 or a term of imprisonment not exceeding one year, or both. But if one of the parties fails to comply with its recommendations, the Board may bring the matter to the notice of the National Compliance Division of the National Recovery Administration, which withdraws the " Blue Eagle " badge from the undertaking or organisation guilty of violation of section 7(*a*).

Further, when the parties persistently fail to comply, the National Recovery Administration may bring the matter to the notice of the Attorney-General with a view to proceedings through the usual legal channels.

Both parties may, of course, appeal to the courts for a final settlement of the dispute.

In the third place, disputes concerned with violations of the provisions of the industrial codes affecting working conditions (infringements of clauses dealing with maximum hours of work, minimum wages or other clauses ensuring the protection of the workers) or commercial conditions (infringements of clauses defining fair competition, etc.) are dealt with by the National Compliance Division (compliance officers, regional compliance boards, and the National Compliance Board).

The National Compliance Division, like the National Labour Relations Board, has no power to punish offenders. If the parties

fail to comply with its recommendations, it may, with a view to legal proceedings, refer the matter either to the Attorney-General or to the Federal Trade Commission, according as the infringement is of a labour or of a commercial provision. Infringements of the codes or regulations issued under the National Industrial Recovery Act are punishable under section 10 of the Act by a fine of not more than $500 or a term of imprisonment not exceeding six months, or both.

An Act was issued on 21 June 1934 to amend the Railway Labour Act of 1926, which had proved unsatisfactory in practice. The new Act incorporates the provisions of the Emergency Railroad Transport Act giving the workers the right to organise and choose freely their representatives for the purpose of collective bargaining with the railway companies, and it also includes various measures to secure the effective application of these guarantees. It sets up a National Railroad Adjustment Board of thirty-six members, eighteen being chosen by the companies and eighteen by workers' organisations national in their scope. It abolishes the former Board of Mediation of five members and establishes a new National Mediation Board of three members, with power to deal with disputes concerning changes in rates of pay or working conditions of railway workers, and with any other disputes not referable to the National Adjustment Board and not adjusted by agreement between the parties concerned.

Mention may also be made of the fact that legislation bearing upon conciliation and arbitration is being considered in several other countries. The draft labour codes now being discussed in *Argentina*, *Colombia*, *Nicaragua* and *Turkey* all contain proposals concerning the settlement of collective labour disputes. Certain arbitration functions are vested in the Labour Councils recently instituted in *Chile* and *Greece*. A Bill dealing with conciliation and arbitration has been introduced in the *Honduras* legislature. Recommendations have been addressed to the competent authorities for improving the conciliation and arbitration machinery in existence in *Japan*, *Mexico*, *South Africa* and *Spain*. All these proposals demonstrate the importance which is attached to the existence of a well-organised system of procedure for the settlement of industrial disputes.

The Individual Contract of Service

Two new Acts regulating individual contracts of service in general were adopted in *Czechoslovakia* and *Poland* during the course of 1934, while numerous measures to guarantee the regular payment of wages and the stability of employment were introduced in various countries. In this connection it is interesting to note that national regulations on collective dismissals are becoming more and more frequent.

Argentina. — An Act promulgated on 21 September 1934 amends the sections of the Commercial Code dealing with the staff of commercial undertakings.

A commercial employee (agent, clerk, traveller, representative or worker) who is incapacitated by accident or sickness not due to his own fault retains bis right to salary, wages or other remuneration for three months if he has been employed in the undertaking for less than ten years, and for a maximum period of six months if he has been employed for over ten years. This provision does not apply in cases for which the Workmen's Compensation Act prescribes a higher rate of compensation.

The employee's post must be kept open for him, and if he is discharged at the end of the three or six months of sick leave, he may claim compensation as provided for in the Code. An employee called up for military service cannot be discharged before thirty days after the conclusion of such service.

Employees are entitled to an annual paid holiday which varies with length of service.

An employer who dismisses an employee must give one month's notice if the employee has been at least five years in his service, and two months' notice after more than five years' service. Notice of dismissal dates from the end of the month in which it is given. If no notice is given, the employer must pay the employee's wages for the period for which notice is due.

In all cases of dismissal, the employee is entitled to compensation equal to at least one month's salary or wages for each year of service or part of a year exceeding three months, the monthly remuneration being taken to be the average for the last five years, or for the whole period of service if less than five years. In no case may compensation be less than one month's earnings or more than 500 pesos for each year of service.

A suspension of work for more than three months in any one year is deemed to be equivalent to dismissal, if ordered by the employer, as is any unjustified reduction made in wages without the employee's consent. In such cases the employer is required to pay the compensation described above. If an undertaking changes hands, the new owner must take over the obligations of his predecessor. If an employee dies, his dependants may claim the compensation.

None of these rights may be restricted or waived by agreement between the parties. On the other hand, the employer's obligations cease on the dismissal of an employee who in the exercise of his duties is guilty of a fault causing injury to his employer, who is incapable of performing his duties, or who carries out commercial operations affecting his employer's interests on his own behalf or on behalf of others without his employer's consent.

Employers may transfer their statutory liability for compensation by taking out an insurance policy for their employees with private companies authorised by the Government; this does not prejudice

the right of the employee to institute direct proceedings against the employer.

From the date of promulgation of the Act, commercial establishments must keep a special register for recording the incomes of their employees, the date of each employee's entry into their service, his salary, wages, commissions, gratuities, or other remuneration, as well as the contract of employment and all other conditions of employment.

Austria. — An Act issued on 23 February 1934 to amend existing mines legislation stipulates that mine owners must pay overseers' wages at least once a month and workers' wages at least once a fortnight, and in either case immediately on the termination of a contract of employment. Paydays must be fixed by the rules of employment or by an order posted up in the establishment at the beginning of each calendar year.

Belgium. — An Act was issued on 30 July 1934 to amend section 5 of the Act of 16 August 1887 regulating the payment of wages. Wages which do not exceed 45 francs a day (5 francs under the old Act) must in future be paid at least twice a month, and the period between payments may not exceed sixteen days.

Brazil. — Article 121 of the new Federal Constitution states that compensation must be paid to all workers dismissed without good and sufficient reason.

Canada. — Section 16 of an Act adopted in the Province of Alberta on 14 April 1934 lays down rules governing the preferential claim of wages when distraint is levied on an employer. In such cases workers are entitled to three months' wages, whether they are paid by the day, week, month or year.

Czechoslovakia. — A Bill governing the contracts of employment of salaried employees became law on 11 July 1934. The new Act applies to all categories of salaried employees with the exception of officials and employees in the railway services or in agricultural employment.

Contracts may be concluded orally or in writing. Failing stipulations to the contrary, the provisions of a collective agreement form the substance of the individual contract if both parties belong to the organisations which have concluded the agreement.

The employer must hand to the salaried employee, within a fortnight from the beginning of the employment, a written confirmation of his engagement, which must in any case show the amount of the salary, the period of notice to which the employee is entitled, and the work required of him. Remuneration in cash must be paid not later than the end of each month. Detailed provisions regulate the calculation and payment of commissions, shares in profits, etc.

In the event of sickness or accident, not resulting from a serious fault on the part of the employee, the salary must be paid for a

period of six weeks. This period is extended by a fortnight after ten years' service, and by a further week for each additional period of five years' service. Women employees may also claim six weeks' salary in the event of absence on account of childbirth if they have been employed for not less than two years without interruption in the same undertaking. An employee may not be dismissed on account of sickness or accident unless he is absent from work a fortnight longer than the periods mentioned above. In no case may an employee lose his right to salary because he is under notice of dismissal.

The employer must install, at his own expense, all the equipment necessary for the protection of the life and health of his employees. In particular, he must see that the workplaces are well-lighted, healthy, free from dust, and suitably heated. An adequate number of seats must be provided for rest periods.

Contracts of employment concluded for an indefinite period may be terminated at the end of a quarter by giving six weeks' notice if the employee has worked for less than fifteen years in the same undertaking. The notice required is three months where the employee has fifteen to twenty years' service, and five months after twenty years' service. It may be stipulated by agreement that while the employee has not more than five years' service in the undertaking the contract may be terminated at the end of any month by giving six weeks' notice. The Act also gives a list of grounds on which the contract may be terminated without notice. Other provisions lay down rules concerning caution money, radius clauses, etc.

A Legislative Decree of 24 April 1934 places restrictions on the right of employers to limit production or make collective dismissals and fixes periods of notice for when undertakings are finally closed down longer than those provided for under general legislation.

All collective dismissals require a permit. Collective dismissal within the meaning of the Decree takes place when an employer who has not more than 700 workers in his service discharges 15 per cent. of them within a period of four weeks, provided that the actual number of workers dismissed is not less than ten, or when an employer having more than 700 workers discharges not less than 10 per cent. of them within four weeks.

An employer who wishes to effect a collective dismissal must inform the district administrative authority and the factory inspection service a fortnight in advance. The administrative authority then immediately convenes the employer and the works committee, and also invites the factory inspector and the representatives of the employers' and workers' organisations concerned to be present at the meeting. The authority must first seek to obtain an agreement by discussing with the employer the possibility of continuing the working of the undertaking with the existing staff, if need be by means of a reduction of working hours. If no agreement is reached, the administrative authority must issue an award to come into force in a fortnight. If the authority considers that

the measure proposed by the employer is unjustified, the workers may not be discharged; but if no award is issued, the employer is free to act as he thinks fit at the end of the fortnight. No dismissal may take place until an award has been issued or the fortnight has expired.

If the employer wishes to suspend the working of his undertaking for more than a fortnight but not more than three months, the district administrative authority confines itself to an attempt at conciliation, and issues no award.

If the proposed suspension is to last for more than three months, the employer must give notice at least a fortnight in advance to the Ministry of Social Welfare and to the Ministry of Commerce. After investigating the matter, the latter Ministry, after consultation with any other Ministry concerned, decides whether the proposed suspension of production is necessary or not. If no decision is issued within a period of six weeks, the consent of the Ministry is presumed. The employer may not suspend the work of his undertaking until the issue of the Ministry's award or the expiry of the statutory period, unless he pays full wages for a specified period not exceeding three weeks.

The same procedure is prescribed for cases where unavoidable circumstances lead to the closing of the undertaking for a period of more than a fortnight or to a general dismissal of the workers.

When an undertaking is finally closed down, the workers must be given longer dismissal notices than those provided for under general legislation. These notices, varying according to length of service, are from two to six weeks for workers and two to five months for salaried employees. Notice must always be given to salaried employees for the end of a month. These longer periods of notice must be given in all cases where a worker is discharged during the three months previous to the day on which the undertaking closes down. Any agreement to the contrary is null and void unless it provides for longer dismissal notices in the workers' favour.

If the employer closes his undertaking or discharges his workers without giving notice in advance to the competent authority, the latter proceeds on its own initiative to carry out the enquiry prescribed by the Decree. If the measures taken by the employer are not approved, he must pay fourteen days' wages to workers who lose their employment in the case of a collective dismissal, and three weeks' wages in the event of a stoppage of production. Wages need not be paid, however, for a longer period than that for which work is suspended.

The Decree does not apply to workers engaged temporarily if the employer, when hiring them, informs them and the district authority that the engagement is not to exceed four weeks. A temporary worker whose engagement has been renewed three times or more during the same year is, however, covered by the Decree. The Decree does not apply to seasonal undertakings or to those which as a general rule work only for a certain period of the year.

The final closing down of such undertakings, however, is subject to the provisions of the Decree.

The period of operation of the Decree was fixed as from 15 March 1934 to 30 June 1935.

Danzig (Free City of). — An Act resembling the German National Labour Regulation Act was promulgated on 8 May 1934. It contains similar provisions concerning protection against dismissal, which were extended to small undertakings by an amending Order of 4 June 1934. In undertakings employing fewer than one hundred workers, the employer must notify the labour trustee when discharging more than three workers, while workers in undertakings employing at least three workers (instead of ten, as under previous legislation) may appeal against dismissal after one year's service.

Germany. — The *Year-Book* for 1933 [1] briefly referred to the changes made by the National Labour Regulation Act of 20 January 1934 in the legislation for the protection of workers against dismissal. The principles of the new regulations and the further changes made during 1934 are summarised below.

In the first place, a distinction is made between the dismissal of confidential councillors, the dismissal of individual workers, and collective dismissals.

Confidential councillors, who under the Act form with the head of the undertaking the confidential council of the undertaking (see above, under " Profit-Sharing and Workers' Participation in Management "), may not be dismissed unless their dismissal is necessitated by a stoppage of a part or the whole of the undertaking, or is based on reasons which entitle the employer to terminate their engagement without notice.

An ordinary worker who is dismissed may appeal against his dismissal. While repealing the Works Councils Act of 1920, which in sections 84 et seq. had introduced this form of protection against dismissal, the new Act maintains the principle of appeal with certain changes. A worker who has received notice of dismissal may lodge a claim with the labour court for the withdrawal of the notice if his dismissal constitutes an undue hardship and is not necessitated by conditions in the undertaking. In undertakings in which there is a confidential council, the complaint must be accompanied by a certificate stating that the continuance of the worker's employment has been unsuccessfully raised in the council, unless the worker can prove that the council had not issued such a certificate within five days of his appeal.

All workers in undertakings employing at least ten persons have this right of appeal provided they have been employed in the same undertaking for at least one year.

If the court decrees the revocation of the dismissal, it must *ex officio* fix the amount of compensation payable to the worker if the employer refuses to revoke the dismissal. In assessing compen-

[1] Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1933*, p. 303, footnote.

sation, due account must be taken of the economic situation of the dismissed person and the solvency of the undertaking; such compensation must be in proportion to length of service, but may not exceed four-twelfths of the worker's last annual earnings. Under the previous legislation, the maximum was six-twelfths.

This amount was raised afresh by the Act of 30 November 1934, and now, as formerly, the maximum compensation is six-twelfths of the dismissed person's last annual earnings. The court may even increase the compensation up to an amount equal to his last annual earnings when it can be shown that he was dismissed in an arbitrary fashion or for trivial reasons such as constitute an abuse of the employer's authority.

With regard to collective dismissals, the Act of 20 January 1934 incorporated the provisions of the 1923 Order in amended form. An employer who intends to dismiss within a period of four weeks more than nine workers from an undertaking normally employing less than one hundred workers, or 10 per cent. of the staff, or more than fifty workers from an undertaking normally employing at least one hundred workers, must inform the labour trustee of his intention in writing (see above, under " Collective Agreements "). The dismissals announced become operative in a period of four weeks only if the labour trustee gives his approval; if they are not carried out within a second period of four weeks following such approval, the right to dismiss workers lapses.

If an employer is not in a position to keep his workers on full time during the second period of four weeks, the labour trustee may authorise a reduction of hours of work in the establishment concerned, but in no case may working hours be less than twenty-four in the week. In all such cases wages may be reduced proportionately.

In addition to the Act of 20 January 1934, various measures taken to regulate the labour market, and in particular to ensure the better distribution of national labour, have had the effect of restricting the employer's right to engage and dismiss workers. In virtue of these measures, which include the Act of 15 May 1934, the Order of 10 August 1934, and a number of executive Orders, employers may not engage certain categories of workers (persons previously employed in agriculture, workers under twenty-five years of age, etc.) without the approval of the competent employment exchange authorities. In certain cases employers may be required to dismiss such persons [1].

Finally, an Act of 24 October 1934 amended the legislation governing the attachment of employed persons' earnings. In the case of persons deriving their income from salaries, wages, pensions, or payments of a similar nature, the Act prescribes that any sum of money in their possession equal to the non-attachable part of income due for the period between the date of attachment and that of the next payment shall be non-attachable.

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[1] See also Chapter V: "Unemployment, Placing, Migration".

As regards money owed by employers to such persons in the form of salaries or wages, the rule is as follows. Officials' salaries are non-attachable up to a limit of 150 RM., while only one-third of the remainder may be attached. Workers' and employees' earnings are immune up to 150 RM. a month, 35 RM. a week, and 5.80 RM. a day; not more than two-thirds of the remainder may be attached, and if the person in debt has persons dependent on him, the attachable part is reduced by one-sixth per person, but may not be less than one-third. This restriction does not apply to earnings in excess of 500 RM. a month, 115 RM. a week and 19 RM. a day.

The provisions in respect of attachment of salaries and wages do not apply to alimony payable to certain persons such as a wife or children, but only that part of earnings which exceeds the minimum required for the worker's subsistence may be attached on behalf of such persons.

The following forms of income are non-attachable to the same extent as earnings: the pensions of persons formerly employed and their dependants, and sums due under the Commercial Code to employees who are bound by a radius clause not to carry on their occupation.

Even a person who, though not a party to a contract of employment, receives remuneration for services performed is entitled to the sum required for his subsistence and for that of persons dependent on him. In such cases, the non-attachable sum is fixed by the court at the debtor's request, but may not exceed the non-attachable part of his earnings. The request may be refused if the needs of the creditor are urgent.

These rules also apply to salaries and wages when paid directly to a third party by arrangement between the employed person and his employer. If, in order to evade attachment, a person agrees to work without remuneration or for a negligible wage in no way corresponding to the value of his work, the Act permits attachment and empowers the magistrate to fix the proper level of remuneration in accordance with the circumstances of each case.

Greece. — An Act of 29 September 1934 states that in public utility undertakings employing more than fifty persons, contracts of employment cannot legally be terminated by the employer unless he has received the previous consent of a Committee set up by Presidential Decree, when the number of persons dismissed in the same year is equal to or exceeds 25 per cent. of the total number of persons employed in the undertaking.

All dismissals effected since 1 January 1932 are deemed to be void if the Committee does not recognise the necessity and the grounds for dismissal within two months following the coming into operation of the Act.

Italy. — An Act of 22 January 1934 to amend the Act regulating salaried employees' contracts of employment lays down that the part by which an employee's annual salary exceeds 60,000 lire is

not to be taken into consideration for the computation of compensation for dismissal, except when such compensation is payable, in the case of the employee's decease, to his dependants. Exceptions in favour of the employee are, however, admissible.

Lithuania. — The Act of 22 March 1921 provided that a worker dismissed without valid reason was entitled to compensation varying with length of service. A new Act, issued on 11 November 1933 to regulate conditions of employment in industry, changed the rates of compensation payable on the cancellation of contracts of employment concluded for an indefinite period. The new rates are as follows:

Duration of employment	Number of weeks' pay
Less than 3 months	1
3-6 months	2
6 months to 1 year	3
1-2 years	4
2-3 years	6
3-4 years	8
4-5 years	10
5 years or more	12

The schedule of compensation payments was supplemented by an Act of 27 September 1934 as follows:

Duration of employment	Number of weeks' pay
5-6 years	12
6-7 years	13
7 years or more	14

Under the same Act, the employer is required to pay half the usual compensation to workers dismissed for not having come to work for eight successive weeks owing to sickness, or for two weeks owing to any other good reason; the same compensation is payable to the dependants of a worker in case of death.

The Act of 11 November 1933 also provides, in case of the unjustified termination by the employer of a contract concluded for a specified period, that he shall pay the worker the whole of the remuneration which the latter would have earned if the contract had not been terminated.

If the contract is cancelled because of a stoppage of work in the undertaking, due to unavoidable circumstances and lasting for more than a fortnight, workers engaged for an indefinite period are entitled to one-half of the statutory compensation, and those engaged for a specified period to one-half of the amount which they would have received had they been engaged for an indefinite period.

Compensation is calculated on the basis of the average weekly wages in cash and in kind during the last year of employment.

Luxemburg. — The Acts of 19 July 1895 concerning the attachment and assignment of small salaries and wages and section 14 of the Act of 1919 concerning salaried employees' contracts of employment were amended by an Act of 15 May 1934. Under the

earlier legislation, wages not exceeding 6 francs a day could be assigned up to a maximum of one-fifth, and attached up to a maximum of one-tenth of the total value. Wages exceeding this limit could be assigned up to a maximum of two-fifths and attached up to a maximum of one-fifth. Salaries not exceeding 1,500 francs a year were liable to assignment up to a maximum of one-fifth and attachment up to a maximum of one-tenth. According to section 14 of the Act on salaried employees' contracts of employment, salaries of over 1,500 francs, but not exceeding 6,500 francs, could be assigned up to two-fifths and attached up to one-quarter of their total value. Amounts in excess of 6,500 francs could be attached up to a maximum of one-third.

The new Act no longer prescribes fixed limits for the attachment of wages and salaries, but requires the Government to fix these annually. For 1934 they were fixed by the Ministerial Order of 28 July 1934 at 40 francs a day for workers' and domestic servants' wages, and at 12,000 francs a year (40,000 francs for the higher limit) for employees' salaries.

A Grand Ducal Order of the same date promulgated in virtue of the Act prescribes rules for the procedure to be followed in cases of attachment. For instance, it establishes the principle that the attachment of wages and salaries not exceeding the limits laid down by the Government shall be allowed only on the strength of a permit issued by the justice of the peace for the debtor's place of residence.

Poland. — The Code of Obligations of 27 October 1933, which came into force on 1 July 1934, contains in Chapter I of Part XI rules governing contracts of employment. These provisions are of a supplementary nature, for they apply only to classes of persons who are not covered by special legislation and to matters which are not regulated elsewhere. Thus the Orders of 1928 relating to contracts of employment of manual and non-manual workers remain in force side by side with the new Code. A few of the more important provisions of the Code are summarised below.

The worker must carry out his work conscientiously and diligently in accordance with instructions given by his employer. If he is paid by piece rates, he may ask his employer to give him appropriate work, or to pay his wages for the period during which he was prepared to work. He is also entitled to his wage even if he has not performed his work, provided that he was prepared to perform it, but was unable to do so through the fault of the employer. When the worker's employment is his sole or principal means of subsistence, he may claim his wages in cases where he has been unable to work for reasons for which he was not responsible (sickness, accident, military service, etc.). In the absence of more favourable provisions, he is entitled to assert this right for a period of two weeks after not less than six months' service, even if during these two weeks the employer denounces the contract without any fault on the part of the worker. At the same time, the scope of this provision is restricted, for it does not cover the following persons: workers and salaried employees covered by the Orders of

1928; seamen and dockers; all wage earners covered by collective agreement; and finally, as regards payment of wages in case of sickness or accident, all persons covered by compulsory social insurance.

The employer is required to treat his workers correctly, and to respect their honour. He must take the necessary steps to protect their life and health. When a worker, e.g. a domestic servant, lives with the employer, the latter must provide him in the event of sickness with maintenance and medical treatment for two weeks after not less than two weeks' service, and for four weeks after not less than six months' service. The employer is however released from this obligation if the worker is insured with a sickness insurance institution.

The employer must pay wages in cash. Payment in any other form renders him liable for any damage consequently suffered by the worker.

When the worker is entitled to a share in the profits or a percentage on turnover or output, or possesses any other similar rights, the employer is required to provide him with a written statement of his dues. The worker must be secured the right to inspect the books of the establishment.

Some of the provisions regulating the termination of contracts of employment call for mention. A contract concluded for a specified period comes to an end on the expiration of such period, but it is deemed to be prolonged indefinitely if the worker continues to work and the employer raises no objections. A trial contract of employment may be cancelled by either party in the course of the first month by giving one week's notice, but the trial period may not exceed one month.

A contract concluded for life or for a period of more than three years must be confirmed in writing. After three years, the worker may denounce it by giving six months' notice.

In the case of contracts concluded for an indefinite period, the period of notice may be stipulated in the contract itself, but the worker may not be required to give longer notice than the employer, for whom minimum periods of notice are laid down. Thus the employer may terminate the contract of a non-manual worker at the end of a quarter by giving six weeks' notice, this period being increased to six months after ten years' service. In all other cases, the period of notice is two weeks for both parties.

Both parties may at any time terminate the contract for good and sufficient reason. Any contingency which precludes the faithful observance of the contract of employment is considered a valid reason for termination.

If the employer cancels the contract prematurely without giving the prescribed notice or without valid reason, or when he has only himself to blame for a premature termination by the worker, the latter is entitled to his wages until the contract expires or during the period of notice, without prejudice to any further damages to which he may be entitled. On the transfer of an undertaking,

existing contracts of employment continue to be operative, but a worker is entitled to terminate his contract by giving the statutory notice, even when his contract is concluded for a specified period.

Spain. — A Decree of 1 November 1934 authorises the termination of contracts of employment in case of a strike.

Under section 89 of the Act of 21 November 1931 regulating individual contracts of employment, a contract lapses on the justified dismissal of a worker, for example when the worker is guilty of repeated and unjustifiable unpunctuality or failure to attend for work. Again, section 91 of the Act stipulates that strikes in general shall not cancel contracts of employment. However, section 39 of the Joint Boards Act of 27 November 1931 requires workers who propose to organise a strike to notify the competent joint board [1] with a view to an attempt at conciliation or, in default of such action, to give the prescribed notice. If these conditions are complied with, the strike is deemed to be lawful. On the other hand, strikes are considered to be unlawful when they are concerned with other matters than industrial disputes and do not lend themselves to conciliation or, in the case of industrial disputes, when the statutory notice is not given.

The new Decree declares that unlawful strikes of this nature constitute a valid reason for the cancellation of a contract of employment. Employers who dismiss workers in such circumstances are required to report all such dismissals to the competent joint board. The chairman of the board must refrain from taking any action on appeals made by workers against such dismissals and must suspend the proceedings when it is obvious from the date of the dismissal and that of the strike or from any other circumstance that the worker's dismissal was due to his taking part in an unlawful strike.

United States. — The aim of Federal Act No. 324 is to suppress abuses which had arisen more particularly in the building industry. It imposes penal sanctions in cases where persons employed in the construction or repair of any public building or public work, or building or work financed in whole or in part by the United States Government, are compelled by force, intimidation, threat of dismissal or any other means to give up any part of the compensation to which they are entitled under a contract of employment.

Similar provisions, referring, however, to all contracts of personal service, have been inserted in the Penal Code of the State of New York.

An Act was passed in the State of Louisiana on 12 July 1934 to protect the right to employment of workers of a certain age. It is now forbidden under pain of punishment for persons with at least twenty-five workers in their employment to fix an age limit of fifty years for the engagement or dismissal of staff. Except in the

[1] Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1931*, p. 499.

case of dangerous trades and those requiring special qualifications, the only factors to be taken into account for an employment are the physical and mental aptitudes, experience and character of the worker.

These provisions do not apply to employers who have set up a pension scheme which provides their workers with a minimum quarterly pension of $45 after not more than thirty-five years' service.

U.S.S.R. — An Order of 8 July 1934 promulgated disciplinary regulations applicable to persons employed in municipal electrical undertakings. These regulations, which may be considered as standard regulations for municipal workers in general, stipulate that in order to be eligible to work in a municipal electrical undertaking a worker must possess the requisite knowledge and health. Candidates must complete a probationary period before being confirmed in their functions. Persons deprived of their civil rights, dispossessed *kulaks* (formerly well-to-do peasants), and persons convicted of counter-revolutionary offences are not eligible for employment in municipal electrical undertakings.

If a worker wishes to leave his employment, he must give a fortnight's notice to his immediate superior; the period is one month for office employees and two months for members of the technical staff.

Infringements of labour discipline are punished by disciplinary penalties, unless they are of a criminal character or constitute an act hostile to the existing system of government, in which case the offender is liable to prosecution before the courts. Immediate dismissal is the heaviest disciplinary penalty, and is imposed, for example, in cases of insubordination, unjustified absence, drunkenness, etc. The other disciplinary penalties, in order of gravity, are: reprimand, censure, severe censure, censure with notice of dismissal, detention (up to ten days) with or without suspension, and reduction to a lower grade. All appeals against such penalties must be lodged with the official immediately superior to the person who inflicted the penalty. The decision of this official is final and without appeal.

The regulations make provision for a series of measures to encourage efficiency, initiative and devotion in case of imminent danger or of catastrophe.

The new disciplinary regulations governing workers employed in sea and river transport, introduced by the Order of 27 May 1934, provide for similar measures. But as regards engagement, it is stipulated that only citizens of the Soviet Union may be admitted to employment in sea and river transport undertakings of the Union. The disciplinary penalties also include detention for not more than twenty days, and dismissal involving a year's exclusion from employment in sea and river transport work in general or in certain specified posts.

An Order issued on 10 October 1934 set up for sea and river transport undertakings a network of special courts to deal with

crimes and offences committed on board ship and in ports, docks, workshops, etc. In addition to criminal and counter-revolutionary offences, these courts also handle serious breaches of discipline or of the disciplinary, service, and shipping regulations, as well as acts endangering transport, causing damage to goods or hindering the fulfilment of the economic plans of the State.

Administration of Labour Law

Various countries adopted measures concerning the administration of labour law during 1934.

Brazil. — The new Federal Constitution promulgated on 16 July 1934 makes provision for the establishment of labour courts for the settlement of disputes between employers and workers arising out of social legislation. One-half of the judges are to be chosen by the employers' associations and the other half by the workers' organisations; the chairman is to be appointed by the Government. Hitherto, the only authorities competent to deal with individual labour disputes have been the conciliation and arbitration boards set up in virtue of the Decree of 25 November 1932.

Danzig (Free City of). — The system of administration of labour law is similar to that of Germany except for the fact that Danzig has no Supreme Labour Court. Appeals are heard by the district labour court.

Germany. — The Labour Courts Act of 10 April 1934 made a number of amendments to the Labour Courts Act of 23 December 1926 so as to bring it into conformity with recent labour legislation.

Since the abolition of the trade unions and employers' associations, the assessors for the labour courts are selected from lists drawn up by the German Labour Front. Similarly, the collective agreements formerly concluded by the trade unions can no longer be the subject of disputes within the jurisdiction of the labour courts; such agreements are now replaced by collective rules (see above, under "Collective Agreements") issued by the labour trustees, who are Federal officials.

The parties to disputes referred to the labour courts may be represented by employees of the legal consulting offices set up by the German Labour Front. Barristers and persons who usually plead in the ordinary courts of law are not admitted as representatives of the parties before the local labour courts unless they have received special authorisation from the Labour Front.

The new Labour Courts Act does away with the special procedure laid down in the 1926 Act for the settlement of disputes connected with the application of the Works Councils Act of 4 February 1920, which was repealed by the National Labour Regulation Act of 20 January 1934.

One of the underlying principles of the new régime is that while it is the duty of employers to promote the welfare of their workers, the latter in turn must serve them with loyalty. And it is for the purpose of punishing any breach of this loyalty that a social honour court has been established under the National Labour Regulation Act in each of the thirteen districts assigned to the labour trustees, who are alone competent to bring complaints before these courts. Appeals against the decisions of the various social honour courts may be lodged by the trustee, and under certain conditions by the defendant, with the Federal Honour Court, which has its seat in Berlin (see above, under " Conciliation and Arbitration ").

Italy. — A new Act, dated 22 January 1934, regulates the settlement of individual labour disputes. It takes over the provisions of the 1928 Decree on the subject and adds rules concerning the competence of the courts and the procedure to be followed.

Disputes arising out of employment relations between individuals and public bodies, and disputes based on share tenancy relationships governed by collective agreements, are now subject to the jurisdiction of the labour courts.

A still more important modification is that while the 1928 Decree in certain cases allowed legally recognised associations to offer their services with a view to securing an amicable settlement of individual labour disputes, the new Act stipulates that in most classes of disputes no action can be brought by a complainant unless notice of the dispute has first been given to the legally recognised association for the category to which he belongs, even though he may not be a member of the association. That association must then, in collaboration with the association for the category to which the defendant belongs, endeavour to settle the dispute by conciliation. When the negotiations are successful, the conciliation agreement becomes legally enforceable in certain circumstances. It is only after conciliation has failed that the matter can be brought before the labour courts.

Poland. — The system of administration of labour law in force since the promulgation of the Presidential Order of 22 March 1928 was considerably modified by the Legislative Decree of 24 October 1934, which came into force on 1 January 1935. Henceforth, assessors are appointed for a period of three years instead of two years. While the recent Decree excludes penal actions from the competence of the labour courts, it specifically extends their competence to other classes of disputes, among which are included disputes based on the contracts of employment of teachers who discharge their duties outside school establishments. It also provides that the jurisdiction of the labour courts shall supersede the competence of conciliation and arbitration boards except where the parties agree to submit a dispute to a board of conciliation or arbitration set up in virtue of a collective agreement.

The most far-reaching change, however, consists in the introduction of a conciliation procedure whereby the chairman of the labour court, provided he deems the matter suitable for settlement

by conciliation, must first of all refer the dispute to a conciliation committee composed of two assessors. It is the chairman's duty to appoint the assessors and designate which one of the two is to preside over the conciliation proceedings. If a unanimous decision is reached, the conciliation agreement becomes legally enforceable upon being signed by the parties and the assessors.

Under the new system, appeals can no longer be taken from the local labour courts to the regional courts, and from the latter to the Supreme Court. In all cases the local labour court is the court of first instance, and where the sum involved in the dispute is not more than 300 zloty, the final court of appeal is the regional labour court. Where the sum involved exceeds that amount, recourse can only be had to the Supreme Court.

The Decree also provides that the industrial and commercial tribunals still in existence in certain parts of Upper Silesia are to be transformed into labour courts.

Portugal. — A number of Decrees relating to labour courts have been issued since the new Constitution came into force on 11 April 1933. The Legislative Decree of 15 August 1934, which supersedes all previous Decrees, contains detailed provisions for the establishment of labour courts composed of a judge assisted by an official of the Public Prosecutor's Department, a clerk and another official to serve summonses on behalf of the court.

In most cases the jurisdiction of the labour courts is compulsory, while in others, for instance, where the principles of strict law are not applicable, their jurisdiction is merely optional, that is, dependent upon the agreement of the parties to the dispute. Practically all labour disputes come within the competence of the labour courts.

The Public Prosecutor's Department, as representative of the State and the community, must supervise the administration of the law and act as the workers' unofficial protector. For this purpose it is its duty to intervene in cases before the courts and also propose to the persons concerned, either on its own initiative, at the instance of the judge, or at the suggestion of any of the parties, the amendment, prolongation, or revision of collective agreements and contracts of employment which have been approved by the Under-Secretary of State for Corporations and Social Welfare, and even to propose the conclusion of new collective agreements and contracts of employment.

It is likewise the duty of the labour courts, at the request of the representative of the Public Prosecutor's Department, to supervise the observance of the National Labour Code, as well as the development and exercise of occupational and corporative activities, and to see that the compulsory provisions governing employment are carried out. They may even inflict disciplinary reprimands on employers and employees for failure to observe the principles of equity, courtesy, respect and obedience on which their relations to each other should be based.

Judicial proceedings cannot be instituted until an attempt has been made by the officers of the court to settle the dispute by

conciliation. But conciliation may be resorted to at any stage of the proceedings, even during the enforcement of the award. A conciliation agreement is legally enforceable. An appeal for the review of the final decision of a labour court lies with the Labour and Social Welfare Division of the Supreme Administrative Court.

Rationalisation and Industrial Relations

The International Management Institute, of which the International Labour Office was one of the founders, had to cease its activities at the beginning of 1934 as a result of financial difficulties. Chosen as a repository of the Institute's archives (which included some 40,000 documents, books and pamphlets), the Office has endeavoured to carry on that part of the Institute's functions which falls within its competence, and in particular has devoted its attention to the study of the social aspects of rationalisation. The Governing Body of the Office has, moreover, set up a special committee to ascertain to what extent the Office might eventually continue the general programme of work formerly undertaken by the Institute.

In spite of the economic depression, the interest displayed in questions of rationalisation has not fallen off. On the contrary, it seems to be generally admitted nowadays that the scope of rational organisation should be extended beyond the field of production, to which it was limited some few years ago, to cover problems of general administration and distribution.

The most important measures with regard to the organisation of administration are those taken under the auspices of the Public Administration Clearing House of the United States, which in 1934 convened a Round Table Conference, with headquarters in Paris, to maintain contact between the circles interested in the two continents. The attempts to organise distribution are co-ordinated by the International Distribution Commission, which the International Management Institute had set up in collaboration with the International Chamber of Commerce.

From a more general standpoint, it may be noted—although the disappearance of the Institute makes the recording of all the interesting facts a difficult matter—that the national scientific management committees have continued to be very active. This is shown not only by the increasing vitality of existing organisations, e.g. in Italy, Belgium, the Netherlands, etc., but also by the establishment of new organisations, such as the Scientific Management School inaugurated by the French Scientific Management Committee, the National Scientific Management Committee set up in Denmark, and the branch of the Taylor Society established in the Philippine Islands. Finally, and this is an important factor for the development of relations with Europe, the societies in the United States interested in scientific management have set up

a National Management Council to act as the central representative body of the movement in its dealings with other countries.

In Great Britain, all circles interested in the movement are co-operating with the International Committee for Scientific Management in the preparation of the Sixth International Congress for Scientific Management, which will be held in London in July 1935.

While, as already stated, devoting special attention to the study of the social consequences of rationalisation, the Office has continued its investigations into industrial relations. The two questions have many points in common, for in both cases the investigators have to study the internal organisation of business undertakings.

The third volume of the *Studies on Industrial Relations* appeared at the end of 1934. These studies were previously restricted to European countries, but in the present volume two of the five articles deal with undertakings in North America, namely, the Canadian National Railways and a group of textile mills in the United States.

It was thought desirable to devote one of the monographs to a large chemical works in Norway, since in few parts of the world are conditions more favourable for the growth of harmonious industrial relations than in the Scandinavian countries. A further innovation is the inclusion for the first time of an account of a commercial establishment, that selected being one of the largest department stores in Paris.

The method adopted for the study of a Luxemburg steel works differs somewhat from that for the other studies. This is one of the rare cases in which a single undertaking is responsible for a large proportion of the industrial activity of the country in which it is situated; the question is therefore treated from a national standpoint, and the study covers industrial relations in the Grand Duchy of Luxemburg.

The studies at present in course of preparation will be inspired by a slightly different standpoint, namely, the influence of rationalisation on industrial relations. It is along such lines that a study has been made of a large Swiss department store, the results of which have not yet been published.

Outside the Office, too, industrial relations continue to occupy a prominent place in the studies undertaken by a number of organisations and, in particular, by the International Industrial Relations Institute.

Participation of Workers in National Economic Life

National Economic Councils

Generally speaking, the national economic councils displayed great activity in 1934 and seem to be exercising a growing influence on the economic policy of Governments. Some countries are now reorganising their economic councils on the basis of the experience

gained, while others are being driven to set up similar bodies by the need for some means of co-ordinating their various national activities; the result is that the number of countries with national economic councils is growing year by year. It is worth noting that provision is made on most of the newly established councils for workers' representation.

Austria. — The new Austrian Constitution provides for the setting up of a National Economic Council of seventy to eighty members representing the principal economic branches of the country. The seats on this body are to be distributed according to the numerical importance of these branches, that is to say, in proportion to the number of wage earners and independent workers in each. Under the Acts of 9 October 1934 and 6 February 1935 the number of representatives for the respective branches are fixed as follows: Agriculture and forestry, 29; major industries and mining, 15; minor industries, 12; commerce and transport, 9; banking and insurance, 5; liberal professions, 5; public services, 7. The Council will be an advisory body with the duty of examining Bills of an economic order and advising the Government.

Bulgaria. — The Government is contemplating setting up a National Economic Council as an advisory body, its duties being mainly to give opinions and draft Bills on economic matters. In addition to persons in authority, the Council will include representatives of all branches of national economic life.

Chile. — A Decree of 25 October 1934 set up a National Economic Council to co-ordinate Government activities in the economic and financial fields. The Council itself consists solely of Government Ministers under the chairmanship of the Minister of Finance, but it is assisted by a committee comprising, besides leading personalities in economic and financial circles, ten delegates of the Confederation of Production and Commerce chosen to represent the various kinds of private enterprise in the country.

China. — The National Economic Council has prepared a vast plan of economic reconstruction which is to be carried out by stages. The first schemes to be put in hand are for river dredging, road building and repair, the improvement of public health, and the development of rural co-operative societies. The Council has also set up the following bodies: a Cotton Control Commission, with the duty of improving methods of cultivating cotton and maintaining the market price of cotton and thread; a Silk Contro Commission, on which all the principal employers in the silk industry have seats, and which is intended to study the best means of extending production and strengthening the competitive position of China on the world silk markets; a Rural Recovery Office, to seek means of improving the fertility of the land and encouraging agriculture; and lastly, a Permanent Committee of Experts to study the problem of reconstruction and development in Chinese Turkestan.

Czechoslovakia. — During 1934 the National Economic Council pursued its enquiries into the regulation of hours of work. It also drafted or examined a number of Bills on a variety of subjects, including the following: abolition of fee-charging employment agencies; economic espionage; regulation of retail prices; reorganisation of cartels; motor transport; housing, etc. Other subjects referred to the Council for study were the reorganisation of banking and credit institutions, the marketing of home products abroad, the organisation of an Export Board, etc. Lastly, the following bodies were set up during 1934: an Advisory Consumers' Board, an Advisory Committee for Financial Questions, a National Council for Agricultural Questions, and an Advisory Committee for the Glass Industry. Several of these new bodies have begun their work of organising national economic life.

Danzig (Free City of). — An Economic Council of eighteen members was set up in August 1934. The Presidents of the Chambers of Industry, Commerce, Agriculture and Handicrafts are *ex-officio* members of this Council, which is an advisory body attached to the Senate with the duty of organising collaboration between the Senate and business circles.

Ecuador. — A Decree of 6 January 1935 provides for the setting up of a National Economic Council to act as an advisory organ, with the duties of studying the country's economic and financial problems, drafting Bills and Decrees dealing with economic matters, and giving its opinion each year on the budget estimates in general, and in particular on the public works' estimates. The Council, which will comprise only a limited number of representatives of the most important economic branches, will meet regularly once a week.

Estonia. — A National Economic Council was set up under a Decree of 13 February 1935. The new Council is an advisory body with the duty of giving opinions on Bills of an economic order, and in particular on questions connected with the economic organisation and reconstruction of the country. It consists of twenty-five members, fifteen of whom represent the various occupations and economic branches—namely, agriculture 4, commerce and industry 3, labour 2, co-operative societies 2, and houseowners, the liberal professions, and handicrafts, one each; the President of the Bank of Estonia is *ex officio* a member, The remaining ten members are appointed by the Government on the nomination of the Minister of National Economy without regard to their occupation or economic interests.

Finland. — An Act to set up a National Economic Council was passed on 26 February 1935, but according to the Constitution still needs the approval of a two-thirds majority of the Chamber which will be elected in 1936. It provides for a Council of thirty members appointed by the President of the Republic, including eight representatives of agriculture, forestry and domestic

economy, four of commerce and industry, four of public administration, four of the economic sciences, and eight of the workers, two other members being appointed by the Council of Ministers.

France. — The National Economic Council held four plenary meetings in 1934. Reports were passed on the following subjects: co-ordination of motor and rail transport; reorganisation of inland navigation; position of the printing and book production industries; position of the mechanical engineering and metal working industries; economic relations between France and the colonies; and the application of collective labour agreements. Various other studies are also in progress or approaching completion.

Germany. — The second National Economic Council, which was set up by an Act of 5 April 1933, held no meetings and was abolished by an Act of 23 March 1934.

Great Britain. — Besides drafting advisory opinions which are not intended for publication, the sub-committees of the Economic Advisory Council have issued reports on the diseases of livestock and the prevention of plagues of locusts.

Italy. — After dealing with individual labour disputes, legislation on co-operative societies, the operation of public employment exchanges, the validity of collective agreements that have been denounced or have expired, and the reform of Italian Chambers of Commerce abroad, the National Council of Corporations turned its attention to the establishment of the corporations. Its discussions bore principally on the duties, number and constitution of the corporations, and the Council subsequently drafted a Decree instituting twenty-two corporations. The first meetings of the corporations were convened for the beginning of 1935.

Japan. — The Government has decided to set up a National Economic Council directly attached to the Government as a supreme advisory body. The Council will deal primarily with economic and industrial questions, but administrative, financial and cultural questions may also be referred to it. It will consist of fifteen members, who must be prominent and competent personalities, under the chairmanship of the Prime Minister. Workers' representation on the Council was demanded by the Japanese Trade Union Congress in a resolution adopted in January 1935.

Luxemburg. — The National Economic Council held eight plenary sessions during 1934, in the course of which it dealt principally with the following questions: reduction of hours of work, unemployment insurance, examination of the country's economic future, the " most-favoured-nation " clause, the Ouchy Agreement, the prospective economic negotiations with various countries, the agreement between the gold standard countries, the institution of a foreign trade year-book, certificates of origin, credit for handicraftsmen and small retailers, and the compilation of commercial statistics.

Rumania. — The Superior Economic Council was dissolved. The business before the Parliamentary session at the beginning of 1935 included the discussion and adoption of a Bill to reorganise the Council on a new basis.

Spain. — Under a Decree of 2 August 1934 the National Economic Council was dissolved and temporarily replaced by a commission entrusted with the duty of laying down the general lines of an appropriate commercial policy, studying the economic aspects of hydraulic works, and estimating the national income.

The Government also set up a special Committee to draft plans for a new Economic Council for submission to the Cortes. The scheme provides for a Council consisting of two organs, a Technical Council comprising ten members and a chairman, and an Assembly comprising 124 members representing the different national economic interests. The members of the Technical Council, who must be experts in economic matters, will be appointed on the proposal of a special Committee, while the seats in the Assembly will be distributed as follows: agriculture, 15; industry, 15; commerce, banking and transport, 15; employers' organisations, 15; workers (manual and non-manual), 40; persons of independent means, 20. The duties of members of the Assembly will be honorary except in the case of the workers' representatives. The Assembly will be re-elected every three years and an ordinary general meeting will be held each year in June. To ensure close collaboration between the Technical Council and the Assembly, ten members of the latter body will attend the monthly meetings of the Council.

United States. — There is no central National Economic Council in the United States, but a variety of bodies have sprung up in the course of the vast process of economic reconstruction now taking place in that country alike in the industrial, agricultural and financial fields. The National Industrial Recovery Act provided that the workers should have a share in this work of reconstruction by participating both in the negotiations which preceded the drafting of the codes and in the authorities set up to administer them, although the extent of this participation fell far short of labour hopes. Except in the case of certain industries in which the bargaining power of the unions was strong enough to exercise a direct or indirect influence on the negotiations, the workers' rôle was primarily an advisory one. Only in rare cases have they secured satisfactory representation on the code authorities set up to supervise the working of the codes, receive reports from the industries, propose code amendments, perform administrative functions, and in certain cases ensure the application of the codes. Out of the 500 independent code authorities which have so far been set up, only twenty-three provide for representation of the workers' interests. The American Federation of Labour has protested persistently against this inadequate representation of labour interests on the code authorities. The Labour Advisory Board of the National Recovery Administration, in anticipation of the

approaching revision and extension of the National Industrial Recovery Act has also submitted to the National Industrial Recovery Board a number of recommendations designed to secure to the workers the full benefits of the regime of economic democracy introduced by the Act. The main purpose of these proposals is to give power to a body providing equal and joint representation for workers and employers to impose codes of fair competition on all industries which have not yet submitted acceptable ones, and to give workers equal representation with employers on all code authorities and other organs for the administration of codes. including the Recovery Board.

Co-operation

Like the previous year, 1934 witnessed the consolidation of the co-operative movement in countries in which it was already long established and fresh ventures in those in which it is of more recent growth.

In the older countries, the movement held its ground and even made progress in spite of persistent attacks from certain groups of interests and in face of all the difficulties created by the continuance of unemployment, falling wages and prices, etc.

With few exceptions, the movement has everywhere been strong enough to resist the attacks made upon it, in particular in Austria, Belgium, Czechoslovakia, France, Great Britain and the Netherlands. Switzerland and the Netherlands must now be added to the list of countries in which this resistance is organised by committees or other bodies for joint action by all branches of the co-operative movement.

In Norway, under an Act of July 1934, the Storthing withdrew its decision of the previous year to consider the trading profits of distributive co-operative societies as taxable income.

In Switzerland, the Forty-fifth Delegate Assembly of the Co-operative Union and Wholesale Society decided to oppose the proposed amendment to the Article of the Constitution relating to the freedom of trade and industry unless provision to safeguard the rights of co-operative societies were embodied in the Article itself.

In the United States, co-operative societies have had to fight to protect their rights, prevent the adoption of measures likely to impede the progress of the movement, resist a rise in prices, and secure recognition of their legal status under the National Industrial Recovery Act.

In Japan, small retail traders, and in particular, retailers dealing in fertilisers, have carried on a violent campaign against the co-operative societies and have petitioned the Government to withdraw recognition from these organisations. While defending its economic activities, which are conducted on an entirely lawful basis, the co-operative movement has also gained fresh vigour

from this opposition for a more active pursuit of its campaign for the reconstruction of rural economic life through the co-operative organisation of the peasantry.

The fall in prices and wages has affected turnover both directly and indirectly, in the case of rural purchasing or marketing societies as well as of distributive societies. Certain co-operative wholesale societies registered a decline in their sales amounting to 0.7 per cent. in Scotland, 0.9 per cent. in England, 6.8 per cent. in Czechoslovakia (V.D.P.), 7.2 per cent. in Austria, 7.3 per cent. in Hungary, 17.6 per cent. in Germany, and 18.5 per cent. in Poland. This fall in the value of the turnover, however, was sometimes accompanied by an increase in its quantity; moreover, in most cases the turnover of these organisations increased both in quantity and in value between 1932 and 1933. The Swiss Wholesale Society showed an increase of 1.4 per cent, the Belgian 1.8 per cent., the Swedish 2 per cent., the Bulgarian 4.07 per cent., the O.T.K. of Finland 5.1 per cent., the French 8.04 per cent., the Norwegian 11.1 per cent., the Danish 12.3 per cent., the Netherlands 15.6 per cent., and lastly, that of Palestine 32.9 per cent.

The data for the first half of the trading year 1934 already received from Finland, Palestine, the Netherlands and Sweden confirm the upward trend of the trading figures and show a marked improvement on the previous year, amounting to 2.5 per cent. in Poland, 9 per cent. in England and 9.2 per cent. in Scotland.

In a number of countries there was a decline in the loans and advances made by rural co-operative credit societies as compared with previous years. In Finland, for instance, the number of loans granted by rural credit funds was 11 per cent. lower than in 1932-1933. On the other hand, the deposits and total turnover of these organisations are still on the increase.

In Denmark, the aggregate turnover of the producing and marketing co-operative societies rose from 1,079 million kroner to 1,098 million kroner. The major part of this increase was due to a rise in the productive value of the co-operative dairies. There was, however, a decline in the turnover of the butter exporting societies, and the same is true of the Central Co-operative Society for the Supply of Fertilisers, which showed a decline of 11 million kroner; but all the other co-operative purchasing organisations held their own or even made progress.

In Italy, the co-operative societies for the sale of fruit and vegetables, which have hitherto confined their attention mainly to export, have managed to adapt themselves to the changed conditions of the international market and have also developed their home trade.

In several countries there has been a marked increase in the number of co-operative societies. In Yugoslavia they numbered 8,227 at the end of 1933, an increase of 2,815 on the figure for the end of 1928, which is regarded as the last year when agricultural prices were comparatively high. In Germany there was a signal increase in the number of rural co-operative societies, except

credit societies, owing to the creation of 3,245 new agricultural co-operative societies, co-operative dairies alone accounting for 2,237 of this number.

As was pointed out in the last issue of the *Year-Book*, [1] it is in periods of depression that members are most faithful to their societies and that new recruits are most numerous. Hence, except in certain countries such as Germany, the membership of the co-operative societies has also shown an upward movement, this tendency being confirmed by the data received from Denmark, Finland, France, Great Britain, Italy, Japan, the Netherlands, Norway, Palestine, Scotland, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkey and the United States.

The part played by co-operative organisations, and in particular rural co-operative societies, in Government schemes of all kinds to reform, organise and reconstruct the economic life of their countries is becoming more and more important year by year. Some typical examples of the valuable help afforded by the co-operative movement in the general work of economic organisation are the part played by the wheat-storing societies in France in protecting the wheat market under the various Acts and Decrees of 1933 and 1934; the decisive rôle of the co-operative organisations in Czechoslovakia through the Czechoslovak Grain Company created under the Decree of 13 July 1934, which holds the sole rights to buy up on the national market import and export wheat, rye, barley, oats, maize, oil cake, bran, bruised wheat, and washed and dried beetroot waste; the important part played by the Central Co-operative Import and Export Society in Rumania in organising the wheat market; and also, in a different sphere, the share which has devolved on co-operative societies of all kinds in Italy in applying some of the measures taken against unemployment.

In countries in which the co-operative movement is of more recent growth the year 1934 saw further developments in legislation, sometimes resulting from the progress of the co-operative movement and sometimes marking its inception. In China, for instance, an Act passed by the Legislative Council in February 1934 represents the first attempt to give a legal status to co-operative societies. In Persia, under a recent Act, the Agricultural and Industrial Credit Bank was instructed to promote the organisation of co-operative societies. In the Union of South Africa, a proclamation which came into force on 1 November 1934 provides for the setting up of Native co-operative credit societies and of a Central Committee for these societies. In Mexico, agricultural credit was organised under an Act of 7 February 1934. In the United States an Act of 26 June 1934 provided for the organisation on a Federal basis of co-operative credit for persons of small means.

In the international field the two salient events of the year were the Sixteenth International Congress of Agriculture, which

[1] Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1933*, p. 325.

met in Budapest in June 1934, and the Fourteenth Congress of the International Co-operative Alliance, held in London in September 1934.

Following its usual practice, the International Congress of Agriculture devoted part of its discussions to problems of agricultural co-operation. It adopted a resolution pointing out the importance attached in the agricultural world to the progressive improvement of statistics of agricultural co-operative organisations, and also pronounced itself in favour of a thorough co-operative organisation of producers of dairy products in each country, and international collaboration between the national bodies through a special sub-committee for milk production to be set up within the special sub-committee on Agricultural Co-operation of the International Commission of Agriculture.

The Congress of the International Co-operative Alliance afforded that body an opportunity of reviewing its own activities during the past three years and those of its auxiliary societies, namely, the International Co-operative Wholesale Society, the International Co-operative Banking Committee, the Insurance Committee of the International Co-operative Alliance, and the International Co-operative Women's Guild, and of laying down lines of policy for the future. After adopting the report of the General Secretary and considering another report on the application of Rochdale principles at the present time, it decided to organise any investigations and exchanges of information necessary for the planning and definition of all methods of organising spare time that are within the compass of the co-operative movement, and finally adopted a stimulating report on the share in current economic developments devolving on the international co-operative movement.

The International Committee for Inter-Co-operative Relations, a joint organ of the International Co-operative Alliance and the International Commission of Agriculture, held two sessions during 1934.

Its investigations have borne principally on the various types of inter-co-operative relations and on certain kinds of mixed undertakings.

In connection with its enquiry into the milk-marketing schemes in England, Northern Ireland and Scotland and the operation of the co-operative wheat-storing societies in France, the Committee's attention was drawn to the desirability of studying the various forms of Government intervention in the organisation of the marketing and distribution of agricultural products, examining the effects of this intervention on the development of co-operative organisations and on inter-co-operative relations, and considering the methods of joint action by agricultural societies and distributive co-operative organisations which it might render advisable.

To round off a series of enquiries carried out with the help of various organisations affiliated to the International Co-operative Alliance and the International Commission of Agriculture, the Committee drafted a number of recommendations concerning all

forms of joint action and agreement, in particular, contractual or organic relations, which can be realised between agricultural and distributive co-operative organisations for a better regulation of local, national, and international markets in the common interests of the producers and consumers of agricultural products.

The Committee approved likewise a draft arrangement between the International Co-operative Wholesale Society and the International Commission of Agriculture. Under this arrangement, which was recently confirmed by both parties, the International Co-operative Wholesale Society, to which practically all the national wholesale societies of Europe are affiliated, has undertaken to put into touch with its own members the exporting agricultural co-operative organisations belonging to the Co-operative Committee of the International Commission of Agriculture.

CHAPTER VIII

SPECIAL PROBLEMS OF CERTAIN CATEGORIES OF WORKERS

Salaried Employees

Among the questions to which the Advisory Committee on Salaried Employees drew attention during its second session, in March 1933, were the reduction of the hours of work of salaried employees as a means of creating new opportunities of employment and the question of holidays with pay for salaried employees. The first of these came up for discussion at the International Labour Conference in June 1934; the second is on the Agenda of the 1935 Conference.

A summary of the work connected with these two questions will be found in the chapter dealing with conditions of work [1].

During 1934 the International Labour Office took up the study of a number of other questions in preparation for the meeting of the Advisory Committee to be held early in 1935. These questions, which the international organisations of salaried employees requested the Office to study, are:

The protection of young salaried employees (vocational training);
The admission of foreign salaried employees (agreements between certain States for exchanges of employees);
The legal position of commercial and industrial travellers and representatives;
Conditions of employment of bank employees.

The reports prepared by the Office contained detailed surveys of the legislation and regulations in force in the different countries; these will provide the organisations and administrative bodies concerned with the material for interesting comparisons, and will at the same time enable the Advisory Committee, if it thinks fit, to suggest to the Governing Body the principles that might later form the basis of a system of international regulations.

In almost every country the characteristic feature of the salaried employees' movement during 1934 was the desire to obtain some

[1] See above, Chapter II, under " Hours of Work of Salaried Employees " and " Annual Holidays with Pay ".

protective measures against unemployment. The international organisations have had to draw up their programmes of demands in the light of the situation resulting from the depression, and most of the reforms for which they are agitating aim at reducing unemployment or mitigating its effects.

At its Congress on 29 and 30 May 1934, the International Federation of Christian Unions of Salaried Employees urged the establishment in all countries of schemes of compulsory insurance against unemployment, operating with the assistance of salaried employees' unions. The Congress considered, however, that relief should be granted to unemployed persons after they had exhausted their rights under the insurance systems. The Congress further laid down principles for regulating the admission of alien salaried employees. As it appeared impossible to attain absolute liberty of immigration and settlement for the time being, the Congress urged all countries concerned to settle this problem by international agreement, and in the most liberal possible manner. Specially favourable treatment should be granted to those who entered a foreign country for a short stay in order to complete their vocational and linguistic training. The occupational organisations of salaried employees should be asked to co-operate in drafting such international agreements. The hope was also expressed that employers' organisations would appreciate more fully and give more encouragement to the vocational training of salaried employees, and that an investigation would be made into the possibility of increasing the period of compulsory education, on the basis of vocational and domestic training for girls and technical training for boys.

The International Federation of Commercial, Clerical and Technical Employees, at its Congress on 12 and 13 July 1934, adopted various suggestions for strengthening its action for the spread of social progress. It decided to promote the creation of regional groups within the Federation, on the lines of those founded in 1918 and 1932 by the Scandinavian and Central European salaried employees' organisations respectively. The objects of the groups are: to hold enquiries on social legislation, to take joint action in defence of salaried employees' interests, and to secure representation for them on committees and other bodies. It was suggested that the affiliated organisations should enquire into the changes in the position of non-manual workers as a result of recent changes in methods of production and marketing, so that the International Federation could have reliable information on which to base its policy of action on behalf of its members, more especially those of them who were unemployed.

During the above Congress, delegates of the organisations representing commercial travellers held a special conference, at which the unsatisfactory position of this group in most countries was discussed. Special attention was paid to their status under social legislation and, in particular, under unemployment insurance schemes. The affiliated organisations agreed on the necessity for a legal definition

of the profession of commercial travellers and representatives. They also emphasised the necessity for regulating the conditions of work of representatives engaged on a commission basis—first of all, by the payment of a fixed minimum rate of remuneration.

The International Association of Commercial Travellers held a Congress from 6 to 8 September 1934, at which it decided to devote all its efforts to improving the position of representatives paid on a commission basis. It requested the affiliated groups to submit memoranda to the competent authorities and to bring pressure to bear upon employers in commerce, industry and the crafts and on parliamentary groups to have legislation passed making the refund of travelling expenses compulsory. The Association also decided to set up an international employment agency.

The International Federation of Independent Salaried Employees' Trade Unions continues actively to support its affiliated associations in demanding the necessary legislative measures for relieving unemployment and improving the conditions of work of salaried employees.

Although all these international organisations have suffered severe losses in membership through the withdrawal of the former Austrian and German organisations, they have been able to keep on their main activities along the traditional lines, if on a somewhat smaller scale than in the past.

The movements of opinion in certain countries in favour of organisation on a corporative basis have gained no ground among the independent salaried employees' organisations. The attitude of the International Federation of Christian Unions of Salaried Employees to the question was defined in the following resolution, passed at its Congress in May 1934:

> The Congress, after examining the attempts of various countries to regulate relations between employers and employees on the basis of a so-called corporative organisation, reaffirms its unshakable attachment to the Christian principles which the Federation has taken as the basis of its activity, and declares in particular that the effective application of Christian justice and charity constitute an essential condition of any lasting improvement in social relations.
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> The worker, like any other human being, possesses natural rights of which the State cannot deprive him, and among which are personal freedom and freedom of association; these liberties are not unlimited, their exercise being conditioned by respect for lawful authority and the requirements of the common good; the Congress condemns all systems, of whatever nature, which seek to abolish, in fact if not in law, the liberty of salaried employees to combine in occupational associations for the defence of their common interests; this defence in no way entails the class war, which has always been condemned by the Christian trade unions, but is intended to lead to frank and loyal co-operation between all the elements in production.
>
> The Congress considers that the reform of the economic and social system, the faults of which are only too obvious, has become urgent, but it regards as dangerous and ineffective any reform resulting from materialist views or involving undue extension of the powers of the community.
>
> The Congress therefore declares itself in favour of the following: (1) the establishment of an economic and social system which, while respecting the natural rights of man and making a wide appeal to spiritual forces, should

secure under the supervision of the authorities, and with their co-operation in so far as private enterprise proved inadequate, a better utilisation of raw materials and a more efficient organisation of production, distribution and consumption; (2) systematic co-operation between employers and workers, involving among other things an equitable share for the workers in the produce of their labour, and their gradual admission to take part in the management of undertakings and economic activities in general.

Finally, the Congress urges that in all these reforms account should be taken of the importance and the special needs of salaried employees as an occupational group.

The International Labour Office, in addition to endeavouring to supply the salaried employees' organisations with any information they require, keeps in constant touch with the organisations of the staffs of administrative offices and public services. During 1934 these organisations continued their struggle against the salary cuts in the civil service that have been forced on most Governments by financial difficulties. The Office has also been studying various questions on which it will consult the experts who have previously advised it on problems concerning public servants.

Professional Workers

The economic situation of professional workers grew steadily worse during 1934. There is scarcely a country or profession that did not suffer severely. Consequently, the organisations of these workers were concerned mainly with the increasing restriction of their possibilities of employment and the serious situation that this implies. Other questions had to pass into the background or are of urgent importance only so far as they are bound up with the problem of unemployment.

Unemployment

It s still as impossible as in previous years to procure numerical data concerning unemployment among professional workers. Only a few isolated indications can be obtained from simple investigations by the organisations concerned or from statistics of the number of holders of diplomas. Otherwise only general estimates are available, and they are rarely expressed in figures (altho ugh it may be mentioned that the number of unemployed profes sional workers in Finland in the middle of 1934 was said to be 5,000, and the number of certificated engineers unemployed in Fran ce was put at 15,000, or 30 per cent. of the total number in the profession). But practically everywhere reports show that unemployment is on the increase, sometimes weighing to an intolerable extent on the members of certain professions. There are only a few countr es, in the midst of a process of development, or a few special professio ns in certain districts that are immune from unemployment. For e xample, in the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics the demand for

engineers and doctors is so great that measures are being taken to increase the number of students training for these careers.

The reactions of the liberal professions, and more especially of their organisations, to the unemployment menace take three main forms, two of which have been studied already in earlier editions of the *Year-Book*, while the third is only now beginning to become known, but its first manifestations have aroused such interest among professional men that there may well be some future for it.

The first action taken by the organisations, often with the assistance of the public authorities, was to procure emergency relief for unemployed professional workers. This form of activity has continued, especially in the case of associations with long-established funds, like the Actors' Equity Association in the United States, which had by 1 May 1934 distributed some 567,000 dollars by way of relief. As the depression developed, it became more difficult to keep such funds going, and many of them have had to abandon their activities.

In addition to providing pecuniary relief, the organisations try to find employment for their members. In the Netherlands, the organisations of professional women workers have decided to set up an information and employment agency. The Chinese Government has organised an agency of this kind and invited all the colleges and universities in the country to establish branches. In Switzerland, the Federal authorities, acting in concert with the organisations of artistes and of employers, have set up a joint employment agency for professional musicians.

Side by side with the provision of relief and of placing facilities, action is being taken by the organisations in most countries to prevent overcrowding in the professions, to delimit them more exactly and to improve their internal organisation. The campaign against overcrowding takes a number of forms, aiming sometimes at reducing the number of recruits to the profession, sometimes at keeping out amateurs and unqualified persons, sometimes again at protecting national workers against foreign competition.

The principal method of defence against new recruits is to increase the number and difficulty of the examinations, thus eliminating many candidates. In Germany, for instance, not only have the conditions for admission to higher educational institutions been tightened up, but the examinations have been made more difficult in certain professions, such as veterinary surgery, for which the course of study was reorganised by an Order of 31 August.

Numerous national and international organisations of professional workers have urged the necessity for protection of this kind. The Council of the Rumanian Federation of Professional Workers' Associations advocates a strict selection of pupils proceeding to intermediate studies. The first Congress of Swedish students expressed the view that access to the universities should be made more difficult. The International Midwives' Union, at a meeting held in May, proposed a system of preliminary examinations that would eliminate a proportion of the candidates for their profession.

The International Congress on Technical Education, noting the overcrowded state of the engineering profession, urged that admission to technical colleges should be made more difficult. Another measure that is sometimes taken is to withhold the assistance normally offered to young persons to facilitate their studies. The Belgian University Foundation, for example, fearing increased unemployment, has reduced the number of scholarships granted to needy students. Generally speaking, however, it is felt that the system of scholarships should rather be extended to mitigate the harmful consequences for students of the prolongation of studies and economic hardships. In some cases the system of the *numerus clausus* has been tried: in Germany, the number of students to be admitted to universities in 1934 was fixed at 15,000, or just about half the usual figure.

In addition to restricting the influx of recruits, the various professions have also been struggling against the competition of amateurs, semi-professionals and pseudo-professionals. There is a tendency for the professions to become more or less closed bodies, access to which is governed by definite rules. Sometimes it is the organisations themselves that try to define the conditions to be fulfilled by genuine members of the profession and endeavour to stifle amateur competition by propaganda, by negotiations with employers or by collective agreements. The " closed shop " system, for example, by which the British Actors' Association endeavours to close the stage to all non-organised actors, is in some sense a step towards the system of closing the profession entirely.

In many cases the members call for legislation to regulate the exercise of certain professions. On 28 April the Rumanian Chamber passed an Act prohibiting persons from exercising the profession of actor unless they were members of the Union of Dramatic and Operatic Artistes, which issues licences in accordance with strict rules. The President of the German Chamber of Music has issued an Order laying down very stringent conditions concerning the employment of amateurs in musical performances.

Under this same head, reference may be made to the widespread movement for the protection of titles, especially those of architect and engineer. Efforts are being made in this direction in most countries. In Germany, for instance, as recently as September, an Order was issued laying down special conditions for obtaining the title of architect and denying the right to exercise the profession to those who have no title. A Bill to regulate the use of the title of " engineer " came before the Belgian Senate in November. Brazil passed legislation in July and October 1934 concerning the granting and use of the titles of chemist and agricultural engineer; persons obtaining diplomas by means of correspondence courses are not permitted to exercise these professions. A Bill for the protection of architects' titles has been submitted to the French Parliament, and an Order on the same subject was issued in Rumania in May.

The spread of the corporative system in Austria, Germany,

Italy and Portugal also tends to improve the internal organisation of the professions and strictly limit their membership. This work of definition and organisation has led, in Germany, to the establishment of three new professional bodies, covering respectively hygiene and public health, law and the sciences, and general educational work. Some 440,000 professional workers are thus organised.

In addition to the measures already described, certain efforts are being made to prevent foreign competition in the professions, and this trend grew much more marked during 1934. Apart from restrictions on immigration, which affect foreign manual and non-manual workers alike, special measures have been enacted in some countries with regard to professional workers, and many national organisations are urging the authorities to grant them protection of this kind: doctors in Brazil and France, engineers and architects, and musicians in Rumania. An Act of 16 July in the last-named country made an appreciable reduction in the percentage of foreign technical and administrative staff that undertakings are permitted to engage. Even in professions already closed to foreigners, more stringent measures are being proposed. A Bill submitted to the French Chamber of Deputies proposes to prohibit the practice of the medical profession to naturalised foreigners for ten years from the date of naturalisation. And these are only some of the more obvious manifestations of a tendency that generally finds expression in a tightening up of the enforcement of existing regulations concerning residence and labour permits.

Such, then, were the main reactions of the professional organisations to the first onset of unemployment: relief to the unemployed; placing within the limits of the existing possibilities of employment; professions becoming more self-contained and opposing the admission of young members, irregularly recruited persons and foreigners. All these forms of defence developed during 1934.

But there is still another reaction, which has so far taken shape in two or three countries only, but which, as was said, has aroused considerable interest in professional circles and is therefore likely to spread to some extent.

Since the depression, contrary to expectations, had come to be almost a chronic state, and since it began to be realised that even in the event of a general economic revival the existing discrepancies between the supply of and the demand for professional labour might probably continue, some organisations felt that the measures hitherto used to remedy unemployment were entirely inadequate. It was even suggested that some of these measures cut both ways and did not really bring the solution of the problem any nearer. In any case, it was held that, in addition to restricting, or at least preventing an increase in, the output of intellectual work, it would be desirable to increase consumption—in other words, to create fresh openings for intellectual workers.

One side of this idea is the organisation, by private philanthropic institutions or by the public authorities, of temporary relief work.

But its other, and essentially new, side is the effort to enhance the prestige of professional work in the mind of the general public and to lay the foundations for a permanent extension of the demand for professional services. It is difficult to distinguish exactly between employment that is temporary both in its utility and in its financial backing and employment calculated to make a permanent change in the labour market. To whichever group they belong, these measures, more or less boldly adopted by the professional organisations or by the public authorities in several countries, certainly introduce a new weapon for combating unemployment—at least in the field of professional work.

In China, the University Graduates' Alliance has asked the Government to establish an adequate placing system and also to draw up a programme of intellectual work, including the extension of the Academia Sinica. The Minister of Education has requested the universities to provide him with an annual list of graduates, so that the Government can find posts for them. The German Federal Institution for Employment Exchanges and Unemployment Insurance decided in February 1934 to spend 400,000 RM. in launching a programme of scientific work of public utility. In Hungary, several hundred professional workers have found employment in the reorganised industrial inspection service. The Government has also decided to create an agricultural adviser's post in every village, thus providing new vacancies for many agricultural engineers. In Italy, the Fascist Confederation of Professional Workers has several times appealed to the Government to reserve all the available opportunities of employment for professional workers with the necessary qualifications, and to create new openings, more especially by making it compulsory for all local authorities to have a certain medical staff. The Polish Federation of Professional Workers, supported by the authorities, the insurance institutions and the Employment Fund, has undertaken a vast scheme for the reorganisation of all professional work throughout the country along new lines. A special Institute has been set up for this purpose, with adequate funds. Its duties are: (1) to study unemployment systematically; (2) to train professional workers for careers other than their previous ones; (3) to create fresh employment in fields that have not so far made much appeal to professional workers. The Institute is drawing up a general programme of work, including a propaganda campaign urging the population, especially in rural districts, to use the services of professional men. Thus the Federation, far from trying to restrict the supply of professional workers, is working systematically for a better distribution of employment and the permanent opening up of new fields.

In the United States, professional workers have not been neglected in the recovery programme. Part of the money voted for the revival of economic activity is being used for their benefit. The University of Columbia, for example, has engaged 500 professional workers for research work, and the agricultural and forestry

stations and laboratories have been extended. Important surveying and map-making schemes have been set on foot. The preparation of the new economic and social statistics (commerce, purchasing power, urban and rural housing, etc.) required by the Government in connection with its economic policy has also provided work for many who were unemployed. Many schools that were closed on account of the depression have been re-opened and new ones built, thus providing work for 40,000 unemployed professional workers. The development of social policy in the field of hygiene has also provided employment for 10,000 nurses. As the result of an enquiry made into the cost of medical attendance, doctors are now discussing the possibility of reorganising the whole public health system, extending insurance, and grouping the doctors round the hospital services within each area; in this way the demand for medical services and, consequently, the openings for medical men and hygienists might be greatly increased.

In the international field, also, the importance of such remedies is being more widely recognised. The *Year-Book* for 1933 referred to the views of the International Confederation of Professional Workers on this subject. At its 1934 Congress the Confederation defined its attitude when it stated that, in addition to mere remedies for the depression that cannot be incorporated in any stable, permanent system, the special problem of unemployment among professional workers should be linked up with the wider problem affecting all workers and measures should be entertained for the reorganisation of the economic system as a whole—in particular, the reduction of hours of work.

Organisation of the Professions

The grouping of professional workers in organisations continues steadily in the various countries. Information on recent corporative developments in Austria, Germany and Italy will be found elsewhere [1]. The changes made in Italy in 1934 included the transfer of theatrical artistes to the Corporation for the entertainment industry by Decrees of 23 June. In Brazil, the Decree of 12 July, containing new regulations concerning trade associations, authorise professional workers to form associations, even if they are employed in an undertaking administered by the Federal Government, a Federal State or a municipality. This privilege is not enjoyed by civil servants in the narrower sense. A Confederation of Professional Workers is now being set up in that country. The trade association regulations promulgated in Bulgaria in September provide that professional workers, like all others, may form an organisation, but it must be a single one for the whole country. It is further provided, however, that manual and non-manual workers may not belong to the same organisation even if

[1] See above, Chapter VII, under " Right of Combination in Trade Unions."

they work in the same undertaking. In Great Britain, the two main organisations of teachers have amalgamated to form one association of some 180,000 members. A large association of doctors, the Medical Practitioners' Union, with a membership of almost 5,000, has become affiliated to the Trades Union Congress. This is expected to prove beneficial to the members in a variety of ways, more especially in their dealings with municipal authorities. In the United States the trend in favour of organisation among professional workers is becoming more marked. Journalists have formed an association, the American Newspapers Guild, the membership of which in 1934 rose to 10,000 out of the 24,000 journalists in the country.

In the international field, a meeting of the International Federation of Experts was held to prepare the fourth international congress of their profession. The Italian Association of Commercial Experts was admitted to the Federation. The German National Union of Experts was represented at the meeting but could not yet definitely agree to become affiliated.

The International Federation of Journalists held its Fifth Biennial Congress in Brussels in October, when the policy of the Federation was defined with regard to a number of problems of the profession, such as authors' rights, the position of correspondents in foreign countries, and the freedom of the press. The American Newspapers Guild was admitted to membership of the Federation.

The International Confederation of Professional Workers held its twelfth Congress in London in September. In addition to the question of unemployment already referred to, the Congress dealt with the problem of the protection of the title of architect, the questions to be discussed at the Brussels Conference for the revision of the Berne Convention, and the question of freedom of association, which the Congress decided should in future be a fundamental condition for the affiliation of national organisations to the Confederation.

The National Fascist Union of Italian Engineers took the initiative in setting up a new international organisation—the European Federation of Certified Engineers, which was established at a meeting held in Rome in March 1934 and attended by delegates from ten countries (Austria, Belgium, France, Hungary, Italy, Lithuania, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland and Yugoslavia). The new Federation will deal with all technical and professional questions affecting engineers.

Home Work

The legislative authorities in Germany and in the United States have been studying the problem of home work, but the policy of the two countries in the matter is by no means identical. In the United States it is held that the surest way of overcoming the evil social consequences of this form of work is to prohibit it entirely;

the proposed legislation is therefore only provisional in character. In Germany, on the other hand, home work is still considered as having its proper place in the social and economic system, and a new Act has been passed to secure permanent protection for home workers.

Germany. — It was pointed out in the *Year-Book* for 1933 [1] that the National Labour Regulation Act of 20 January 1934 had radically altered the legal status of home workers. The joint boards that regulated wages under the former legislation were abolished, and home workers are now considered as part of the staff of an undertaking for the purpose of the election of confidential councillors [2], provided always that most of their home work is done for one undertaking. The wages of home workers can be fixed by collective rules drawn up by the labour trustees [3].

But most of the provisions of the above-mentioned Act are inapplicable to home workers, who usually work in isolation; special legislation adapted to their conditions of work is therefore necessary. This is the purpose of the Act of 23 March 1934, which replaces the 1911 Act, the latter having ceased to have any meaning once the joint boards were abolished.

The new Act, after defining its scope, deals successively with general protective measures, hours of work, accident prevention and hygiene, the fixing and payment of wages, and penalties.

The preamble to the new Act points out that hundreds of thousands of persons earn their living, poor though it may be, by home work, and it is only through home work that some exporting industries can find markets. Moreover, the social and other conditions of home work vary very widely in different occupations and districts. In some districts home work produces high quality goods, both production and sales being well organised. In other parts it is merely a subsidiary occupation for peasants who cannot make enough out of their holding to meet their needs. Again, there are some people who cannot work in factories—disabled persons and certain of the deserving poor— for whom home work is the only possible source of earnings.

The Act covers all home workers, even if they employ assistants, not exceeding two in number, who are not members of their family. When persons employing more than two workers are in a position of economic dependence, they may be assimilated to home workers at the discretion of the Minister of Labour or the labour trustee. Assimilation is also possible in the case of middlemen who give out to home workers work that they have undertaken on behalf of industrialists, and in the case of other persons in a similar position.

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[1] Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1933*, p. 342.

[2] See above, Chapter VII, under " Profit-sharing and Workers' Participation in Management ".

[3] See above, Chapter VII, under " Collective Agreements ".

Employers must keep and post up lists of the workers they employ, keep a detailed register of the wages paid, open to inspection by those concerned, and provide the workers with pay-books, to be shown to the labour inspectors or labour trustees on request.

The Minister of Labour may order, for a given industry or industries, that any person wishing to employ home workers must notify the authorities and that only persons in possession of an employment card issued by the employment exchange may be employed at home.

Hours of work are regulated indirectly, since the Act limits the quantity of work that may be entrusted to a single person for payment in accordance with the pay-book.

The provisions concerning hygiene and accident prevention are merely an outline of general principles, to be expanded later in the form of administrative orders. The Minister of Labour may order certain measures to be taken in specified industries or for specified groups of workers; he may prohibit dangerous work, prohibit the employment of children or raise the minimum age for admission to employment on home work [1].

The most important part of the Act deals with the fixing of wages. Under the National Labour Regulation Act the labour trustees are responsible for this task, but the Home Work Act ignores this principle and states merely that the labour trustees may intervene only when home work is fairly extensive and the wages paid are clearly inadequate. As a general rule, then, minimum wages are fixed automatically, and it is thus possible to retain and supplement, by collective rules, many of the decisions of the old joint boards for fixing minimum wages.

An employer is held directly liable for the workers' wages at the prescribed rates if he pays a middleman a sum obviously insufficient to provide them with the remuneration laid down in collective rules for home workers. The labour trustees, conjointly with the labour inspectors, are responsible for supervising the payment of wages. Those concerned must supply the authorities with any information they require.

As under the older legislation, a special system of fines exists for failure to pay the fixed minimum wage rates. The labour trustee may, however, deduct from the fine the amount of the wages due to the worker if the employer has in the interval actually paid this amount.

The labour trustee may prohibit the employment of home workers by industrialists or other persons who have several times been found guilty of offences against the Act or punished by fines under the special system.

United States. — Many of the codes issued under the National Industrial Recovery Act apply equally to home work. Most of them simply prohibit it entirely or as from a certain date (codes

[1] Orders issued under the earlier legislation remain in force.

concerning artificial flowers and feathers, coat and suit making, millinery, rubber sundries, watchcase manufacturing, etc.). In other codes it is permitted on certain conditions (e.g. subject to supervision, reports to authorities, etc.). In yet others, home work must be reduced to a certain percentage (e.g. code for leather and woollen knit gloves). In a few codes provision is made for fixing wages.

These restrictions have caused some difficulties. One question that was raised was whether persons who were unable to work in factories were to be deprived of their former employment. This point was met by an Executive Order, promulgated by the President on 15 May 1934, concerning the interpretation and application of the provisions of the codes referring to home work. Notwithstanding the prohibition of home work in the codes, any person can obtain permission from the proper authority to work at home if he is physically incapable of working in a factory or other usual workplace, provided he is not suffering from a contagious disease. Permission may also be granted to a person who must remain at home because his services are indispensable to some sick or disabled person who is not suffering from a contagious disease. This Order does not apply to the food and drink trades, in which the production and handling of food products at home is prohibited by the codes.

The movement for the unification of the labour legislation of all the States of the Union has led to a series of conferences of representatives of the States. In 1934, after a limited conference of delegates of several of the Eastern States, a conference of delegates of all the States was convened by the Secretary of Labour and held in Washington on 14 and 15 February.

The question of home work was on the agenda of both these Conferences. The first Conference recommended the conclusion of an inter-State agreement guaranteeing the abolition of home work in all the signatory States within three years. Until that was achieved there should be effective supervision. Employers should have to pay a special licence fee in respect of every person employed at home and should have to submit reports at regular intervals showing, for each home worker, name, address, age and wages paid. Hygienic conditions, hours of work, minimum wages and accident prevention should be on the same level as for factory workers, the employer being held responsible.

The Washington Conference also reported in favour of the abolition of home work. It considered that this might best be accomplished by regulations assuring to the home worker the same standards of wage and working conditions as are established for the worker in the factory. It recommended that wherever possible State home-work legislation be enacted to embody the following standards:

(1) Any place in which home work is done must be licensed and inspected to ensure suitability as a workplace and freedom from communicable disease.

(2) Every home worker should be certified.

(3) Employers giving out home work must be licensed at least annually and must keep complete registers of all home workers.

(4) Employers should be held responsible for violation of the home-work law and other labour laws such as compensation, child labour, hours, and minimum wage laws.

(5) Employers of home workers should defray all the costs of adequate home-work regulations, either through licence fees, or a tax on articles manufactured at home, or both.

Since one of the aspects of the problem of home work which is difficult of State control is the sending of goods for home-work manufacture across State lines, the Conference further recommended that the Federal Department of Labor be asked to investigate the extent and nature of the passage of home-work goods in inter-State commerce and explore the possibilities of Federal legislation to control this practice.

The same principles were approved at a conference of representatives of various bodies concerned with social legislation, which was held at Washington in December 1934.

Agricultural Workers

General Remarks: Economic Position of Agriculture

During 1934, for the first time for five or six years, the agricultural situation improved, so that the beginning of a recovery in values and incomes and a return to more stable conditions — so essential to an industry like agriculture, which cannot rapidly adjust itself to changed circumstances — may now be expected.

The fall in the rate of ouput registered for almost all the most important agricultural products had a favourable effect on existing surplus stocks and on prices. The world production (excluding the U.S.S.R.) of wheat — the most important cereal as far as international trade is concerned — was 903 million metric quintals in 1934, as against 988 million in 1933 and an annual average of 1,012 million for the period 1928-1932. The quantities available for export from the great producing countries were smaller than in preceding years, and in certain countries known as exporters the 1934 production fell below the demands of consumers, so that stock could be reduced. The following table shows the movement of wheat prices on the principal export markets of the world:

Market	Currency	Unit	Average 1932-1933	Average 1933-1934	Average September 1934	Average December 1934
Chicago	cent	60 lb.	59 1/4	89 1/4	111 7/8	107
Winnipeg	,,	60 lb.	54 1/2	67 6/8	82 1/4	79 3/8
Buenos Aires	paper peso	100 kg.	6.09	5.85	7.35	6.47
Liverpool (Australian wheat)	s. d.	450 lb.	25s. 7d.	23s. 4d.	28s. 8 1/4d.	23s. 6 3/4d.
Budapest	pengö	100 kg.	13.73	9.70	16.42	16.39

The world production of rye in 1934 was 223 million metric quintals (264 million in 1933). The output of maize in Argentina and the United States fell to 419 million metric quintals, the figure having been 663 million in 1933 and as much as 814 million in 1932; on the other hand, the maize production of the Danubian countries increased slightly, from 112 million metric quintals in 1933 to 117 million in 1934.

The year's production of sugar remained at about the same level as had obtained since 1930-1931, when it fell considerably owing to the application of the international sugar plan (the " Chadbourne plan "); but the present balance between the world production and consumption of sugar is not stable. Some producing countries suffer from lack of export possibilities, while the importing countries continue their efforts to meet their own demand themselves. The upward tendency of world prices is therefore not a strong one.

The coffee production of Brazil, which provides about three-quarters of the world crop, appears to have been lower in 1934 than in 1933; the deliberate destruction of stocks continues and the price of coffee has thus been kept steady.

The world output of cotton is also on the decrease, and the stocks available in 1934-1935 will be 3 million bales less than in the preceding year. The United States is largely responsible for this reduction, the 1934 crop in that country being estimated at 9.5 million bales, against over 13 million in 1932 and 1933. The output of the other producing countries, however, rose from 13 million to 13.6 million bales.

The following table shows maximum and minimum cotton prices, in cents per lb., during recent years.

Year	Maximum	Minimum
1930	17.55	9.05
1931	11.35	5.15
1932	9.08	4.95
1933	11.63	5.46
1934 (1 Jan.–30 Nov.)	13.44	10.40

The production of potatoes was 7 per cent. higher than that of 1933, and 5 per cent. higher than the average for the period 1928-1932. Potatoes are a product with many advantages; they are easy to cultivate, are particularly fitted for direct consumption by the producer, and serve as a substitute for bread and other commodities which cannot always be procured easily.

The 1934 wine harvest was larger than that of 1933 (in France alone, the increase is estimated at 30 per cent.) and roughly equal to those of 1931 and 1932.

As regards animal products, a synthesis of the world situation is difficult to make. A general review of the available data seems to show a falling-off in pig and horse breeding and a rise in sheep breeding, while cattle breeding has increased in some countries and decreased in others. Considerable efforts have been made to curtail the increase in the raising of milch cows in the leading dairy countries, such as Denmark, the Netherlands and Switzerland, and also in the United States.

A number of increases, some of them considerable, in the prices of animal products were registered during 1934. The world price of wool has increased by 7 per cent. since 1931.

As a whole, there has been an improvement in the conditions of agricultural production, resulting in a rise in the selling price of agricultural products. In many countries the price index for these products shows an increase between November 1933 and November 1934; here are some examples arranged in order of magnitude: Great Britain, 4.4. per cent.; Germany, 7.9 per cent.; Yugoslavia (vegetable products), 10.1 per cent.; Canada and Italy, 13.2 per cent.; Argentina, 26.2 per cent.; United States, 27.5 per cent.; Hungary, 31.5 per cent. In a few countries, on the other hand, prices have fallen: by 4.5 per cent. for animal products in Yugoslavia, 5.6 per cent. in the Netherlands; 5.9 per cent. in New Zealand, and 10.6 per cent. in Poland. If all countries and products are taken together, a small increase may be distinguished.

The decrease in agricultural production which occurred in 1934 no doubt corresponds to the general wishes of farmers and to the aims of the active agrarian policy deliberately adopted in a number of countries; but it must be admitted that it was due in the first place to the unfavourable weather conditions, and only subsidiarily to measures for restricting production. This may be seen from the following figures. The general average wheat crop in 1934 was 13.1 metric quintals per hectare, as against 15.1 in 1933; while the reduction in the area sown was only 1.5 per cent. The fall in the rye crop per hectare was 15.5 per cent., though here the area was considerably reduced, by 12 per cent. As regards cotton, the bad season reduced the yield per hectare in the United States by 20 per cent., but the area under this crop was also reduced considerably. On the whole, weather conditions made themselves felt over an area far larger than that affected by the limitative policy of producers in certain States. Indeed, there are instances of

countries which, seeing the influence of natural conditions on the harvest, were thankful that they had not instituted an artificial limitation of their agricultural production.

As stated in the *Year-Book* for 1933 [1], the different countries may be divided into two groups according to the main tendency of their agrarian policy. In some—the importing countries—the aim is to secure for agriculture a greater share in the home market through a general development of agricultural production; in others—the exporting countries—the object is, by restricting production, to reduce the enormous discrepancy between the world supply and demand of a given agricultural commodity. This last tendency is difficult to control and is not without disadvantages. The bad harvest of 1934 showed the danger of a restrictive policy; and at the same time the pronounced expansion of the cultivation of certain crops in the non-exporting countries has shown the difficulty of controlling agricultural production where the regulating factor, the world market, is deprived of influence. But though the new agrarian policy in its numerous and diverse forms is still everywhere at the experimental stage, there is no sign of a tendency to abandon it and return to former methods. On the contrary, planned economy in agriculture continues to win over new countries and commodities. Instances are the French Acts of 24 December 1934, relating, one to the reduction of wheat stocks and the regulation of planting, and the other to the reduction of wine stocks and the elimination of bad quality vines, and also the steps taken to restrict market gardening in the Netherlands.

The above remarks apply with equal force to the international market in agricultural products, though its future is far from clear. The efforts already made to extend the operation of the International Wheat Agreement, which was concluded in London in August 1933 and is due to expire at the end of July 1935, have not yet borne fruit; and the same applies to the reapplication of the Chadbourne Sugar Plan. A Convention relating to the production and export of rubber has, however, been concluded by the Asiatic producing countries.

The agricultural situation in general may have improved and seems to be in course of stabilisation, though this is not true of all countries; but a satisfactory or even tolerable position is still very far off. The agricultural depression is a sign, not only of the slump phase of an economic cycle, but also of a structural crisis brought on partly by long-standing causes of which agriculture is now feeling the accumulated effect.

Among the questions which the depression raises, mention should perhaps first be made of that grave problem—agricultural indebtedness. Steps have been taken in nearly every country to mitigate the effects of the regrettable situation which has arisen here; some of them aim at protecting the peasant proprietor or

[1] Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1933*, p. 344.

farmer against attachment of his goods by creditors; others at reducing interest rates; others again at enabling debtors to make composition arrangements or at converting short-term into long-term debts; and in still other countries attempts are being made to secure reduction of the sums owed. Most of these measures are, however, of a provisional nature, a final solution of the problem of agricultural indebtedness being postponed until conditions have unmistakably improved; the future organisation of credit for cultivators depends on the solution then adopted.

The question of rural over-population, which in some countries, has attracted attention for many years, is now everywhere demanding an answer. The improvement in the position of manufacturing industry has not provided additional employment for the surplus rural population which agriculture cannot normally absorb; on the contrary, there is a growing movement to seek in the countryside a complete or partial livelihood for the still numerous unemployed from the towns. Each country is exploring its every remaining possibility of settlement, and in many the means of making radical changes in the present land tenure system are being examined.

Agricultural workers have shared in the benefits accruing from the general improvement in the position of agriculture. The fall in wages has stopped nearly everywhere, and in many countries some of the ground lost is being regained. Agricultural unemployment has clearly diminished. But these improvements have not always been an automatic result of a general recovery; indeed, in a great number of countries Governments have been obliged to take steps to encourage employment, particularly of the young, by subsidising those agricultural employers who take on labour for considerable periods. Governments have also intervened with a view to fixing wage rates and so ensured that the workers receive a fair share of the sums allotted to agriculture in the form of subsidies.

But the changes in the structure of agriculture have also had their effect on the position of the workers. Wage-earning employment is tending to become seasonal, and married workers and those of middle age find it difficult to obtain a permanent livelihood. In the countries where this tendency is strongest, a solution is being sought in an abandonment of the system of pure wage labour in agriculture in favour of one in which the workers share both the employer's risks and the profit accruing from the harvest.

Realisation of the social character of the agricultural problem appears to have had a stimulating effect on social legislation in this field; and despite the depression there has been more activity here than in previous years. The question of rural housing has had particular attention, for a wide improvement in this respect is not only essential from a social and hygienic point of view, but also figures largely in many public works schemes to combat unemployment.

STRUCTURE OF THE INDUSTRY: LAND SETTLEMENT, EMPLOYMENT AND POPULATION

Organisation of Agriculture

The sixteenth *International Congress of Agriculture* (Budapest, 14-18 June 1934) resolved that in order to revive world economic activity it is even more necessary to raise the purchasing power of the peasants than of industrial workers and salaried employees, and that this policy will contribute to the common good of the whole population because the increased demand thus created will reduce unemployment, relieve Governments of the burden of unemployment relief, and generally raise incomes and profits.

The *International Commission of Agriculture* held its annual session during the Congress. It expressed the view that action by a Government to direct the national economic system could be effective and useful only in so far as it related to the agricultural problem as a whole and took into account the part played by individual farmers in the process of agricultural production and the importance of organising their activities to serve the country's general interests.

The dissolution of the Austrian Union of Agricultural and Forestry Workers as a result of the events of February 1934 deprived the *International Federation of Agricultural Workers* of an important member. On the other hand, two small agricultural workers' unions, one in Estonia and the other in Norway, joined the Federation during 1934.

In *Austria* a Government Decree declared the Christian Union of Agricultural Workers to be the successor of the Social-Democratic union and required it to take over all the rights and liabilities arising out of the collective agreements which the latter had concluded. The Burgenland Chamber of Agriculture, hitherto composed of peasants' representatives only, added to its members eleven workers' representatives and four representatives of the large landowners. In Lower Austria the Chamber of Agriculture was enlarged by the addition of the following new members: two representatives of salaried employees and ten representatives of workers, four to be chosen from among members of families cultivating family undertakings. This reorganisation of the Chambers of Agriculture is a step in the direction of agricultural corporations. In *Czechoslovakia* the Central Council of Christian Trade Unions, which was composed largely of rural workers, amalgamated with the Republican Agricultural Trade Union Federation in order to facilitate the insurance of its members against unemployment. In *Denmark* further progress was made with the organisation of agricultural workers. Their union now has 30,000 members as against 25,000 a year earlier; and in order to deal more easily with work which is rural but not purely agricultural it joined the General Workers' Union, of which it is now an

autonomous section. In *France* trade union activity in rural districts was much more pronounced than in previous years. In *Germany* the administrative re-organisation of agriculture is almost finished. All the old technical and occupational bodies connected with agriculture in the country, and all the chambers of agriculture, have been brought under the Food Corporation; agricultural workers must belong to this organisation, but may also join the German Labour Front if they desire. In *Great Britain* the National Union of Agricultural Workers (England and Wales) now has over 40,000 members; there were more than 4,000 new adherents in 1933. In Scotland an Agricultural Advisory Council was set up, but includes no workers' representatives. In *Italy* the Act of 5 January 1934 relating to the constitution and powers of the corporations provides for a special group composed of the corporations for the production, working up and distribution of agricultural products. The following corporations are already in existence and have been working since November: cereals; market gardening, flowers and fruit; wine; oil; beets and sugar; animal husbandry and fisheries; wood; and textiles. The Confederation of Agricultural Workers had 1,923,000 members at the beginning of 1934 as against 1,659,000 a year before. In *Japan*, at the end of 1933, there were 4,800 tenants' associations with 300,000 members, 700 landowners' associations with 50,000 members, and 2,300 associations of landowners and tenants with 280,000 members; almost all these bodies were organised on a purely local basis.

Agriculture in the U.S.S.R.

The process of collectivising agriculture, which had slowed down somewhat in 1932-1933, was continued with renewed intensity in 1934. By 1 July 1934, 71.4 per cent. of all agricultural undertakings had been collectivised, that is to say, grouped in collective farms *(kolkhoze)*. These organisations accounted for about 75 per cent. of the cultivated land, while 10 per cent. belonged to the State farms *(sovkhoze)* and 15 per cent. was still worked by individual peasants.

According to the estimates of the second Five-Year Plan, the collectivisation of agriculture must be completed in outline by the end of the year 1937; and a number of steps were therefore taken to encourage the process or bring pressure to bear in regions where individual cultivation is still common.

As regards encouragement, reference must be made first of all to the Decree of 23 December 1934, under which the State resigned all its claims on the collective farms and annulled the debts contracted by them up to 31 December 1932 (a total of 435.6 million roubles). Moreover, the State is continuing its policy of encouraging members of collective farms to set up little private undertakings of their own, consisting of a vegetable garden or orchard (25-50 ares in all) with one or two cows and some smaller animals and poultry, within the larger community.

As regards pressure, the Decree of 26 September 1934 should be mentioned in particular. This imposed on uncollectivised peasant farms a special additional tax varying from 50 to 200 per cent. of the ordinary land tax and making individual cultivation much more difficult than was formerly the case; the poorest farms and those to which soldiers, police officials, war disabled men, and holders of U.S.S.R. decorations belong are excepted from these provisions.

An Order issued on 14 November 1934 extends the application of the piece-rate principle to persons employed in the stock-raising and dairy-farming departments of the collective farms; each worker is credited with a number of days of work corresponding to his task, and the income of the farm is divided (after deduction of the tax and other compulsory payments to the State) in accordance with the number of days credited to each person. Workers are required to remain on the same farm for two years at a time. They are organised in gangs, with a foreman in charge of each. As a rule there is a gang for every 100 head of cattle. If the farm is worked by a single gang, the foreman also acts as manager, but on large farms employing several gangs a manager is appointed by the local office of the Commissariat of Agriculture. At the beginning of the year the management of the collective farm plans the work of the whole farm and of each gang for the coming twelve months; in doing so it takes account of the general programme for the development of stock raising. Subsequently, with the aid of stock-raising specialists, it issues monthly instructions to each gang and each individual member concerning the work to be done during the following month. The wages owing for dairy work are paid every five days, and there is a monthly settlement for cattle tending. Collective farm workers receive a wage increase of 10 per cent. after two years' service and 15 per cent. after three years. The wages of each lorry driver and water carrier are fixed separately by the management of the collective farm, which also fixes the salary of the veterinary expert according to the extent of his training and the quality and quantity of his work. Managers of cattle farms and foremen who have been employed for less than two years are credited with a day's wage per day; after two years the rate rises to $1^1/_4$ days' wages per day. Further, the wages of managers and foremen who have been through special training courses are increased by 15 per cent. If the work planned is not carried out, the number of days' wages paid to the manager, the foremen and the technical experts may be reduced. The management of the farm decides, after an examination of the work done, what the reduction shall be, subject to a maximum of 15 per cent. At the end of each month the management of the farm checks the extent to which the work planned for the past month has been carried out; it is assisted by a quality control board. The check extends to the whole farm and to the work of each gang and of each member separately; and account is taken of the quality as well as of the quantity of the work done. A worker whose output is

particularly satisfactory or has exceeded the planned amount may receive a 15 per cent. bonus, but the total paid in bonuses during the year may not exceed 15 per cent. of the workers' normal earnings. Wage reductions are fixed in proportion to the faults committed, but the total amount stopped during the year may not exceed 15 per cent. of the sum normally due to the worker.

In accordance with a Communist Party decision of 28 November 1934, the political sections set up by the Ordinance of 11 January 1933 in the State farms will be retained, while those in the machinery and tractor depots will be abolished. These depots will come under the direct supervision of the ordinary local offices of the Party. A new post, that of political assistant manager, will be created in each depot; the officials occupying these posts will be under the authority of the regional committees of the Party; they will be nominated by the Party's Central Council and removable only with its approval.

Land Reform and Settlement

In *Albania* the agrarian reform was put into operation in thirty-seven villages, and 1,068 landless rural families and 2,171 immigrant families have already been settled. In *Brazil* an important plan was drawn up for settlement in the State of Sao Paulo on land formerly used for coffee planting (an industry which is essentially migratory); the lots will be of 5 and 10 hectares each. In *Canada* the colonisation and land settlement schemes operated by the authorities in collaboration with the railways are still in force; between 1 October 1930 and 31 March 1934, about 13,500 families (30,000 persons) were settled on the land. In addition, under a relief land settlement plan, the Dominion, the Province and the municipality concerned contribute jointly a sum not exceeding 600 dollars per family to cover the cost of establishment and subsistence for a two-year period; this scheme was initiated in 1932, and up to 31 March 1934 it had resulted in the settlement of 2,950 families (15,850 persons). In *Chile* a Land Settlement Act was voted. In *Egypt* research is being undertaken with a view to the utilisation of 8 million feddâns of waste land in Lower Egypt, by means of subdivision and irrigation. In *Germany* the land settlement movement, which had begun to slow down in 1932, touched a low point in 1933, when only 4,900 new holdings were established; but in the same year the area made available for settlement societies was higher than in 1932, and it increased further in 1934, when it is estimated that about 8,000 peasant holdings were established. The number of peasant farms which are covered by the new legislation relating to the inheritance of farms and can therefore be neither sold, divided nor mortgaged, is estimated at about a million—that is to say, half of all farms of over two hectares,— while their total area is equal to 60 per cent. of that of all such farms. In *Great Britain* there has been a widespread change from tenancy to occupying ownership. In 1911 the propor-

tion of cultivators working their own land was only 11.2 per cent.; by 1927 it had risen to 36.6 per cent., and the movement is still in progress. In *Greece* a Decree defines the conditions under which newly drained land may be alloted to the landless rural population. In *Italy* land recovery work is going on over an area of 800,000 hectares, and has yet to start on a further 400,000; this work provides employment for 100,000 workers. The new Province of Littorio has been set up; it can already boast 60,000 inhabitants, whereas only 4,500 persons inhabited the territory ten years ago. During the year 1,600 families (14,000 persons) migrated within the country to the settlement zones. In *Latvia* it is estimated that from 500 to 700 new holdings can be established every year. In *Mexico* a Decree of 1923, which had been provisionally suspended, was again brought into operation; it provides that any Mexican citizen who has no land may occupy a holding belonging to the State. In *Poland* a five-year scheme for the enforcement of the agrarian reform, providing for the subdivision of 125,000 hectares and the reconsolidation of 400,000-500,000 hectares a year, was adopted. In *Spain* the Institute for Agrarian Reform intends to settle 10,000 cultivators during 1935 under the conditions laid down in the Act of 14 September 1932. In the *United States* fifty-eight projects for the allotment of subsistence homesteads have been approved and most of them are under way. In *Yugoslavia* a Decree limits the area that any one person may possess in Southern Slavonia.

Employment Situation and Population Movements

In *Chile* a scheme is on foot to find work in agriculture, where there is a shortage of labour, for the unemployed from other industries. In *Denmark* statistics show that the number of agricultural workers per cultivated acre of peasant land is slowly but steadily falling. In *Estonia* it is believed that agriculture could take a number of unemployed if the State would subsidise employers; the census of 1 March 1934 shows an increase in the population of the towns, but either no change or an actual decline in that of the rural districts. In *France* the number of foreign agricultural workers authorised to immigrate in 1934 was about the same as in 1933. In *Germany* the number of agricultural workers registered as unemployed was considerably lower during the whole of 1934 than in the preceding year. The allocation of subsidies to employers who engaged young workers for not less than six months was kept up, in fact the scheme was extended; and in order further to encourage such engagements, particularly in winter, the maximum area of the farms eligible for the subsidy was increased from 50 to 80 hectares, on condition, however, that the farms were genuine peasant farms. Steps were also taken to prevent agricultural workers from entering certain industries and to facilitate the return of former agricultural workers to the countryside. In *Great Britain* the increase in the number of agri-

cultural workers revealed by the annual agricultural census of 1933 has not continued: all classes except female casual workers showed a decrease in 1934; regular workers fell off by 20,000, and male casual workers by 7,700. An enquiry showed that the average unemployment in agriculture must now be placed at 7.5 per cent. In *Hungary* regulations strictly limiting the use of certain agricultural machines are still in force. In *Italy* the employment campaign has led to a marked diminution in the number of unemployed agricultural workers, which fell from 336,000 at the end of 1933 to 188,000 a year later. In *Latvia* foreign workers were once more engaged, after several years' interruption, for employment in agriculture; 2,500 entered the country in 1934. In *Spain* there were 369,232 unemployed agricultural workers in May 1934 and 365,381 in the following November. The Act restricting access to the local labour market was repealed. In *Sweden* an enquiry undertaken by the Agricultural Workers' Union shows that the number of permanent workers declined by 35 per cent. in twenty years; the number of casual workers, too, declined, but less sharply. On the other hand, the level of unemployment, which has been comparatively high in recent years, appears to have fallen during 1934. In *Switzerland* considerable progress was made in the campaign to replace the foreign agricultural workers engaged in some cantons, particularly for seasonal work, by unemployed labour from other parts of the country. In the *United States* the policy of restricting agricultural production was bound to add to rural unemployment; nevertheless, the contracts concluded by the Agricultural Adjustment Administration with a view to reducing the acreage under cotton and tobacco stipulate that landlords shall so far as possible maintain the normal force of tenants and hired hands. The influence of crop adjustments is regarded as negligible in comparison with that of other causes of rural unemployment. Towards the end of 1934, the relation of the demand to the supply of agricultural labour was much more favourable to the workers than in the preceding year. The improvement was, however, attributed, mainly to increased employment in other industries and to the competition of public works projects for the available supply of workers; in fact, in agriculture itself the hired labour per 100 farms decreased from 105 persons in 1933 to 94 in 1934.

Conditions of Employment in Agriculture

Determination of Conditions

In *Austria* new collective agreements provided for wage cuts and specified the annual number of hours required of permanent workers. In *Czechoslovakia* the collective agreements concluded for 1934 provided for wage cuts in certain cases. In *Denmark* the validity of the collective agreements in force was extended until the end of the agricultural year 1934-1935; the existing provisions remain unchanged, but under an additional stipulation

wage rates may be altered if there is a marked increase in butter, meat and sugar-beet prices. In *Germany* the labour trustees issued a series of collective rules *(Tarifordnungen)* for agriculture, to replace the former collective agreements; in several instances the new rules apply to regions which had hitherto remained outside the scope of collective agreements or aim at standardising conditions of employment in provinces where a large number of local agreements used to be in force. In *Great Britain*, at the suggestion of the Scottish Farm Servants' Union, a meeting was organised by the Board of Agriculture for Scotland with a view to deciding on a method of fixing agricultural wages. In the *Irish Free State* the Trade Union Congress urged the establishment of a farm wage board. In *Italy* the number of collective agreements governing conditions of employment in agriculture is now stabilised. A new national agreement for salaried employers in agricultural undertakings was concluded; and an increasing number of agreements provided for a system of collective co-partnership with the object of securing the corporative organisation of the industry, the reduction of producing costs, and the deproletarisation of rural workers. In the *Netherlands* agricultural employers are required to negotiate with the agricultural workers' organisations with regard to conditions of employment if they wish to benefit by the emergency legislation; cases of dispute may come before an arbitrator appointed by the Minister of Economic Affairs. In *Sweden*, under an arrangement between the Government and sugar manufacturers, only those cultivators who undertake to pay certain minimum wage rates to the workers they employ in sugar-beet production are entitled to supply the sugar factories with beets.

Wages [1]

In *Australia* the agricultural wage index for the first two quarters of 1934 was slightly lower than for the corresponding periods of 1933. In *Belgium* there was a reduction of agricultural wages at the beginning of the year. In *Canada* the fall in wages ceased and a slight rise was recorded in 1934. In *Chile* agricultural wages increased from 1932 to 1933. In *Czechoslovakia* the monthly wages of permanent workers remained at their 1933 level, the wages of day labourers were reduced, but not very heavily, while the wages paid for hop-picking showed an increase due to the higher prices received for hops. In *Denmark* the wages of farm servants steadied during the agricultural year 1933-1934, and evinced a slightly upward tendency; as far as day labourers are concerned, this tendency was more pronounced, and the wages of these workers were 3-5 per cent. higher in the summer of 1933 and 10 per cent. higher in the winter of 1933-1934 than in the corresponding period of the previous year. In 1934-1935 the

[1] See above, Chapter IV: "Remuneration of Labour", p. 277, for the table of index numbers of agricultural wages.

wages of farm servants increased by 6 per cent and those of day labourers again by 10 per cent. In *Estonia* the wage cuts reached their maximum in 1933; the rates paid in the summer of 1934 averaged 15 per cent. more than those in force a year earlier. In *Finland* wages rose for the first time since 1929; they were 6-7 per cent. higher in 1934 than in 1933. In *France* agricultural wages fell, in some cases sharply. In *Great Britain* the county agricultural wage committees of England and Wales, far from reducing wages, raised them by amounts varying from 6d. to 2s. a week in 1934: the average wage of ordinary agricultural workers in all the counties, which had been 30s. 6½d. a week at the beginning of the year, was 34s. at the end. The Scottish rates, however, continued to fall. In *Hungary* the wages of day labourers paid in cash only fell from 2.70 pengö a day in 1932 to 1.96 pengö in 1933. In the *Irish Free State* wages continued to fall during 1934. In *Italy* the wages of women workers in agriculture remained steady, but those of men continued to fall. In *Japan* there was a slight increase in agricultural wages during 1933. In *Latvia* wages for the agricultural year 1934-1935 were fixed at about 5 per cent. above the rate obtaining in 1933-1934. In *Lithuania*, on the other hand, reductions of up to 10 per cent. were made. In *Mexico* the figures proposed in a minimum wage-fixing scheme for 1934 were almost twice as high as the average actually paid in agriculture according to the 1933 statistics. In the *Netherlands* agricultural wages remained steady in some parts of the country, while the reduction continued in others. In *New Zealand* the wages paid on 31 March 1934 were slightly higher than those obtaining a year before. In *Norway* the fall in wages, which had been very rapid in the preceding years, slowed down somewhat. In *Spain* wages were in general higher in 1933 than in 1932. In *Sweden* the rates paid in 1934 were slightly higher than in 1933. In the *United States* the farm wage index rose from 81 to 86 during 1934; while the ratio of farm prices to farm wage rates was 117 at the end of the year as against 95 at the beginning (pre-war ratio = 100).

Legislation and Other Social Action

In *Argentina* a Bill to regulate agricultural work was adopted by the Chamber of Deputies and sent to the Senate. In *Brazil* the new Constitution provides for special regulations to govern agricultural labour, which must however be based on the legislation applying to other groups of workers. A draft Decree relating to hours of work in agriculture provides that the normal working day on the land shall be 8 hours, but that workers engaged by the week may be employed for 10 hours a day, provided that they do not work more than 48 hours a week or 208 hours a month. In *Estonia* an Act was passed to prevent accidents caused by agricultural machinery. On the other hand, the Government had to withdraw a Bill relating to the insurance of agricultural workers and small farmers cultivating not more than 5 hectares,

and of their families. In *France* a family allowance scheme will shortly be applied to agriculture, but the administrative details are not yet finally settled. Invalidity insurance was extended to agriculture by Decree. In *Great Britain* the Unemployment Insurance Statutory Committee, which was set up by an Act in August 1934 and charged with the duty of making such proposals as might seem practicable for the insurance of agricultural workers against unemployment, submitted its report to the Government; the Committee expressed the opinion that, in principle, an unemployment insurance scheme for agriculture was desirable and stated that the rate of unemployment in agriculture was higher than in a number of industries already insured. In *Hungary*, where agricultural workers have hitherto been insured against accidents only, the Government is preparing the extension to them of the other branches of social insurance, beginning with an old-age pension scheme. In *Italy* a rural housing census showed that 143,000 houses were unfit for living purposes, 475,000 needed thorough repair and 930,000 slight repair, while 1,840,000 were habitable in their present condition. The new Women's and Children's Protection Act of 1934 applies, in agriculture, to transport and the lifting of weights only. In *Poland* the Government introduced a Bill concerning compulsory invalidity, old-age and survivors' insurance for agricultural workers, who have hitherto been excluded from the scope of these schemes. In *Sweden* the Riksdag approved an interpretation of the Labour Protection Act—already partially applied by the administrative authorities—which amounts to an extension of the scope of the Act to agriculture. The Government allocated 26 million kronor to the improvement of rural housing; 15,000 out of 40,000 applications for subsidies have so far been approved. In the *United States* an official farm housing survey showed that probably 50 per cent. of the houses were in good structural condition, though many of them lacked modern conveniences; 15 per cent. needed new foundations, 15-20 per cent. new roofs, and 10 per cent. extensive repairs.

International Regulation [1]

Convention No. 10: Minimum Age (Agriculture), 1921.

Chile. — Submitted for approval to the National Congress on 18 December 1934.

Nicaragua. — Ratification registered on 12 April 1934.

Convention No. 11: Right of Association (Agriculture), 1921.

China. — Ratification registered on 27 April 1934.

Hungary. — The Hungarian Delegation to the League of Nations informed the Office that the Bill for the ratification of this Convention had not yet been

[1] The information given here relates only to 1934. See the tables at the end of the volume for the general situation in regard to the Conventions.

submitted to Parliament because certain points relating to the right of association had first to be settled.

Nicaragua. — Ratification registered on 12 April 1934.

Convention No. 12: Workmen's Compensation (Agriculture), 1921.

Finland. — A Bill to amend the Accident Insurance Act of 1925 was submitted to Parliament. The passage of this Bill would make it possible to ratify the Convention.

Nicaragua. — Ratification registered on 12 April 1934.

Seamen

National Developments

General Measures affecting Seamen's Conditions of Service

The following notes indicate the more important general pieces of legislation or other measures which were adopted or proposed in 1934 for regulating seamen's conditions of service.

Canada. — The Canada Shipping Act, enacted on 3 July 1934 and to come into force on a date to be fixed by proclamation of the Governor in Council, codifies and amends in one statute the shipping legislation applicable in this country, and is the first important measure of Dominion legislation resulting from the application of the Statute of Westminster and the British Commonwealth Merchant Shipping Agreement of 1931. It will be remembered that the Statute of Westminster 1931, giving effect to the recommendations of an Imperial Conference in 1929, conferred full freedom on the Dominions to legislate with regard to merchant shipping, and that subsequently in the same year the different parts of the British Commonwealth came to an agreement (the British Commonwealth Merchant Shipping Agreement) which laid down the main lines along which such legislation should be enacted in the different parts of the Commonwealth.

The new Canada Shipping Act, which is based mainly on the old Act and on the Merchant Shipping Acts of Great Britain, comprises sixteen parts dealing, *inter alia*, with: certificates of officers; seamen (engagement, discharge, wages, accommodation, property of deceased seamen, discipline, employment of children and young persons, etc.); relief and repatriation of distressed seamen and seamen left abroad; sick mariners and marine hospitals, etc. In addition, there are a number of schedules to the Act containing the texts of certain international Conventions, i.e. the Convention for the Safety of Life at Sea, 1929, the Load Line Convention, 1930, and all the maritime Conventions of the International Labour Conference except the Placing of Seamen Convention, 1920. Of these latter, the Minimum Age (Sea) and the Unemployment Indemnity (Shipwreck) Conventions of 1920, and the Minimum Age (Trimmers

and Stokers) and the Medical Examination of Young Persons (Sea) Conventions of 1921 had already been ratified and put into effect by Canada, but the new statute also contains provisions for implementing the Seamen's Articles of Agreement[1] and the Repatriation of Seamen Conventions of 1926. The new statute also includes provisions enacted in 1933 but not yet in force to give effect to the Protection against Accidents (Dockers) Convention, and the Marking of Weight (Packages transported by Vessels) Convention of 1929.

Cuba. — Legislative measures were adopted during 1934 for giving effect to the following international maritime labour Conventions; the Minimum Age (Sea), Placing of Seamen, and Unemployment Indemnity (Shipwreck) Conventions of 1920, the Medical Examination of Young Persons (Sea) and Minimum Age (Trimmers and Stokers) Conventions of 1921, and the Seamen's Articles of Agreement and Repatriation of Seamen Conventions of 1926.

These measures include Legislative Decree No. 592 of 16 October 1934 concerning the minimum age for admission of children to employment at sea, the compulsory medical examination of children and young persons employed at sea, and the minimum age for the admission of young persons to employment as trimmers or stokers; Legislative Decree No. 659 of 7 November 1934 concerning seamen's articles of agreement; and Legislative Decree No. 660 of 7 November 1934 concerning the repatriation of seamen, unemployment indemnity in case of loss or foundering of the ship, and the establishment of facilities for finding employment for seamen.

Germany. — Collective Rules for seagoing merchant vessels were issued on 15 November 1934 (to come into force on 1 December) by the special Labour Trustee for Seagoing Shipping appointed under the National Labour Regulation Act of 20 January 1934. These Collective Rules replace the collective agreements previously in force between shipowners and seamen and modify them on a number of points, the more important of which are noted below.

Scope. — The scope of the Collective Regulations covers seagoing merchant vessels of 50 gross registered tons or over (100 tons in the previous collective agreements).

Rating. — Requirements as to rating for A.B., O.S., light hand, fireman, trimmer, ship's cook and cook's mate are revised and in general rendered more stringent than in the old agreements. Three, two and one years' sea service are required for rating as A.B., O.S. and light hand respectively (this being double the period previously required in the case of the last two), and 12 months' sea service as a trimmer is required to be rated as fireman (double the former period).

The contract of service. — A distinction is made between agreements for an indefinite period and permanent agreements: those of the former type are the only ones open to subordinate personnel, while officers are regarded as being in permanent employment after a certain period of service (one year's continuous service with the same owner) under ordinary conditions. The chief difference between the two forms of service is that the former can be

[1] Resolutions for the approval of this Convention were adopted in the House of Commons and the Senate on 8 February and 19 February 1935 respectively.

terminated by either party giving 48 hours' notice in a German port, whereas permanent employment can only be terminated by four weeks' notice, instead of 10 days as formerly.

Wages. — If a vessel has not called at a German port of loading or discharge for more than 18 months, or is permanently engaged in trading between foreign ports, the crew are entitled to a 20 per cent. increase in wages.

If a ship is detained at the home port for at least 14 days without the time for sailing having been fixed (laid-up vessel) the following provisions apply after the lapse of a further 14 days and provided that at least 75 per cent. of the deck and engine room staff and 25 per cent. of the catering staff is retained on board: members of the crew are to be paid full wages at standard rates plus a daily food allowance of 1.50 RM.

Food and accommodation. — The detailed rules as to food in the collective agreements previously in force are replaced by a general provision that the food provided must be good, nutritious and palatable and adequate in quantity, and that every care must be taken to vary the dietary, which should also be suited to the climate.

Every member of the crew is to be provided with a mattress and bolster and with a locker and key, and officers with a separate cabin as far as possible.

Arbitration. — Provision is made for setting up a permanent court of arbitration competent to take cognisance of all disputes of a civil character arising out of the contract of employment.

For the new provisions in the Collective Rules concerning hours of work and annual leave with pay, see below under these headings.

Hungary. — An Act No. XIX of 18 July 1934 (to be put into force by public administrative regulations which have not yet been issued) lays down a detailed code of regulations governing the service conditions generally of crews of seagoing merchant vessels flying the Hungarian flag, even if foreign owned, including vessels engaged in mixed maritime and river navigation. This Act deals *inter alia* with the following topics:

Specification of the different ranks and ratings of the crew, including the periods of sea service required for employment in different capacities; the form of the agreement with the crew and the stipulations to be contained in it, these latter on the whole being in conformity with the Convention on Seamen's Articles of Agreement; engagement and discharge, which must take place before the competent maritime authorities, the grounds for dismissal or resignation, and the seamen's right to a certificate of character and service; repatriation; wages and the supply of a wages book to each member of the crew, remuneration dependent on freight or in the form of a share in the profits—except on fishing craft—being expressly prohibited; disciplinary offences and the corresponding penalties; hours of work, annual leave and days off (see below under the next heading); and the treatment of sick and injured seamen, the right to wages being recognised up to six weeks after the seaman has been landed, and the right to free medical treatment at the expense of the shipowner being conferred for one month if the sickness or injury occurred after the time of engagement but before beginning duty and for the whole period during which the seaman remains incapacitated, up to a maximum of four months, if the sickness or injury occurred in the course of duty.

Netherlands Indies. — An important Order was adopted on 27 April 1934 (to come into force on a date to be fixed by the Governor-General) for amending the existing legislation on seamen's articles of agreement, on the model of the Netherlands Act of 14 June 1930 relating to this subject (also not yet in force). This Order, the scope of which includes mechanically propelled vessels over 100 cubic metres gross (300 in the case of sailing vessels) applies to all classes of the population, but local conditions have necessitated certain adaptations of the provisions of the metropolitan Act.

The agreement with the crew must contain roughly the same particulars as those prescribed in Article 6 of the Seamen's Articles of Agreement Convention of 1926. The seaman, moreover, is to be given an opportunity to examine the ship's articles and his own articles of agreement, but no provision is made on the lines of the Netherlands Act for supplying him with an engagement book or for requiring him to produce a medical certificate of health when signing on. As regards termination of the agreement, the Order, like its model, contains provisions essentially similar to those of Articles 9 and 12 of the 1926 Convention, but as officers' agreements in the Netherlands Indies are usually entered into for long periods, the seaman's right under the Netherlands Act and under the 1926 Convention to claim discharge if he has the opportunity of obtaining a higher post is recognised only in the case of agreements for less than a year.

In the matter of disciplinary penalties, the Order maintains confinement in certain cases (abolished by the Netherlands Act) and also provides that simple desertion remains, as in the past, punishable under the Penal Code.

The seaman's right to repatriation at the shipowner's expense is not recognised when the termination of the agreement coincides with the conclusion of the voyage or if the seaman himself terminates the agreement; but, on the other hand, repatriation at the shipowner's expense applies not only in case of expiry of the agreement abroad, but also in case of its expiry in the Netherlands Indies.

The Order also deals with Sunday work and annual leave with pay (see below under the next heading), and lays down detailed provisions on the seaman's rights to wages and medical treatment at the expense of the shipowner in case of injury or sickness.

United States. — The regulation of seamen's working conditions in accordance with the policy of the National Industrial Recovery Act of 16 June 1933 was the subject of considerable discussion and negotiation during 1934. Various hearings under the auspices of the National Recovery Administration were held during the winter of 1933-1934 with a view to framing for the shipping industry a code of fair competition similar to those already framed or being framed for other industries, and in March the Administration issued as a basis for further consideration a proposed general code as provisionally drawn up by the industry itself. This draft, it may

be noted, included a labour section in which it was proposed to lay down a number of general standards for labour conditions on board ship, and subject to these basic provisions to leave the further regulation of conditions of employment to be settled by divisional and sub-divisional codes. These general labour provisions included the following:

(1) Employees to have the right to organise and bargain collectively through representatives of their own choosing, and to be free from interference of employers in the designation of such representatives, in self-organisation, or other concerted activities for collective bargaining or for mutual aid or protection. No employee or person seeking employment to be required as a condition of employment to join a company union or to refrain from joining, organising, etc., a labour organisation of his own choosing.

(2) Persons under 16 years of age not to be employed in the industry.

(3) A general minimum scale of rates of pay for officers and seamen on American vessels.

(4) Provisions concerning the application of the three-watch system at sea, on deck as well as in the engine room, an 8-hour day for day workers and in port, and a joint investigation into the maximum hours of work of employees in the catering service (see below under the next heading).

(5) Workaways not to be carried to the exclusion of members of the crew.

(6) A National Shipping Labour Board to be appointed for the conciliation of labour disputes, with branch shipping labour boards for each division or sub-division.

After further consultations on the March draft it seems that the idea of a general shipping code of the type proposed in the draft was subsequently abandoned, owing to certain difficulties in bringing within the operation of such a code, as was contemplated in the draft, foreign-flag operators engaged in the commerce of the United States. At the same time, it would appear that the need for the enactment of certain labour provisions on the lines of those indicated above is still engaging the close and sympathetic attention of the Government.

Meanwhile, some considerable progress has been made in carrying out the labour principles of the March draft by means of collective agreements. This is the case, for example, with agreements concluded in August and December 1934 respectively between the Seafarers' Council of the Port of New York (including among others the United Licensed Officers' Association and the American Radio Telegraphists' Association) and the Oil Tanker Trades Group of the American Steamship Owners' Association, and between the International Seamen's Union of America (on behalf of the Atlantic and Gulf District Unions representing the deck, engine room and catering departments) and the Seagoing Personnel Committee of the Atlantic and Gulf Steamship Companies, totalling some 45 of the principal companies engaged in foreign-going, Atlantic-Pacific, and coastal trades. The provisions on hours of work and wages in these agreements are summarised below under these headings. It may be noted here, however, that the first agreement referred to recognises the right of representatives of the officers' organisations to visit ships in order to examine conditions on board,

while the second agreement provides for the official recognition of the International Seamen's Union of America, for giving preference to members of the Union when filling vacancies, for allowing authorised representatives of the Union to visit ships to consult with members of the crew, and for the establishment of joint district and local conciliation and arbitration machinery between the two parties.

U.S.S.R. — An Order of 27 May 1934 lays down detailed provisions relating to engagement and discharge and to discipline. As regards engagement and discharge, it provides that applicants for employment on board ship must be citizens of the Soviet Union with the necessary professional qualifications and in enjoyment of good health, and must pass examinations in both respects before engagement. Persons deprived of their civil rights or convicted of counter-revolutionary offences and also dispossessed *kulaki* are not eligible for employment. Persons engaged after passing the preliminary tests must undergo a probationary period before being confirmed in their employment. Seamen must be in possession of a wage book or written reference showing why they left their previous employment and must sign an undertaking to the effect that they are acquainted with the provisions of the regulations. Notice of desire to quit employment must be given, varying from 15 days to two months according to rank and rating.

The part of the Order dealing with discipline sets out in detail the various acts constituting breaches of the regulations (including failure to obey orders, absence from duty, drunkenness while on duty, damage to or negligence in the upkeep of the ship etc.), with the corresponding penalties, varying from reprimands of different degrees of severity to confinement for 20 days, reduction to a lower rank for a year, and dismissal involving a year's exclusion from employment in general or in certain specified posts. The procedure for the infliction of disciplinary penalties is also prescribed, and provides in particular that all penalties must be notified in writing and counter-signed by the persons concerned and that serious penalties must be noted in the worker's wage book.

Hours of Work, Manning and Holidays with Pay

The chief developments under this heading during 1934 were as follows:

Germany. — The Collective Rules for sea-going vessels which came into force on 1 December 1934 maintain the three-watch system for both deck and engine room personnel in all ships over 2,600 tons gross, and in ships over 2,000 tons engaged in distant trades and in certain classes of European trade. Maintainance work at sea, however, is now prohibited between 6 p.m. and 6 a.m. in ships in which work is organised in two watches, and hours of work for deck boys are limited to 8 per day. For catering staff, hours of work at sea are fixed at 14 consecutive hours " on duty "

with a consecutive two-hour interval, work in excess of this time " on duty " to be paid at overtime rates.

In port, working hours for deck and engine room staff are now fixed at 8 hours a day with 5 hours on Saturday (equivalent to a 45-hour working week) and are to fall between 6 a.m. and 6 p.m., or 6 a.m. and 1 p.m. on Saturday. Work on loading or unloading cargo, if required after 1 p.m. on Saturday, is to be paid at overtime rates. Ten hours' night watch duty on deck and 9 hours in other departments are to be regarded as equivalent to 8 hours' working time, these hours being reduced by 1 hour in the tropics. The hours for catering staff are 12 hours " on duty " a day, but their work is to be limited to attendance, preparation of meals, etc., and an 8-hour maximum day is fixed for mess-boys.

The Collective Rules also somewhat modify the previous stipulations as to paid annual leave. The minimum period of leave in respect of the first year's service is raised from 4 to 6 days, the previous provision as to one additional day in each subsequent year up to a maximum of 20 days remaining unchanged. It is also now expressly provided that leave must be taken and cannot be commuted for money payment. In addition, officers and other ratings are entitled to one working day or two half working days off in port each month.

A new set of rules relating to the manning of sea-going vessels were issued by the *See-Berufsgenossenschaft* on 18 December 1934. These rules lay down manning requirements in some detail, and provide that even if the complements regarded as necessary are not exactly determined, the guiding principle to be applied is that the total number of the crew must be sufficient for the proper operation of the vessel, with due regard to the provisions of the above Collective Rules as to hours of work and division into watches, so as to ensure safety of navigation without prejudicing the health of the crew. The main provisions of these new rules are summarised below:

Deck Department

The manning requirements are based on a classification of vessels according to trade and to sub-divisions of tonnage in each trade. In limited coasting trade and in North Sea and Baltic trade, which have the same tonnage divisions, the manning scales are almost identical, and vary from a master and 1 A.B. for vessels under 70 tons gross to 1 master, 1 mate, 1 A.B., 1 O.S., 1 light hand, and one boy for vessels of between 212 and 500 tons, the requirements for vessels over 500 tons being the same as for extended home trade.

In extended home trade the manning requirements for vessels under 500 tons are the same as above. In the higher categories of tonnage they range from 2 A.B.'s, 1 O.S. and 1 light hand for vessels of 500-1,000 tons to 3 A.B.'s, 2 O.S.'s and 1 light hand for vessels of 2,000-4,000 tons, with a proportionate increase for vessels above this last figure.

In distant trade the requirements range from 3 A.B.'s, 2 O.S.'s and 1 light hand for vessels of 700-1,500 tons to 5 A.B.'s, 3 O.S.'s and 2 light hands for vessels of 4,000-6,000 tons, with a proportionate increase for vessels over 6,000 tons. In this trade and extended home trade the number of officers is regulated by the Order of 29 June 1931 concerning the complement of masters and certificated officers.

It is also provided that no seaman can be rated as an A.B. unless he has served 36 months on deck as a boy, light hand or ordinary seaman, that so far as the actual rating is not specified in the rules the number of unskilled ratings (boys, light hands, ordinary seamen) is not to exceed a certain proportion of the skilled ratings carried (including boatswain, carpenter, etc.), this proportion on larger vessels to be limited wherever possible to one-third and not to exceed in any case one-half of the total deck staff.

Engine Room

In addition to the engineer officers to be carried in conformity with the Order of 29 June 1931, the following requirements are laid down:

Stokehold. — In coal-burning steamships stoked by hand, the number of firemen is to be determined in the first place in accordance with the principle that one fireman is required to handle 5½ tons of coal per day (5 in tropical waters) on the basis of the vessel's average consumption of standard German or English steam coal. The figure thus ascertained is to be raised to 3 or a multiple of 3, if the three-watch system is required, or to 2 or a multiple of 2 if the two-watch system is required. No trimmer, rated as such, need be carried if the coal consumption per day is less than 10 tons, but one trimmer is to be carried if the consumption is between 10 and 18 tons, with one extra trimmer for each additional 8 tons. In tropical waters the figures are to be 17 and 7 tons respectively.

On oil or pulverised coal-burning steamships, the number of firemen, cleaners and trimmers is to be calculated so as to ensure that in addition to work connected with the boilers, other unavoidable complementary work can be carried out regularly, and in any case one skilled fireman is to be assigned to each stokehold *(Heizraum)*.

No seaman may be rated as fireman unless he is at least 19 years old, with at least 12 months' sea service as trimmer, and unless he has the physical and professional qualifications required, while trimmers must be at least 18 years of age.

Engine room (apart from stokehold). — For this department rules are laid down as to the number of skilled hands to be carried in steamships and in motor ships according to different categories of horse-power. For steamships the number of skilled hands ranges from one for ships with 1,000-2,000 h.p. to 3 for ships of 3,000-4,000 h.p., with extra hands in proportion in vessels with additional horse-power; while for motor ships the scale ranges from 3 skilled hands (with as many cleaners as required) for ships of 1,000-2,000 h.p. to 5 skilled hands (with as many cleaners as required) for 3,000-4,000 h.p., with a corresponding increase in the number of skilled hands and cleaners for higher horse-power.

Skilled hands include only supernumerary engineer officers, assistant engineers and electricians, and also greasers, artificers, and storekeepers.

The new rules also include provisions for sailing vessels with or without auxiliary engines, and for tugs, lighters, salvage vessels, tankers, etc.

Hungary. — The Act No. XIX of 18 July 1934 (not yet in force) provides for the organisation of work at sea on deck in two or three watches for officers, according to the number carried or in two watches for lower ratings, and in the engine room in three watches.

The Act also stipulates two weeks' annual leave after one year's continuous service, for officers, and 5 days for other members of the crew, and one working day off per month for all members of the crew.

Netherlands Indies. — The Order of 27 April 1934, already referred to, concerning seamen's articles of agreement (not yet

in force) and applying to mechanically propelled vessels of more than 100 cubic metres gross (and other vessels of more than 300 cubic metres) provides that work on Sundays must in all cases be reduced to the minimum needed in reasonable consideration of service requirements. The Order also provides for paid annual leave for all persons engaged for service on board ship as masters or seamen, excluding only masters and seamen engaged on voyage agreements and subordinate personnel who are not engaged for at least one year.

The rate of leave in respect of each year's continuous service is: for masters and officers, 14 consecutive days or, at the option of the shipowner, two periods of 8 consecutive days, and, for subordinate staff, 7 consecutive days or two periods of 5 consecutive days. Pay during leave is sea pay excluding bonuses, special allowances and pay for overtime or special services, but including subsistence allowance; leave outstanding at the end of one year after it has become due or on the termination of the employment is to be compensated in cash.

Sweden. — A Government Bill for amending the existing Act on hours of work on board ship was submitted to the Riksdag in February 1934. Though this Bill was subsequently rejected and the validity of the existing Act extended provisionally until the end of 1937, it may be noted that the Bill was based on the following main provisions:

Officers. — An 8-hour working day in all ships where 3 deck or engineer officers are carried, instead of (as at present) 18 hours for deck officers and 6 hours for engineer officers over 2 consecutive days.

Engine room staff. — An 8-hour day in all ships over 700 tons gross, instead of (as at present) 16 hours over 2 consecutive days in ships carrying at least 3 firemen.

Deck staff. — An 8-hour day in passenger ships of more than 2,000 tons gross and cargo vessels of more than 3,000 tons gross where the voyage involves more than 24 hours' uninterrupted sailing, instead of 24 hours during 2 consecutive days—two-watch system—in all ships engaged in voyages involving more than 12 hours' uninterrupted sailing.

Day workers. — An 8-hour day instead of a 9-hour day as at present.

Catering staff. — A 10-hour day instead of a 12-hour day.

In connection with the above Bill, the Government published in the spring of 1934 a Draft Order regulating the question of manning based on the results of the enquiry undertaken by a committee of experts to which reference was made in the *Year-Book* for 1933[1].

This committee regarded the question of the provision of a sufficient number of deck hands to enable 3 seamen to be assigned to every watch as being of primary importance, but considered it necessary for practical reasons to limit the application of this principle to ships over a certain tonnage. It was also considered that an additional engine-room hand should be on watch duty in all

[1] Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1933*, p. 368.

ships over 1,000 tons gross, if the two-watch system were maintained for greasers. The committee also took the view that the main requirements as to safety at sea should be embodied in manning regulations, but were opposed to detailed manning scales, as Norwegian experience tended to indicate the desirability of a more flexible system. Owing to the variety of factors to be taken into account in determining crew strength for any particular vessel, the committee considered that the proper course would be to frame individual regulations on lines similar to those concerning load lines, number of passengers, etc., but that certain general principles intended to serve as a guide for the individual regulations should also be laid down.

The Draft Order framed by the committee is accordingly based on the above considerations. The main points dealt with are the definition of the professional experience required by the deck staff, the assignment of 3 men to every watch in ships over a certain tonnage, and the stipulation that engineer officers in charge of a watch are to be assisted by an additional engine room hand. The Draft also proposes that in all ships engaged in voyages normally involving more than 12 hours' uninterrupted sailing, the Board of Trade should be required to fix the deck and engine-room complement with due reference to the above-mentioned factors. The Board of Trade should also be required to issue some kind of manning certificate to be retained on board by the master and presented to the competent authorities when seamen are engaged and discharged.

The above Draft Order has been circulated by the Government to shipowners' and seamen's organisations for their observations.

United States. — As already noted, a provisional draft of a general Code of Fair Competition for the shipping industry, issued in March 1934 but subsequently abandoned, contained in its labour section certain proposals for the regulation of hours of work and manning. These proposals included the following:

(1) At sea, the three-watch system to be applied in the deck department (as well as in the engine room, as already provided by law) in all sea-going vessels, and the hours of work of day workers not to exceed 8. No duty off watch except work required for safety.

(2) In port, a maximum 8-hour day for deck and engine room personnel.

(3) A committee of 6 members (3 representing shipowners and 3 the employees) to be set up to study maximum working hours for employees in the catering department, and to report with a proposed schedule of maximum hours.

Since the abandonment of the proposed general code (cf. under the previous heading), the following stipulations have been included in important collective agreements:

Agreement between the Seafarers' Council of the Port of New York and the Oil Tanker Trades Group of the American Steamship Owners' Association (August 1934).

A maximum 8-hour day both at sea and in port (subject to exception only as regards safety work), no night duty in home ports, and 14 days' annual leave with pay, for officers and wireless operators.

Agreement between the International Seamen's Union of America and the Seagoing Personnel Committee of the Atlantic and Gulf Steamship Companies (December 1934).

At sea both deck and engine room crew to be divided into three watches and no work to be required when off watch except on entering or leaving port and safety work. Day workers to have an 8-hour day except for safety work, and firemen on coal-burning vessels not to be required to handle more than 4 fires with natural draught or 3 fires with forced draught.

In port an 8-hour day for deck and engine room staff when watches are broken, except safety work. Special arrangements may be made for the catering staff.

Wages

The following developments during 1934 may be noted:

France. — The Tasso Act of 12 July 1934 provides that the system of subsidies which it institutes is to apply only to shipping undertakings employing crews whose wages are determined by collective agreement between the most representative organisations of shipowners and seamen.

In pursuance of this provision an agreement was concluded on 18 October 1934 between the Central Committee of French Shipowners and the National Federation of French Seamen's Unions to disregard the cost-of-living index numbers on which existing wage rates are based, and to maintain the monthly rates figuring in the collective agreement of 18 May 1929 for ships in commission to which the Act applies. The rates in these cases for A.B.'s and firemen are thus 585 francs and 635 francs respectively.

Germany. — The new Collective Rules for Sea-going Vessels which came into force on 1 December 1934 provide for the provisional maintenance of the wage rates fixed by collective agreement in October 1931. The rates thus maintained for A.B.'s are 103 RM. and for firemen 113 RM.

Great Britain. — Towards the end of 1934 the officers' and seamen's organisations applied to the National Maritime Board for a restoration of the general cuts in pay made both for officers and for other ratings at the beginning of 1932. An agreement was reached on 1 February 1935 for an all-round restoration of one-quarter of these cuts as from 25 March 1935. This involves in the case of monthly rates for A.B.'s and firemen an increase from £8 2s. to £8 6s. 6d. and from £8 12s. to £8 16s. 6d. respectively.

Italy. — An agreement was concluded on 27 June 1934 by the national Confederations representing shipowners and seamen for a 6 and 10 per cent. cut in wages for the crews of cargo and passenger vessels respectively. The cut applies both to the basic wage and to certain supplementary payments. The monthly basic wage for A.B.'s is thus now 423 lire in cargo vessels and 450 lire in passenger vessels, the corresponding rates for firemen being 448 and 447 lire.

Japan. — A revision of the minimum wage rates for wireless operators in force since February 1931 became effective on 1 September 1934. The general effect of the new scale is to increase monthly salaries by amounts varying from 5 yen for second-class operators in vessels under 1,600 tons to 25 yen for first-class operators in vessels over 5,500 tons.

Netherlands. — The seamen's organisations agreed on 1 October to an all-round 2 per cent. reduction in wages (from which members of the catering staff on liners earning less than 66.5 florins per month are excepted). Monthly rates for A.B.'s and firemen are consequently reduced from 82 to 80 and from 86 to 84 florins respectively.

Poland. — A Government arbitration award made in February 1934 provided for an average all-round reduction in wages of 11 per cent as from 1 March, together with a reduction in overtime pay from 1.40 to 1.25 zloty, 80 to 70 grosz, and 70 to 60 grosz per hour for the different categories of workers concerned.

United States. — Under the agreements already referred to concluded (*a*) between the Seafarers' Council of the Port of New York and the Oil Tanker Trades Group of the American Steamship Owners' Association in August; and (*b*) between the International Seamen's Union of America and the Seagoing Personnel Committee of the Atlantic and Gulf Steamship Companies in December, wage scales were fixed under which monthly rates include the following (in dollars):

Under (*a*): 285-335, masters; 250-300, chief engineers, and 145-165, third engineers; according to class of ship; A.B., 62.50; O.S., 47.50; fireman, 65.00.

Under (*b*): A.B., 57.50; O.S., 40.00; fireman, 60.00; trimmer, 45.00.

International Developments

Hygiene and Welfare

The questions of the protection of seamen against venereal disease and the promotion of seamen's welfare in ports were considered at the general meeting of the International Union against Venereal Disease held in Madrid in May 1934.

On the subject of venereal disease, the meeting specially considered the application of the Brussels Agreement of 1924 and adopted a resolution urging, *inter alia*, that further efforts should

be made by the International Public Health Office to hasten ratification of the Agreement by those countries which have not yet approved it; that seamen's individual case books should contain a list of anti-venereal clinics existing in sea-ports; that where, for example in small ports, the times during which anti-venereal dispensaries are not open make it difficult for seamen to attend, measures should be taken to provide the necessary treatment by specialists approved by the health authorities; and that only doctors having the requisite qualifications for the treatment of venereal disease should be put in charge of the dispensaries set up under the Agreement.

On the question of seamen's welfare in ports, it was decided in particular to ask the affiliated national organisations to convene meetings in their respective countries for considering and formulating proposals on the draft Recommendation on seamen's welfare in ports contained in the Blue Report published by the International Labour Office in 1931, and to collect through private sources such as officers' and seamen's organisations, welfare institutions, etc. information on the practical working of the Brussels Agreement and welfare conditions in ports generally. It was also decided that an international private conference should be organised on the question of seamen's welfare in ports on the occasion of the next Maritime Session of the International Labour Conference.

Arrangements for the next Maritime Session of the Conference

It was recorded in the *Year-Book* for 1933 [1] that the Joint Maritime Commission of the Office, at its Tenth Session in December 1933, had considered the question of the second discussion of the four maritime items which were the subject of a first discussion at the Thirteenth (Maritime) Session of the International Labour Conference in 1929, and which have not yet come before a further Session of the Conference for final decision. These items, it will be remembered, are:

(1) Regulation of hours of work on board ship.

(2) Protection of seamen in case of sickness, including the treatment of seamen injured on board ship.

(3) Promotion of seamen's welfare in ports.

(4) Minimum requirement of professional capacity in the case of captains, navigating and engineer officers in charge of watches on board merchant ships.

It was also recorded that the seamen's group of the Joint Maritime Commission had urged that the second discussion of these four items should take place in 1935 at the latest, but should not be preceded by a preparatory technical meeting of the principal maritime countries, while the shipowners insisted on the holding

[1] Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1933*, p. 376.

of a meeting of this kind prior to the second discussion, and preferred not to press for an early date for the holding of the special Maritime Session of the Conference but to leave the date to be settled by the Governing Body of the International Labour Office.

These views of the two groups of the Commission were submitted to the Governing Body at its meeting in January 1934 (Sixty-fifth Session), together with the opinions expressed by the two groups on the question whether the problem of holidays with pay for seamen should be included on the Agenda of an early Session of the Conference. This question had been referred to the Commission for its advice by the Governing Body, and the shipowners and seamen respectively had expressed somewhat different opinions as to whether the subject of holidays with pay for seamen was ripe for international regulation and should be submitted to a Session of the Conference in 1935.

On the basis of these views of the two groups on these matters, the Governing Body decided:

(1) that a special Maritime Session of the Conference should be held in 1935, immediately following on the close of the ordinary Session of that year, for the second discussion of the four items mentioned above;

(2) that this Session should not be preceded by a preparatory technical meeting;

(3) that the question of holidays with pay for seamen should be included on the Agenda of the 1935 Maritime Session.

Subsequent to these decisions, however, certain developments took place which induced the Office to consult the Governing Body in January 1935 (Sixty-ninth Session) as to the advisability of revising to some extent the arrangements thus made for the next Maritime Session of the Conference. In particular, the Office referred to the Governing Body a suggestion made to it on behalf of the seamen's organisations represented in the Joint Maritime Commission that the question of manning should be included in the discussions of the Conference on the question of hours of work (item 1 on the Agenda). As this suggestion would involve the addition of a new problem—manning—to the Agenda of the Maritime Session and also raised the question as to how the discussion on this new problem could be adjusted to the second discussion which is due to take place on hours of work, the Governing Body decided that the Joint Maritime Commission should first be asked for its views on the matter, and that the Maritime Conference should be postponed in the meanwhile from the date previously planned.

A meeting of the Joint Maritime Commission was accordingly held on 14 March 1935 for advising the Governing Body as to whether, and on what basis, the question of manning should be included in the Agenda of the Maritime Conference in relation with hours of work, and as to the new date to be fixed for the holding of the Conference.

The Commission, thanks to the conciliatory spirit manifested by the two groups, was able to arrive at an agreement, which was embodied in a resolution adopted unanimously both by the shipowners' representatives (with one abstention) and by the seamen's representatives. This resolution proposed that the Governing Body should:

(1) Place the question of manning on the Agenda of the next special Maritime Session of the Conference, with a view to examination of the problem of hours and manning as a whole;

(2) Convene before this Session, and not later than November 1935, a preparatory technical tripartite meeting to deal with the question of manning in relation with hours of work on board ship;

(3) Submit also to the same meeting the question of holidays with pay for seamen;

(4) Convene the special Maritime Session of the Conference in the autumn of 1936 with an Agenda including all the questions on which the first discussion has already been held, with the addition of the questions of manning and holidays with pay for seamen, which would be considered to be placed on the Agenda of the Conference for second discussion.

This resolution of the Commission was recently submitted to the Governing Body on 11 April 1935 (Seventieth Session), when the Governing Body, registering with satisfaction the agreement thus reached between the shipowners and the seamen, decided to give effect to the joint proposals put to it.

A preparatory technical tripartite meeting, composed of representatives of the twenty-four principal maritime countries, is accordingly to be convened in November 1935 to consider the questions of hours of work and manning and holidays with pay for seamen, and is to be followed in the autumn of 1936 by a special Maritime Session of the Conference for dealing with all the maritime questions outstanding.

Ratification and Approval of Conventions and Recommendations Adopted by the International Labour Conference [1]

Convention No. 7. Minimum Age (Sea), 1920.

Chile. — Submitted to the National Congress for approval on 18 December 1934.

Nicaragua. — Ratification registered on 12 April 1934.

Convention No. 8. Unemployment Indemnity (Shipwreck), 1920.

Chile. — Submitted to the National Congress for approval on 18 December 1934.

[1] The information given here relates only to 1934. See the tables at the nd of the volume for the general situation as regards the Conventions.

Nicaragua. — Ratification registered on 12 April 1934.

Sweden. — The Riksdag adopted on 4 May 1934 a Bill to amend Sections 6 and 41 of the Seamen's Act, to conform with the Convention. The Act came into force on 1 January 1935 [1].

Convention No. 9: Placing of Seamen, 1920.

Chile. — Submitted to the National Congress for approval on 18 December 1934.

Nicaragua. — Ratification registered on 12 April 1934.

Convention No. 15: Minimum Age (Trimmers and Stokers), 1921.

Chile. — Submitted to the National Congress for approval on 18 December 1934.

Nicaragua. — Ratification registered on 12 April 1934.

Convention No. 16: Medical Examination of Young Persons (Sea), 1921.

Chile. — Submitted to the National Congress for approval on 18 December 1934.

Nicaragua. — Ratification registered on 12 April 1934.

Convention No. 22: Seamen's Articles of Agreement, 1926.

Chile. — Submitted to the National Congress for approval on 18 December 1934.

Mexico. — Ratification registered on 12 May 1934.

Nicaragua. — Ratification registered on 12 April 1934.

Convention No. 23: Repatriation of Seamen, 1926.

Latvia. — The Minister of Social Welfare informed the Office that his Government had decided to take the necessary action to ratify the Convention.

Mexico. — Ratification registered on 12 May 1934.

Nicaragua. — Ratification registered on 12 April 1934.

Native Labour

As in previous editions of the *Year-Book* the following pages contain under the heading " National Developments " a survey of the social and Native labour problems in the territories in which this type of labour is found, while international developments are described in a second section entitled " The International Situation ".

National Developments

Belgium. — During the last year economic conditions in the Belgian Congo appear to have somewhat improved as a result of increased production, better technical methods and reduced general expenditure. Nevertheless, the crisis has continued to affect the

[1] Ratification of the Convention by Sweden was registered on 1 January 1935.

situation of the Natives. On his return from a recent visit the Minister for the Colonies stated that:

> The economic difficulties with their consequences, wage cuts and in some districts excessive porterage, have among certain tribes given rise to anxiety if not to actual discontent, which hardly favours the spread of our influence. An improvement in Native living conditions, and adequately remunerated labour suited to Native capacities and aptitudes will prove the best remedies of this situation.

As a result of the reduction or the disappearance of earning possibilities, the Native urban population has been partly re-absorbed in the Native communities with which contact had been retained and has returned to the land. The position of the rural population, which has never ceased to draw its subsistence from its own resources, economic crops having in no case completely ousted food cultivation, has been much less affected. The Administration, in order to allow for lessened Native resources, made certain reductions in taxes and amended the system of collection by enabling taxpayers to meet their obligations by work of public utility.

Native impoverishment was to a certain extent alleviated by mining developments: gold and tin discoveries in the Luabala mining area in Ruanda, increased production on the established mines, etc. As the year went on, the recovery in the affairs of the *Union Minière* of Upper Katanga became more marked. The Native labour force, which fell to its lowest point in August 1933 with 4,400 workers, increased to 9,400 by the end of 1934, while the 1934 copper production nearly equalled the total production for 1932 and 1933.

On 14 September 1934, Mr. Pierre Ryckmans was appointed Governor-General of the Belgian Congo. On taking up his appointment, he received from the Minister for the Colonies a letter which defined the Native policy to be applied in the Belgian Congo in the following terms:

> Our primary task is to promote the preservation of the Native populations and the improvement of their moral and material conditions. This is not a mere phrase, but an imperative and fundamental rule, which it is required of you to make a living reality, and to which every decision you take should be subordinate.

That the private views of the new Governor-General are in harmony with this conception of his duties is clear from a speech relating to Native labour delivered by him at Brussels on 30 October 1934. He said:

> I am not a supporter of compulsion pure and simple. To my mind, the ideal solution is to find an equation between wages and labour, so that the Native will regard labour as desirable and useful for himself. To this end, both labour and its remuneration must be shaped. Forms of wages suited to native mentality can be found, and also for the ordinary wage-earning system degrees of independent production . . . I agree that, with all due prudence, the territorial Administration should intervene to encourage habits of industry, but I am a firm opponent of compulsion as an economic system . . . I would aim at substituting increased consumption for increased production as the corner-stone of our policy.

The laws relating to the health and safety of workers and the application of contracts have undergone no substantial change. An Ordinance of 6 August 1934, however, contains additional details, in particular with regard to medical examination, the issue of blankets to recruits, and the housing of workers.

The Decree of 1 April 1933 concerning contracts of employment in inland navigation was supplemented by an Order of 2 June 1934, the chief provisions of which regulate the enrolment of ships' crews and work-books.

As regards actual conditions of employment three laws require mention. An Ordinance of 16 January 1934 imposes on holders of mining concessions certain obligations intended to secure the employment and protection of Native labour. Secondly, an Order of 23 March 1934 for the Province of Iusambo fixes the security to be deposited for permits to employ labour within 25 kilometres of the place of recruiting at 10,000 francs, and for employment beyond the Province at 50,000 francs. The Order also contains certain rules regarding the recruiting, engagement and rations of workers in the Province. Thirdly, an Order of 12 April 1934 concerning the acclimatisation of Natives engaged for employment in the Province of Costermansville provides for 15 days' preparation in a medical centre and one month's light work in camps under medical supervision.

An Ordinance of 13 February 1934 set up in each province a provincial Native labour committee instructed to investigate all questions affecting the recruiting and employment of Native labour, in particular the recruiting potentialities of the different districts and questions of wages, rations, transport, etc. Each committee will meet at least once a year at provincial headquarters. Sub-committees have been set up in the districts.

The increase in the number of unemployed white workers in the Belgian Congo led to various legislative measures, such as the Ordinance of 12 January 1934 and the Decree of 3 May 1934, the purpose of which is to relieve employers engaging unemployed workers from certain obligations, in particular with reference to the furnishing of security.

British Commonwealth. — The year under review was again marked generally by economic depression and financial stringency. The recovery, however, of rubber, the continued prosperity of the gold mines, and the revival of certain other minerals added new features to the labour situation. Indeed, the mining developments which took place both on established fields and in new areas appear likely to prove of fundamental importance and to demand the rapid construction of the machinery of labour protection in areas of new industry and its reconstruction in areas where Government services have been reduced.

As might be deduced from the economic situation, the labour demand for most types of agricultural undertakings remained low, but there was increased employment on the plantations of Ceylon and Malaya; on the mines, new high figures were recorded in South

Africa, and elsewhere activity revived or created fresh labour demands.

In some territories wages have fallen still further. It is true that the reductions have been justified by sheer economic necessity, and that even greater reductions in earnings have been suffered by the independent Native producers. Moreover, where workers are fed and housed at their employer's expense, the rates of cash wages may not at first sight appear to be of fundamental importance. It remains to be seen, however, whether the claim that regular employment is of educational value in these areas can be sustained if the reward becomes unreasonably low even by primitive standards. Furthermore, the cash shortage increases the difficulties of tax collection, to which administrative officials in some territories are reported to have been obliged to devote practically all their time and energy, and also reacts on the capacity of the Natives to purchase imported goods. As the Chairman of Lever Brothers said at the beginning of the year with reference to conditions in West Africa:

> Why does this great population of some 25 million have so little buying power in this country ? I think the answer is because the African farmer does not receive adequate reward for his labour. I do not think it is an exaggeration to say that in the last few years the remuneration he has received for his raw materials has decreased by nearly 70 per cent.

This and similar situations affecting both the Native producer and the European colonist have raised the question whether the financial principles on which colonial development is based should not be recast. It is held that territories are being crippled by the fact that the present generation is expected to bear the cost of creating the pre-conditions of production. Whether this is sound or not, long-term economic planning is becoming increasingly necessary in colonial development, and such planning can hardly be divorced from social planning, in which the remuneration of the worker, whether wage-earner or independent producer, is one of the essential elements.

In spite of an inevitable preoccupation with fiscal questions, the administrations continued to further the reforms in labour law laid down in previous years.

Various measures for the application of the Forced Labour Convention have been adopted. In West Africa the Gambia Ordinance and the Nigerian Regulations promulgated during the year are both more restrictive of forced labour than the Convention itself. A similar Ordinance has been prepared in the Gold Coast, but has been delayed by apprehensions expressed by the Chiefs in regard to the regulation of customary personal services. It appears that these apprehensions result mainly from a misinterpretation of the Convention and of the Government's proposals and that they may be rapidly cleared up.

Certain reforms were also effected in contract labour legislation. In Mauritius the maximum term of contract was reduced to twelve months. In Sierra Leone a 1934 Ordinance sets up the

British West African system for the replacement of penal sanctions. An important contract labour code was adopted in the New Hebrides. In practice, there has been a decreasing use of long-term contract labour, and generally speaking this tendency does not appear to have been affected by the increased mining employment.

The regulation of general conditions of employment followed the lines of previous years, the chief interest being shown in workmen's compensation, the protection of women and children and the establishment of minimum wage-fixing machinery.

Workmen's compensation provisions were introduced or substantially amended during the year in Barbados, Bechuanaland, British Guiana, Ceylon, Grenada, Kedah, Kenya, Johore, Malta, St., Vincent and the Union of South Africa. In Great Britain attention was drawn to the question of the application of workmen's compensation principles to colonial dependencies as the result of a serious mining accident in the Gold Coast. The Secretary of State for the Colonies, replying to a question in the House of Commons, said that the enactment of legislation in African dependencies had been under active consideration for a considerable time. A draft model Ordinance had been prepared and communicated to the Governments, and Bills based on the model had been drawn up in a number of cases. As, however, these Bills departed from the model in various respects and as it was desirable to secure uniformity in order to enable standard rates of premium to be quoted by the insurance companies, it had been decided to defer further consideration until the observations of all the colonial Governments had been received, in order that a revised model Ordinance might be prepared. These comments have now been received, the preparation of the revised model Ordinance is being actively pursued, and the Secretary of State hopes to be in a position to communicate a text to the colonial Governments early in 1935.

As regards the protection of women and children, further measures have been taken to extend the application of the International Labour Conventions on these subjects. The Night Work (Women) Convention is now applied to 21 dependencies; in an additional 8 dependencies it is applied with modification; in 3 cases laws have been adopted but have not yet been brought into operation; and in another 4 territories Government Bills are under consideration. In the case of the Minimum Age (Industry) and Night Work (Young Persons) Conventions laws in full or partial application of their provisions exist in 32 dependencies. The Minimum Age (Sea) Convention has been applied fully in nineteen dependencies and with modifications in 5, while laws applying the Convention with modifications have been passed in 3 other dependencies though they are not yet in force. The time does not seem far distant when these four Conventions will be applicable throughout the territories administered under the control of the Colonial Office.

Laws providing for minimum wage-fixing machinery exist in 25 dependencies. They are of a simple character, in general merely

permitting the administrations to fix minimum wage rates in industries where the actual rates are considered unreasonably low. They form, however, a measure of recognition of the importance of securing the participation of Native workers in colonial prosperity, and where new industries are being established should prove useful in preventing the growth of a low-paid coloured proletariat.

These general tendencies, which will be further emphasised by the following summaries of development in various parts of the Commonwealth, suggest that, although drastic economies have sometimes been made in the machinery of labour protection, it has been possible in certain cases to take advantage of the breathing space afforded by the decreased demand for labour to amplify the principles on which such protection is based. This appears all the more important in that, since the opportunities for material betterment offered by European colonial development have for some years proved illusory, the philosophy with which so many Native peoples have accepted the return to primitive conditions may become indifference to the inducements which European colonial enterprise may hold out in the future.

In the British East African dependencies the reports published in 1934 gave a not unusual picture of the continuation of the general agricultural depression, but, on the other hand, showed increased employment, due principally to mining developments.

In *Kenya* the numbers of Natives in European employment rose, approximately 9,000 being employed on the mining properties. In April 1934 the Secretary of State for the Colonies said that most of the Natives so employed were drawn from the adjacent villages and lived in their own homes. Arrangements for housing those from a distance were satisfactory. He also explained that there had been certain economies in the administration of labour inspection. These did not, however, involve any change in the duties or status of the officers.

In the *Mandated Territory of Tanganyika* it was calculated in the report for 1933 that approximately 12,000 Natives were employed on the Lupa Fields. As in Kenya, some of the employment was of a somewhat casual nature, but with the development of reef mining more organised employment is expected and it is thought that the Lupa Fields may absorb 20,000 labourers.

The question of absenteeism among labourers led to some interesting arguments in the report of the Tanganyika administration. From 1929 figures it would appear that an estate with a nominal roll of 1,000 labourers would have a normal turn-out of just over 600 labourers a day. The 1933 report argues that, although the disadvantages of an irregular labour force are many and obvious from the point of view of the employer, there are certain real advantages which may in the long run prove of greater value. These advantages are summarised as being (1) cheapness of labour; (2) absence of any need for elaborate arrangements, medical organi-

sation, etc. due to the comparatively healthy living conditions of a great part of the labour force, conditions which include the possibility and very generally the practice of a normal family life; (3) relief of the necessity of unemployment allowances and other factors necessary with a fully organised labour force directly dependent on wages; (4) decrease in detribalisation; and (5) contentment among the workers. The report adds that if it does nothing else, the present system at least provides a period of gradual habituation to European industrial methods and has protected the local communities from the effects of a too sudden or too efficient introduction of new social conditions.

In *Kenya* an amendment to the Mining Ordinance contains new provisions for workmen's compensation in the event of accident during mining operations.

The only other labour law of importance adopted during the year in East Africa was the *Uganda* Minimum Wage Ordinance, which in terms similar to the Kenya 1932 Ordinance permits the Governor to fix minimum wage rates when he considers that wages are unreasonably low.

In *Mauritius*, where conditions appear to be slightly improving, labour legislation was actively promoted during 1934. Ordinances were passed for the purpose of giving effect to the international Conventions concerning minimum age (industry), minimum age (sea), night work (women) and night work (young persons) and providing for the setting up of wage-fixing machinery. Moreover, the Labour Law was amended in order to reduce the maximum duration of contracts of service, whether written or verbal, from five to one year.

In the British West African Dependencies the effects of the trade depression were felt with accumulative force. As an example, the local prices of produce in Nigeria on 31 March 1930, 1933 and 1934 are striking. Cocoa fell from £29 10s. per ton in 1930 to £15 10s. in 1933 and £12 15s. in 1934; palm oil from £19 to £5 5s. in 1933 and to £4 5s. in 1934. Palm kernels fell from £10 7s. 6d. to £4 10s. and then to £3 5s. Grounds nuts fell from £7 to £3 15s. and then to £2.

The report of the *Gold Coast* Medical Department for 1932-1933 stated that unemployment was rife, that many of the immigrant labourers had returned home and that those remaining were largely dependent for housing and maintenance on brothers still in employment. Wages had fallen considerably and a certain amount of suffering was evident, as those in work maintained their out-of-work fellow countrymen and on the low scale of pay prevalent found it exceedingly difficult to provide for them and for themselves. During 1933-1934 the number of deaths registered as the result of starvation was 21. In the tin mines of *Nigeria*, where some 40,000 labourers used to be employed, the labour force fell to barely more than 10,000. On the other hand, gold has provided

certain increased opportunities of employment, in particular in the Gold Coast, where the average number of Africans engaged in mining and prospecting for the year 1933-1934 totalled 16,453, as compared with 12,319 in the previous twelve months.

An important African delegation from the Gold Coast interviewed the Secretary of State for the Colonies in July, mainly with reference to certain political questions. A memorandum submitted by the delegation advocated the introduction of some form of manufacture so as to reduce the Colony's dependence on the export of raw materials. In particular, attention was drawn to the possibility of developing the following trades and industries: (1) cloth weaving, (2) furniture, (3) wood carving, gold and brass work, (4) sugar-making factories, (5) oil and other edible fats. In the past the industrial development of colonies has generally been regarded as something introduced by Europeans. It is significant that the representatives of an African people in a territory where white settlement is negligible should be seeking such development.

Certain important labour laws were passed during the year. In the *Gambia* the Forced Labour Ordinance prohibits forced or compulsory labour as defined in the Convention, except in cases of emergency, or for compulsory cultivation in time of famine, or for minor communal services.

In the *Gold Coast* a 1934 amendment to the Master and Servant Ordinance strengthens the civil character of the sanctions enforceable in the event of breach of contract, in particular, by providing that imprisonment may be imposed for non-payment of damages only if the court is satisfied that the offender has sufficient means of paying the money. The Forced Labour Bill, to which reference has been made, prohibits forced labour as in the Convention, and contains additional limitations, of which the most important are the total prohibition of compulsory porterage and the fixing of the maximum period for all forms of forced labour at 24 days in the year.

In *Nigeria* two sets of regulations were issued in 1934 in application of the Forced Labour Ordinance, 1933. The most important provisions regulate minor communal services and limit the period of labour on their account to 20 days in the year.

In *Sierra Leone* the Employers and Employed Ordinance 1934 forms a detailed code governing the relations between employers and workers and replaces the briefer provisions contained in previous legislation. Among the changes introduced are the British West African system of adjudicating labour disputes and measures for the application of International Labour Conventions.

As regards sanctions, previous legislation provided that in the case of the non-performance of a contract a worker might be fined or imprisoned for one month in default of payment. The new Ordinance provides instead that the courts may adjust claims by employers or workers, direct fulfilment of the contract, require the furnishing of securities, or rescind the contract. The only provision of the nature of a penal sanction is that desertion by a

servant when accompanying his employer on a journey is punishable by a fine of £2 or imprisonment for one month.

The sections based on International Labour Conventions provide for the prohibition of the industrial employment during the night of all women and of boys under eighteen years of age, fix at fourteen years the minimum age for the admission of children to employment in industry or at sea, and empower the Governor to fix minimum rates when he considers wages are undesirably low.

In *Northern Rhodesia* the position of the copper mines improved and the African labour employed rose from 6,677 in January 1933 to 12,361 in December 1933. The total number of Natives in employment within the territory, however, was only 39,350 at the end of 1933 as compared with 79,000 in 1931. In *Southern Rhodesia* 64,373 Africans were in mining employment at the end of August 1934 as compared with 51,992 in August 1933.

In a speech delivered in July 1934 the Minister of Finance of Southern Rhodesia criticised statements which had been made to the effect that dire poverty existed in the Native reserves. He argued that the fact that from 60 to 70 per cent. of the Native labour employed by Europeans came from outside Southern Rhodesia showed that the distress could not be great. On the other hand, the Chief Native Commissioner's report for 1933 explains that an excess of labour in the first half of the year led to a fall in wages and to Southern Rhodesian Natives experiencing great difficulty in finding employment. The report states that employers showed a marked preference for alien Natives as being ready to engage for long periods.

The adoption of a system of industrial conciliation on South African lines led to a discussion on the question of the exclusion of Natives. In the House of Assembly a member of the Labour Party moved that the Native worker be brought within the scope of the measure, since otherwise the Government would be establishing a colour bar. In reply, the Minister of Internal Affairs said that it was the Government's definite policy to exclude the Natives until they had reached a stage of development enabling them to participate in a system of industrial conciliation. Another member of the Government Party said that the exclusion of the Natives was part and parcel of the Native policy which they were adopting in the country, and that to include Natives in trade unions and employers' organisations in European areas would be to give them vested interests in such areas.

The present Native policy of the Government was further amplified in a statement made by the Prime Minister on 30 October defining a policy of "gradual differential development". An endeavour was to be made to restore the authority of Chiefs until the Native was sufficiently advanced to have Native councils. The Native's economic status would be improved and his channels of trade so directed that he would not undermine the economic structure of the white race. Reserves were to be developed so as eventually to provide for all Natives at present residing in European

areas. In urban areas hostels would be provided for unemployed Natives, and any Natives who did not find employment within a reasonable time would be sent back to the reserves or to another area to look for employment. Village settlements would be established for the large number of Natives employed in towns or living in scattered locations round urban areas.

In the *Union of South Africa* the prosperity of the gold mines continued unabated, and more favourable conditions were indicated in other branches of the national economy. It was reported in November 1934 that the number of Natives on the Witwatersrand with " looking for work " passes was 4,000 as against 8,000 some months previously. The figure is regarded as that of normal times and in certain urban centres mine recruiters have not been able to find the labour allotted by the Chamber of Mines to relieve unemployment. On the other hand, while in some rural areas there is a lack of Native labour for the farms, from other areas agricultural distress is still reported.

On the gold mines an average of 228,045 Natives were employed during 1933 as compared with 216,372 in 1932. At the end of June 1934, 244,857 Natives were in employment. Giving evidence before the Industrial Legislation Commission, the General Manager of the Transvaal Chamber of Mines said that the mines were then employing 250,000 Natives and that if the price of gold did not fall, 275,000 would be required at the end of 1936. Of the 250,000 Natives, 140,000 were Union Natives, 57,000 were from Portuguese East Africa (7,000 Portuguese Natives were also employed on the coal mines), and the balance came from Basutoland, Bechuanaland and Swaziland. A force of 2,000 Natives had been recruited from north of latitude 22°, from where, owing to health reasons, the recruiting of Natives for employment in the Union of South Africa had previously been prohibited.

On 17 November 1934 the representatives of the Governments of Portugal and of the Union signed a revised Convention concerning Native labour and commercial relations between Mozambique and the Union. The main structure of the 1928 Mozambique Convention is retained. Whereas, however, only a maximum figure was previously provided for the employment of Portuguese Natives in South Africa, the new Convention lays down the principle of a minimum force of 65,000 and a maximum of 80,000. The new Convention also stipulates that the Government of Mozambique reserves the right to limit recruiting in areas where it is necessary to provide for pressing local demands for Native labour, and that the general maximum and minimum figures may be altered after consultation between the Governments:

(*a*) whenever in Mozambique there is insufficient Native labour for the colony's own requirements or whenever the Native labour exceeds those requirements, and

(*b*) whenever in the Union the Government may have to provide against unemployment amongst Union Natives.

Politically, the year was noteworthy on account of the fusion of the Nationalist and South African parties following the formation of the Coalition Government in 1933. In regard to Native policy, the terms of fusion state that:

> An earnest endeavour will be made to arriv eat a satisfactory solution of the Native question along lines which, without depriving the Natives of their right of development, will recognise as paramount the essentials of European civilisation. . . . Recognition of the Natives as a permanent portion of the Union population under the Christian trusteeship of Europeans is accepted as a fundamental principle of Native policy, together with definitive avoidance of race intermixture and the promotion of a spirit of goodwill and mutual confidence between the two races in the best interests of South Africa.

The terms of fusion also provide for the maintenance of the existing "civilised labour" policy. Apprehensions have been expressed on behalf of the Native as to the practical effects of this policy on the opportunities for Native employment. Approached on this subject, the authorities of the Labour Department in Durban stated that:

(1) the policy is a civilised labour policy and not merely a white labour policy;
(2) Mauritians, St. Helenas, members of the Cape coloured communities and Indians are regarded as civilised labour provided that they conform to European standards of living;
(3) in no circumstances would Natives be regarded as civilised labour.

On the other hand, the Secretary of Labour, in reply to a request from the Johannesburg Joint Council of Europeans and Natives, stated that the Department of Labour is entirely guided by the following definition laid down in 1924: "Civilised labour is to be considered as the labour rendered by persons whose standard of living conforms to the standard generally recognised as tolerable from the usual European standpoint." Certain Natives would not be excluded from the terms of this latter definition.

The Joint Council movement and the South African Institute of Race Relations appear to be continuing to perform useful work both in securing a certain measure of collaboration between the races and in enquiring into social and industrial conditions. On the other hand, Native trade unionism cannot be said to have made any progress.

The Workmen's Compensation Act, 1934, provides increased benefits for Natives. In the event of temporary total disablement a Native worker whose monthly earnings do not exceed £13 6s. 8d. will receive 60 per cent. of his earnings for a maximum period of six months. If, however, he receives from his employer food, quarters and medical aid, compensation is reduced to a maximum of 25 per cent. In the event of permanent total disablement the compensation is to be a lump sum between £75 and £225 for those whose monthly earnings do not exceed £13 6s. 8d. and for those in receipt of higher wages 25 times the monthly earnings of the worker

up to £20 plus 10 times his monthly earnings between £20 and £33 6s. 8d. with a maximum of £633 6s. 8d. In the event of death, compensation may be granted to the dependants in the form of a lump sum not exceeding 80 per cent. of the lump sum payable in the event of permanent total disablement or £373 or 18 months' earnings, whichever may be the least.

Conditions in *Basutoland*, *Bechuanaland* and *Swaziland* remained unchanged. They may be summed up as Native agricultural depression and labour migration to employment in the Union of South Africa.

In Bechuanaland, where mining developments are taking place, the first step was taken in September 1934 towards the establishment of labour legislation.

The Native Labourers' Compensation (Bechuanaland Protectorate) Proclamation, 1934, contains provisions for workmen's compensation for Native labourers employed otherwise than in domestic service or in agriculture. Compensation is fixed at £30 in the event of death, at not less than £10 and not more than £50 in the event of permanent total incapacity, and at not less than £1 and not more than £15 in the event of permanent partial incapacity. Temporary disablement is to be compensated by periodical payments at the rate of 60 per cent. of monthly earnings or 25 per cent. where the labourer receives food, quarters and medical aid from his employer.

The Regulation of Works and Machinery (Bechuanaland Protectorate) Proclamation, 1934, contains a series of regulations to be applied immediately to the Tati district and applicable by Government notice to other parts of the territory. The regulations provide for the appointment of inspectors of mines and machinery, for the notification of accidents and for various safety measures. It is laid down that no Native coming from north of the Zambesi River may be employed on underground work for one calendar month after his arrival unless he has been previously employed on such work in the Protectorate.

The Bechuanaland Protectorate Native Administration Ordinance, 1934, contains provisions limiting forced labour in accordance with the Forced Labour Convention.

In the British dependencies in the West Indies and neighbouring areas economic difficulties continued and adversely affected the demand for labour. In *Trinidad* labour disturbances took place in certain sugar districts. A report on economic conditions in *British Honduras* submitted in March states that there is much unemployment and that, although there appears to be little real distress as regards actual food, little money is available for clothes, still less for the payment of taxes and other commitments.

Certain labour laws passed during the year merit mention. In *British Guiana* the Workmen's Compensation Ordinance 1934 applies to all workmen except those in recept of more than 960 dollars a year, casual workers, outworkers, members of the

employer's family, the police, domestic servants, workers engaged in agriculture or mining unless in connection with machinery, workers employed on the river vessels, clerical workers, and shop assistants. The benefits for adults are: 30 months' wages or 1,200 dollars in the event of death, 42 months' wages or 1,680 dollars for permanent total incapacity, reduced rates for permanent partial incapacity and half wages for temporary incapacity. Bills on similar lines have been introduced in *Barbados*, *Grenada* and *St. Vincent*. In *Trinidad and Tobago* a Prevention of Accidents Ordinance was adopted. In *Grenada* an Ordinance gives effect to the Night Work (Women), Minimum Age (Industry), Night Work (Young Persons) and Minimum Age (Sea) Conventions, subject to the modifications that a child is defined as under 12 years of age and a young person as under 16 years of age. In *St. Vincent* a 1934 Ordinance enables the administration to fix minimum wage rates when wages are unreasonably low, while Bills have been introduced in *St. Lucia* and *St. Vincent* for the application of the Conventions concerning the employment of women and children.

For *Ceylon*, 1934 was a year of increased prosperity. During the first nine months of the year exports, as well as imports, considerably exceeded in value those of the corresponding period of 1933, leaving, moreover, a substantially higher favourable balance. This was due mainly to the improvement in the price of rubber and tea caused by the restriction to which the production of these industries was submitted by international agreement. In its turn improved trade resulted in a surplus of public revenue over expenditure of 10.5 million rupees during the financial year which ended on 30 September, and enabled the Government to balance the new budget without any difficulty although allowing for considerably higher expenditure. The financial position, thus strengthened, made it possible in particular to remove the levy on salaries of public servants with effect from 1 October 1934.

The economic revival, to which only the coconut industry made an important exception, was also reflected in an increased demand for labour, at least on estates. Whereas special schemes for the repatriation to India of tea and rubber estate labourers were in force throughout the greater part of 1933, the need of additional labour was now keenly felt and the tide of immigration began once more to swell. This development was accompanied by a rise in wages. In November 1933 shortage of labour had caused the planters voluntarily to increase wages, and on account of the continued improvement in conditions during 1934 the Government felt justified in imposing new minimum rates, equal to those prevailing at the beginning of 1933. These new rates took effect from 16 November 1934.

In the field of labour legislation, the most important fact to be recorded is the enactment of an Ordinance to provide for the payment of compensation to workmen injured in the course of their employment. The Ordinance is modelled on the Indian Workmen's Compensation Act (Act VIII of 1923) as revised and modified by

the amending Acts of 1924, 1925, 1926, 1929 and 1933, the last of which gave legislative sanction to the recommendations of the Royal Commission on Labour. Moreover, it is reported that a Committee has been appointed to make recommendations for the enactment of new factory legislation.

An important problem upon which the attention of the authorities, as well as of the planters, is being focused more and more is that of indebtedness among Indian estate labourers. Efforts are being made to encourage thrift among the workers, and the Agent of the Government of India has proposed to provide facilities for borrowing money at reasonable rates of interest through co-operative credit and thrift societies.

It is also due to the Agent's activity that in some districts head kanganies' associations have agreed to finance schemes for the starting of a home for decrepit and disabled Indian immigrant labourers.

In *Malaya*, where already at the end of 1933 indications appeared to show that the worst of the slump was over, a further increase of business was caused during 1934 by the continuous improvement in price of rubber and tin—Malaya's chief commodities. The state of the public finances showed a corresponding improvement.

Naturally, the economic revival gave rise to an increased demand for labour, and since as a result of the large scale repatriations effected during the preceding years this could not be met by the labour force in the country, additional labour had to be imported from abroad. So far as Indian labour is concerned, the Government of India agreed in May 1934 to the resumption of assisted emigration, which had been suspended in August 1930. It imposed, however, certain conditions in order to prevent excessive emigration and a possible fall in wage rates. Thus, only 20,000 persons would be allowed to emigrate in 1934. It was, moreover, understood —and this is perhaps the most interesting feature of the new scheme—that the bulk of the emigrants would consist of non-recruited workers. In view of the limited number of persons allowed to emigrate, each estate was allotted a quota of assisted immigrants and told to get in touch with former labourers in Madras and with relatives of present employees, instructing them to present themselves at the emigration depots in India. Obviously, the success of the scheme depended on the existence of a real connection between each estate and a group of villages. It was found that this connection had already been established, for immigrants began to arrive within a few weeks after the scheme was put into operation and more quickly than had been anticipated. Only a few kangany recruiting licences were given to tea and oil palm estates which had not yet established connection with India. The policy was to grant such licences very sparingly, and estates employing kanganies know that from the recruits so obtained they are expected to built up rapidly such a firm net of relations with India that kanganies will not be necessary in future.

It thus appears that a new stage in assisted Indian immigration

in Malaya has arrived. The stages so far have been: (*a*) unregulated professional recruiting; (*b*) regulated professional recruiting; (*c*) recruiting by selected labourers (kangany recruiting); (*d*) kangany recruiting supplemented by non-recruited immigration, and finally (*e*) non-recruited immigration.

As regards contract labour, in December 1933 the *Straits Settlements* Labour Ordinance was amended in the same way as the Federated Malay Straits Labour Code a year before in view of the abolition of penal sanction long-term contract labour for Netherlands Indian workers.

The practical consequences of this amendment were very small since for a number of years Netherlands Indian labour has no longer been employed under indenture in the Straits Settlements.

Workmen's compensation laws were enacted in the Unfederated Malay States of *Kedah* and *Johore.*

Protection of women and children was extended by the amendment towards the end of 1933 of the *Straits Settlements* Labour Ordinance in order to give effect to the Conventions concerning night-work (women) and night work (young persons) and by the passing in the State of *Kelantan* of laws in application of these Conventions as well as of that concerning minimum age (industry). Finally, mention should be made of the *Federated Malay States* Mining Rules, 1934, section 20 of which prohibits the employment of boys under the age of 16 years and of women and girls in underground workings.

Although in *Sarawak* economic and financial conditions appear to show a tendency for improvement, it has been found necessary to continue during 1934 the operation of the Labour Emergency Order, 1930, which empowers the Protector of Labour, with the labourers's consent, to reduce minimum wages or in other ways to vary the conditions of employment.

In the Pacific Islands the small demand for copra and other agricultural products kept employment figures and wages low, except in areas where gold mining development was being actively pursued.

In the *British Solomon Islands Protectorate* a 1934 amendment to the Native Labour Regulations reduced Native minimum wages to 10s. a month for adults and 5s. for children. The previous rates had been a penny an hour for adult males, three-farthings for adult females and a halfpenny for children, task work being paid at 9d. a task. Though the present demand for Native labour is slight, it has been suggested that the reduced wage rates may cause a labour shortage. It was specified in the Ordinance which was adopted in August that the new rates would not affect contracts in force at the end of November. One large firm is reported in the interval to have broken the contracts of selected labourers so as to re-engage them at the older and higher rates.

In *Fiji*, where new mining laws have been passed, the Mining Regulations, 1934, prohibit the employment of boys under the age

of 13 years or of females in underground workings, and the charging or firing of explosives by boys under 18 years, and fix hours of work for persons in charge of machinery. A Bill relating to the payment of compensation to workmen is under consideration.

In the *Gilbert and Ellice Islands* a 1934 amendment to the Labour Ordinance provides that security may be required for the ultimate return to his home of any recruited Native labourer.

The *New Hebrides* Labour Regulation 1934, which is applicable to British subjects in the Condominium, forms a detailed labour code regulating recruiting, the licensing of recruiting agents and recruiting vessels, contracts of employment, medical treatment, wages, hours of work and labour inspection.

In the Territory of *Papua* under Australian administration, new Native Labour Regulations were gazetted on 29 December 1933. The new text is mainly a codification of previous provisions. The chief matters covered are the guarantees to be furnished by recruiters, general recruiting conditions, health protection, hours of work and the maximum loads for carriers.

France. — Except perhaps for Algeria and Tunis, which had to meet difficulties of their own, 1934 was for the French possessions as a whole no worse than the previous year. In West Africa, the Cameroons, Syria and the South Pacific there were signs of improvement, though too insignificant and disconnected to warrant any talk as yet of a revival.

As regards public finance, a general rehabilitation took place, resulting in the balancing of nearly all the local budgets, though at the cost of drastic administrative economies. It proved impossible to continue at the same rhythm as in 1931, 1932 and 1933 the public works for which loans had been sanctioned. The programme of work was drawn up in a time of relative prosperity. To-day the interest commitments have become so onerous that the local administrations will soon be unable to call for fresh instalments unless the cost is borne by the metropolis. It has indeed been suggested in various quarters, notably in the report submitted to the Senate on the colonial budget for 1935, that these works should be financed by the metropolitan budget.

Trade figures for 1934 mark the continued trend towards closer economic relations between France and the colonies. To accentuate this tendency, the French Government convened an Imperial Economic Conference in Paris at the end of the year. A Preparatory Committee was entrusted with drawing up a detailed statement of French and colonial production and trade. One of the bodies consulted, the Superior Council for the Colonies, submitted weighty conclusions embodying a general policy of co-ordination between France and the colonies.

The French Government is also pursuing its general programme for the improvement of Native health standards. Of note in this connection are the circulars of the Minister for the Colonies on the protection of coloured children in French dependencies.

In North Africa the mining industries, where, owing to reduced production, there had been much unemployment among Europeans and Natives, recovered appreciably, particularly in the case of phosphates and iron ore. On the other hand, agriculture and handicrafts, the basic industries of North Africa, continued to suffer severely from indebtedness and low prices, so that the often wretched living standards of the Native workers declined still further.

In *Morocco* decreased production and trade led to unemployment, to indebtedness among the French colonists, and to a fall in European and Native wages and living standards. The measures taken to meet the difficulties include the adaptation of the Act of Algeciras, the customs clauses of which, establishing a flat rate of 12 per cent., permit foreign countries to compete with local crafts and industries on terms regarded as unduly favourable; budgetary compression through administrative reorganisation and a levy on salaries and wages; the utilisation of loan funds on new public works; the revision of the rents of industrial and commercial buildings; the revision of debts contracted by the colonists; new mining surveys; the extension of Native production, in particular in regard to fruit farming; enquiries undertaken by the Administration, the Superior Institute of Moroccan Studies and the Central Industrial Committee of Morocco into matters calculated to encourage Native industry, and to favour improvements in wage and living standards, food and other conditions in the lives of the Native wage-earner, craftsman and fellah.

To assist the unemployed, new free public employment exchanges were opened, the national labour market protected, and fresh public works and assistance schemes started.

In the case of the artisans who are suffering from foreign competition and the decline in the purchasing power of the fellaheen, a Dahir of 25 April 1935 prohibits the entry of foreign slippers into Morocco so as to protect the important Native slipper-making industry.

Finally, labour legislation was amended or supplemented in regard to the payment of wages, the emigration of Moroccan workers, the regulation of unhealthy trades, industrial accidents and conciliation boards, while a Dahir of 15 November 1934 has controlled foreign immigration.

In *Algeria* unemployment declined as the result of slightly improved conditions in some industries and the execution of the programme of public works, calculated by the Administration to cost 325 million francs.

A circular of the Governor-General dated 5 July 1934 contains a far-reaching programme for the development of Native rural arts and crafts. Technical training centres are gradually to be opened throughout the country.

Agriculture has been suffering from the difficulty of finding markets in France for local wheat, citrus fruits, and, above all,

wine. Steps have been taken to fix a minimum price for wheat and the minimum alcoholic content for wine, and to organise exports and sales. In addition, a committee has been instructed to enquire into the marketing of supplementary products such as fruits and vegetables.

The credit and agricultural co-operative societies have received increased subsidies from the State, while, in support of the fellaheen suffering from the crisis and malnutrition, the measures include advances granted to the Native provident societies, increased capital grants so as to enable them to lend money at moderate rates and thus combat indebtedness and usury, relief works and payments, the development of technical education, and the institution by an Order of 24 February 1934 of a special committee to study means of material and moral improvement in the living conditions of the Muslim population.

Finally, Algerian labour legislation has been supplemented by a Decree of 15 May 1934 applying the Metropolitan Act of 11 August 1926 for the protection of the labour market, a Decree of 18 May 1934 applying the Act of 1 February 1928 concerning the guaranteeing of security deposited by wage-earning and salaried employees, a Decree of 29 July 1934 applying the Act of 19 July 1928 concerning employment exchanges, and a Decree of 6 November 1934 applying the Act of 19 July 1928 concerning the hiring of services.

In *Tunis* the grave economic situation, with its resulting industrial unemployment, bankruptcies among tradesmen and colonists, and increased poverty among Native artisans and fellaheen, led to vigorous measures for reduction of expenses, to the establishment of a Permanent Committee for Economic Defence, and to an endeavour to secure a customs union with France for the marketing of Tunis products.

For the protection of Native artisans, the activities of the Central Co-operative Society of Arts and Crafts were co-ordinated with those of the Tunis Standardisation Office, the purpose of which is to maintain the quality of and to secure markets for agricultural products and arts and crafts. Steps were also taken to adapt technical education to the requirements of agriculture and handicrafts, which were further encouraged in the Muslim girls' schools. Grants in kind were paid to unemployed artisans.

The Administration has devoted particular attention to agriculture. Decrees were issued fixing minimum wheat prices, organising wheat markets, limiting vine culture, marketing wine in France, and regulating the quality of olive oil. Other Decrees provide for the temporary suspension of the judicial sale of real estate, the exemption from seizure of livestock, the extension of the operations of the consolidation and loan funds, and the modification of the laws relating to colonisation.

Finally, labour legislation was supplemented by measures concerning industrial accidents, the extension of the eight-hour day to certain industries and undertakings, and the extension of the powers of the labour inspectors. A Decree of 9 October 1934 applies

to Tunis the International Labour Convention concerning white lead in painting.

In *French Equatorial Africa* the chief event of the year was the official opening on 10 July 1934 of the Congo-Ocean Railway, which is expected to have consequences of considerable importance for the economy of the territory. One of the immediate results of the completion of the line was the return of some 10,000 Natives to their homes. The Administration is already endeavouring to encourage within the railway zone production which is likely to bring traffic to the line. The Administration has supplied stock and assisted 1,100 Natives to settle in the vicinity of the line.

The completion of the actual railway has given prominence to the problem of the construction of the Pointe Noire harbour works. An Order of 12 April 1934 set up a special Native labour service, which will act under the direct authority of the Governor-General as his representative in matters connected with the Government supervision of the Native labour force and will be responsible for the recruited workers.[1] A second Order of the same date fixes the daily wages of the workers employed at 1.50 francs for manual labourers and 2 francs for boss boys. Special arbitration boards have been set up to deal with disputes between the contractors and their labourers.

The economic situation appears to have remained unaltered. The Administration continues to encourage Native production. The Native is considered to have adapted himself more or less to the depression and, seeing that unemployment affects the Europeans as well, to regard it as a general misfortune which must be accepted with resignation. Rubber will be self-supporting in 1935; cotton, which is progressing in Ubangi-Shari, will still receive a small premium; in Gabun, oil surveys are being actively carried out.

The Governor-General has stated that at Brazzaville a Central Agricultural College will be opened for the training of agricultural instructors. On the completion of their course, these instructors will be stationed in the villages and will farm experimental plots and give agricultural training.

In regard to more general matters, mention may be made of the administrative reorganisation under the Decree of 30 June 1934. French Equatorial Africa ceases to be a federation and becomes a unitary colony with a single Governor and a single budget. The first unitary budget shows 178 million francs of income and expenditure. This is an increase of 7 million on previous years, but the increase is rather apparent than real, as the 7 million are affected to the loan service. Social services account for roughly 11 per cent. of the expenditure.

In the *Mandated Territory of the French Cameroons* the principles of labour legislation remained unchanged during 1933 and the

[1] This service was recently suppressed.

first months of 1934. The Administration appears to have concentrated on the stricter application of the texts in force, in particular by the tours of the labour inspectors, the creation of which service was mentioned in the *Year-Book* for 1933 [1]. The decline in employment noted in 1932 ceased, and there was greater activity in forestry undertakings and rural concessions. The written contract, which is compulsory for workers recruited for employment beyond their subdivisions, has become practically obsolete, the undertakings employing almost exclusively day workers engaged under verbal agreement.

There were no notable changes in wages during the year, and no disputed cases were brought before the arbitration boards.

In the case of the labour employed on public works, the skilled workers have for several years been solely volunteers. Among the unskilled workers, the proportion of compulsory labourers has progressively declined. The number of days of labour dues for each male taxpayer has remained fixed at 10 in the year. Porterage for the authorities continues to decline automatically with the extension of the road system.

In recent years a difficult question has arisen through clandestine recruiting in the southern districts for Fernando Po. The Administration has strongly opposed such recruiting, on account of the absence of guarantees for the protection of the health of the workers. The French High Commissioner in the Cameroons entered into negotiations with the Governor-General of the Spanish possessions of the Gulf of Guinea, with the result that a Convention was signed on 8 January 1934 authorising controlled emigration from the Cameroons to Fernando Po, but reserving to the French authorities supervisory powers over both new workers and previous emigrants in the island or the neighbouring Spanish possessions on the Gulf of Guinea. The number of workers to be recruited is not to exceed 4,000 a year. The French Government is to open in the district offices employment lists, in which volunteers will be entered individually. The recruits will be subject to medical examination, and will be required to obtain passes. The engagement of the workers is to be in accordance with a standard contract annexed to the Convention.

The convict labour system was reorganised under an Order of 8 July 1933. Convict labour may be placed at the disposal of private employers on the authority of the district officer. A fee is charged for each labourer, in addition to charges for supervision.

In *French West Africa* the fundamental problem is still that of the recovery of ground nut prices, ground nuts being the primary Native product. The protective legislation adopted by the metropolitan country (Act of 6 August 1933, imposing duties on imported grounds nuts and granting rebates to colonial products; and the Decree of 22 January 1934, establishing quotas for foreign vegetable oils) does not appear to have led to the improvement in the situation

[1] Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1933*, p. 388.

which was expected. Prices continued to fall, and resulted, particularly in Senegal, in great poverty among the Natives.

In the Ivory Coast, an Order of 25 May 1934 regulates certain details in application of the law concerning compulsory labour for public purposes. Wages are fixed at 2 francs a day, 50 per cent. being deferred. In addition, the Order contains provisions concerning the health of the workers (rations, housing, camps, hospitals, etc.) and their acclimatisation and adaptation to labour. The number of workers for public compulsory service which the Colony may be required to provide was fixed for the year at 6,550 men, to be employed on road work, the completion of various public works, irrigation works and railway construction. The labour is to be called on only if it is impossible to find sufficient free labour.

In French Guinea, an Order of 7 June 1934 set up a Labour Office to facilitate relations between employers and Native workers, to centralise labour offers and demands, and to advise on all questions concerning the regulation of Native labour.

By the Order of 28 April 1934, there have been extended to Native workers employed by the public services the benefits of previous labour legislation, in particular provisions limiting normal hours of work to 9 in the day.

Porters' and boatmen's wages were fixed in French Guinea by an Order of 28 April 1934 and in Dahomey by an Order of 29 March 1934.

In the Niger Province an Order of 28 March 1934 limits hours of work in industry to 9 in the day.

In the *Mandated Territory of French Togoland*, labour legislation remained unchanged during 1933 and the first months of 1934. There was no substantial modification in wages rates. No workers were engaged under contract, as a result of the abundance of non-contract labour.

In the urban centres on the coast (Lomé, Anecho and the Atakpamé district) the completion of railway construction and the decline in trade led to some unemployment. The number of the unemployed was inconsiderable (only 757 were registered in December 1933). Nevertheless, a Permanent Unemployment Committee was set up by a Decree of 10 January 1934 to study the means of assisting the Togo unemployed and to supervise the execution of any measures taken.

Technical education in Togoland was reorganised under a Decree of 27 October 1933.

Under an Order of 1 September 1933, the convict labour system was reorganised. Convicts may be assigned to the Government services. Only in exceptional cases may they be placed at the disposal of private employers, and then subject to authority granted under an order of the Commissioner for Togoland.

In *French Somaliland* an Order of 12 September 1933 introduces the labour work-book system for all Natives employed as domestic servants or workers for private or public employers, under verbal

engagement or written contract. The work-book must mention the nature and duration of the engagement, the rate of wages, and the manner of payment. No worker may be engaged for more than one year at a time.

In *Madagascar* the local authorities appear to be of the opinion that the worst part of the depression has passed. The established undertakings in the Colony have suffered heavy losses and have reduced production. They are, however, only waiting for more favourable conditions to resume full activity. The issue of the colonial loan has allowed the Administration to pursue the economic development of the island and to maintain social services.

If Madagascar has resisted the depression with more success than most of the other French possessions, it is due in the first place to the variety of products, and in the second to the level of development reached by Native production. Rice and coffee are making constant progress, Madagascar being the principal French coffee-producing possession, while the mines, which had almost entirely closed down, are again being worked. The Native is developing both his Native food crops and economic crops, either as a purely Native enterprise or in collaboration with the European colonists. The Administration has endeavoured to improve prices for Native products, chiefly by measures of standardisation and by the development of agricultural credit.

The local Administration considers, however, that in spite of the improvement in the situation the metropolitan country should continue to assist the Colony by maintaining the premiums on production, particularly for coffee, and the protection granted against foreign products, such as tapioca, which compete with Madagascar products on the French market.

In regard to measures of social protection, mention may be made of the opening of the Tananarive Social Hygiene Institute and the Order of 24 July 1934 authorising Native taxpayers admittedly incapable of paying their taxes in cash to meet their obligations by labouring on the " fiscal workplaces ". On these workplaces hours of work are fixed at 8 in the day and the workers are not fed. The rates for each day's labour are to be determined by the labour offices in the subdivisions where the workplaces are opened.

An Agricultural Provident Fund has been opened to insure against cyclones. It is to be administered by a board composed of officials and European and Native representatives of the local population.

In the *States of the Levant under French Mandate* unemployment has been particularly severe among handicraftsmen as a result of foreign competition in silk and cotton. The Administration has continued its policy of tariff protection coupled with the exemption from duties of the instruments and raw materials required for the local handicrafts. A permanent arts and crafts exhibition has been opened and the local industries encouraged by the extension of electric power and the revival of Native guilds.

In addition, as measures against unemployment in general and

to assist the return of economic prosperity, the Administration has undertaken a far-reaching programme of public works, including the enlargement of the Port of Beirut, the extension of the Baghdad railway towards Mosul, and irrigation works.

Regulations for employment exchanges in Syria are contained in a Decree of 10 July 1934.

In *Indo-China* the dominant feature is still the situation created by the heavy fall in the price of rice, which is the chief article of export. Prices which ran to 115 francs per 100 kgs. in 1929 dropped to 35 francs by November 1935. The economic and social position of the whole country has suffered severely, and, as a result of the decline in purchasing power, the collection of indirect taxes, on which the general budget is based, has been disastrously affected. In Cochin-China, an added difficulty has been the debts contracted by many of the rice growers at usurious rates, the total indebtedness of the producers amounting to approximately 60,000,000 piastres. Minerals, rubber, coffee, tea and maize have suffered from the corresponding fall in prices.

The Administration has reacted against the results of the depression by budgetary economies (the general budget, which exceeded 108,000,000 piastres in 1931, was reduced to 54,782,220 for 1935), by assisting in the adjustment of agricultural and commercial debts, and by endeavouring to restore rice to its old position on the external markets. To-day the whole of the rice stocks have been exported, rubber is safe as a result of protective measures and the international agreements for the limitation of production, coffee and tea are in a secure position, the debts of the rice cultivators have been brought down to 20,000,000 piastres, and adjustments in other debts are to be attempted in the immediate future.

As regards labour supply and demand, the emigrant contract labour movement, which showed signs of revival in 1933, has developed further. The number of workers engaged for South Indo-China and the Pacific increased from 2,630 to 8,383, while repatriations fell from 7,300 to 4,554. The campaign against malaria, which was held up on some of the estates in 1933, has been resumed.

Conditions of employment as laid down in the Order of 25 October 1927 remained unchanged. The deferred pay system, which, during the previous year, was adversely affected by irregularities in payment, appears to have been placed on a proper basis.

The increase in recruited labour has not been accompanied by any increased employment of non-contract workers. The Decree of 19 January 1933, by which such workers were to receive a first measure of labour protection, has not yet been promulgated in Indo-China, and its application is thus adjourned until further notice. Forced labour for public purposes, for which the Orders of 5 and 6 February 1932 and 11 May 1933 constitute the general regulations applicable to the whole territory, has been regulated in detail in Laos and Annam by supplementary orders. In Laos five Orders dated 27 June 1933 complete the general regulations by additional details and guarantees, in particular in regard to

the classes of exempted Natives, the transport of forced workers, health precautions and, on this point in great detail, workmen's compensation. Numerous provisions regulate porterage, and wage rates are fixed for all forced workers. In Annam the *Du* of 21 August 1933, the Governor-General's Order of 21 September 1933, and the Resident's Order of 30 August 1933 enumerate the provinces where forced labour is completely prohibited and those where it is provisionally authorised, lay down the exceptional character of any recourse to forced labour, enumerate the exempted classes and fix the maximum duration at 60 days in the year.

An important decision has been taken in regard to workmen's compensation by the Decree of 9 September 1934. French workmen's compensation legislation is to be applied to the Colony subject to the modifications necessitated by local conditions. The new law only applies to European and assimilated workers but it forms the first stage in the elaboration of a general code. Under it the principle of employers' liability for accidents during employment is accepted in the case of accidents occurring in industrial, commercial, agricultural and forestry undertakings, whether public or private. Employees and workers in receipt of more than 24,000 francs a year are entitled to full benefits in respect of that sum only, to a quarter benefits in respect of remuneration between 24,000 and 50,000 francs, and to one-eighth benefits for higher remuneration. Subject to these conditions, in the event of permanent total incapacity the worker will be entitled to a pension of two-thirds of his annual remuneration; in the event of permanent partial incapacity, to one half his reduction in earning capacity; temporary incapacity after four days will entitle the worker to half pay. Under the same Decree a fund has been established entitled " the special fund for the guarantee of pensions due to workers disabled in employment ".

In *New Caledonia* the creation of a Labour Office, mentioned in the *Year-Book* for 1933 [1], was completed by Orders of 3 April 1933 concerning the finances of the Office and fixing the fees payable by employers and by immigrants.

Immigrant labour was the subject of certain important decisions. An Order of 3 April 1933 encourages settlement by authorising any immigrant who has completed a minimum period of employment of five years to remain as a free resident in the Colony. A second Order of the same date sets up a permanent inspectorate of immigrant labour and provides that at least once a year the workers shall be inspected at their places of employment and the execution of their contracts verified. In the case of Javanese workers the employers have been notified that all immigrants must be repatriated before 27 November 1934. Negotiations with the Government of the Netherlands Indies with a view to reducing the cost of such labour have so far met with no success and the Administration is contemplating the introduction of Indo-Chinese labour.

[1] Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1933*, p. 391.

The conditions of employment of workers employed by the Administration were regulated by an Order of 2 February 1934. Hours are fixed at 48 in the week and adult wages in the interior at a minimum of 20 francs.

A circular was issued on 2 February 1934 fixing the conditions for the enforcement of labour dues. Such services are to be performed on the construction and maintenance of roads and paths of general utility.

An Order of 14 October 1933 applies to New Caledonia the metropolitan Act of 12 March 1920 concerning the civil personality of trade unions. Trade unions are authorised to carry on employment offices and such occupational assistance schemes as provident funds, experimental workshops, plots, etc.

Italy. — During 1934 the Italian Government pursued its colonial policy of previous years, the essential features of which are the colonisation of Libia, and in East Africa (particularly Somaliland) the encouragement of exports of value for the metropolitan economy. Money was spent on the economic equipment of the colonies (roads, harbours, irrigation works, buildings, etc.), and reforms were undertaken to modify or complete the administrative system on the basis of which future development is planned.

The interest shown in colonial problems in Italy was strikingly illustrated by the success of the second Italian Congress of Colonial Studies, which was held in Naples from 2-4 October 1934. The Congress discussed a large number of problems and gave favourable attention to the recommendations concerning the recruiting of colonial labour drawn up by the Committee of Experts on Native Labour of the International Labour Office. Mention should also be made of the appointment by the Minister for the Colonies of a committee to study colonial labour questions. In place of the present somewhat fragmentary colonial legislation, the committee is to draw up a series of laws of a more uniform and rational nature, taking account of the particular circumstances of each colony as well as of the International Labour Conventions ratified by Italy. It is to deal both with questions of Native labour and with the regulation of the employment of Italian workers in the colonies, particularly in Libia. In the case of such workers the committee's primary task will be to examine the extent to which the new Italian labour legislation may be applied in the colonies.

During the year Italy ratified the Forced Labour Convention. The act of ratification provides that the Convention shall apply to the Kingdom of Italy and all possessions and colonies.

In *Libia*, as the result of the abolition of the post of Lieutenant-Governor of Cyrenaica and the new administrative division of the territory, the old distinction between Cyrenaica and Tripolitania is to disappear, the government of the Colony being henceforth entrusted to one Governor. The policy of colonisation has been confirmed, in particular by the extension to Tripolitania of the activities of the autonomous organisation for the colonisation of

Cyrenaica *(Ente per la Colonizzazione della Cirenaica)*. It thus appears that the Government, encouraged by the success achieved in the latter territory, has decided to settle Italian workers directly in Tripolitania rather than to follow the method so far practised of the development of the country through concessionary companies mainly of an industrial character. The same tendency can be traced in the decision of the Minister for the Colonies to assist ex-soldiers of the Fascist voluntary militia to settle in agricultural land in Libia. As regards the Native population steps were taken to encourage stock rearing and agriculture among the Natives released from the concentration camps.

In *Eritrea* an official organisation was set up in 1933 for the colonisation of the country *(Consorzio di Colonizzazione in Eritrea)* and the constitution of the organisation was approved in 1934. In addition the Government of the Colony in 1934 made grants to Italian settlers for the execution of certain works in connection with the cultivation of coffee, stock farming and irrigation.

In *Somaliland* the Government's efforts in agriculture have been concentrated chiefly on the regulation of the Uebi Gofca, a river in the south of the country. It is planned to complete the work within two years and thus to redeem for agricultural purposes several tens of thousands of hectares of fertile land. The cultivation of bananas, which during recent years has been gradually superseding that of cotton on European concessions, continued to develop successfully owing to the measures adoped by the Government to facilitate the exportation of the fruit to Italy.

Netherlands. — During 1934 the economic and financial situation in the *Netherlands Indies*, which had been steadily worsening since 1929, began to steady and even to improve. For the first nine months of the year foreign trade showed a favourable balance of 180 million florins, being 50 million florins more than in the corresponding period in 1933. Exports increased by 33.5 million florins, and imports decreased by 16.5 million florins. The increase in exports was entirely due to the recovery in the prices of the products limited by international agreement (tea, tin, rubber); the decrease in imports was chiefly due to the measures taken by the Government to protect Native agriculture (rice) and certain branches of industry. Thus further breaches were made in the traditional policy of non-intervention in economic matters.

After the prohibition of the import of rice mentioned in the 1933 *Year-Book* [1] the measure with the strongest and most direct influence on Native economy, particularly that of the Outer Provinces, was the restriction in rubber cultivation. It proved extremely difficult to find a method which could be applied to the unorganised bulk of Native cultivators. The solution adopted so far, which consists of imposing export dues on Native rubber at rates varying with the percentage restriction and world prices, can hardly be the

[1] Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1933*, p. 393.

final solution for all districts. The Native cultivator is deprived of a large proportion of the value of his product and is in a markedly inferior situation to that of the European plantations, which are subject to individual restriction. It should be added, however, that the returns from the export dues are not included in the general public finances but used solely for purposes of special importance for the Native population, in particular for the reduction in labour dues *(heerendiensten)*.

Measures were taken towards close commercial relations between the Colony and the Netherlands. The system of quotas imposed on the imports of textiles was intended not only to protect the Native industry but also to put a stop to the alarming fall in imports from the Netherlands during recent years owing to increased foreign imports. As a counterpart the Netherlands has kept up the prices of a number of colonial products and assisted the launching of loans for the Netherlands Indies.

As regards public finance, the revenue during the first seven months of the year was higher than for the same period in 1933. Nevertheless, there is still a financial deficit, and although the administrative machinery has been reduced to a minimum (e.g. the Labour Inspectorate comprises only ten inspectors for the whole archipelago, instead of the former forty), there is a question of new and substantial economies. The analysis of the figures, moreover, shows that the increase in revenue is solely due to increased taxation (customs and excise on sugar) and better returns from the State tin mines, but that the impoverishment of the population continues, as is confirmed by other symptoms such as the increase in crime, breaches of the salt monopoly in certain districts, a marked decline in the redemption of labour dues, difficulties in tax collection, etc. The cash shortage in the villages adds to the difficulties and has led to the suggestion that Native taxpayers should be allowed to work off their arrears on public works. It is argued that, as the taxpayers will be free to accept such employment or not, the proposal is not an infringement of the Forced Labour Convention, which became applicable in the Netherlands Indies on 31 March 1934.

Up to the present, the Colony has been essentially agricultural, but industrialisation is beginning. In particular, textile manufacture in small undertakings, encouraged and protected by the Administration, is developing among the Native population, while there are an increasing number of European factories (tyres, matches, soap, paint, textiles, bicycles, barrels, etc.).

In spite of the increased openings resulting from this development, unemployment became more serious. At the end of October 1934, there were on the books of the employment exchanges 4,041 Europeans, 12,151 Natives, and 1,246 Asiatic aliens. The question has arisen whether the obligations imposed by unemployment on society can be borne much longer by charity. This is one of the most serious problems in front of the Administration.

Recruiting for the Outer Provinces has been inconsiderable.

During the year, there has been no progress in social legislation. The Ordinance for the abolition of the last traces of *heerendiensten* in the Java and Madura territories under direct administration confirms rather than modifies existing conditions. The proposal, mentioned in the *Year-Book* for 1933 [1], to extend the application of the provisions governing the contract employment of Europeans to Native workers and those of similar standing whose earnings exceed a specified minimum has been abandoned.

On the other hand, the depression, with its repercussions on officials and employees, has led the trade union federations of civil servants and of European employees, which failed to co-operate in the past, to form a kind of joint organisation.

In *Curaçao* an Ordinance has been adopted to facilitate the collection of statistics regarding the number, nature and results of industrial accidents and diseases, expenses occasioned thereby, etc. With the statistics at hand, the colonial legislature will be able to see whether it is necessary to introduce workmen's compensation legislation, and the form of such legislation.

Portugal. — The Portuguese colonies remain under the influence of the depression. The Government is however showing increasing interest in their development.

Mention was made in the 1933 *Year-Book* [2] of the four landmarks in the new Portuguese colonial policy: the Colonial Act as modified and brought into harmony with the principles of the new political constitution of the Republic; the Imperial Conference, or Conference of Colonial Governors held in Lisbon in June 1933; the Organic Charter of the Portuguese Colonial Empire of 15 November 1933; the administrative reform of the overseas possessions under Decree of 15 November 1933. These measures clearly indicate the tendency of the new colonial policy towards closer relationship between the home country and the colonies and closer supervision on the part of the central authority in place of the administrative and financial autonomy of the overseas possessions decreed some twenty-five years ago.

As regards public finance, the budgets for 1931-1932, 1932-1933, 1933-1934 and 1934-1935 have been balanced in all territories.

The new economic policy has been accentuated by Decrees promulgated during the year for the purpose of increasing trade between Portugal and the colonies. The first Colonial Exhibition held in Oporto in August and September 1934, and attended by 1,300,000 visitors, drew public attention to colonial problems and was the occasion of numerous scientific meetings (Congresses of Colonial Agriculture, of Colonial Anthropology, of Colonial Education and of Colonial Settlement).

By Ordinance promulgated on 26 December 1934, the Government has convoked the first Economic Conference of the Portuguese Colonial Empire to meet in Lisbon by 2 December 1935. The

[1] Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1933*, p. 394.
[2] *Ibid.*, pp. 395 et seq.

Conference will examine the various problems connected with the establishment of a closer relationship between Portugal and its overseas possessions.

The economic situation in *Angola* continued to show signs of improvement. The Colony, however, suffered severely during 1934 from drought and from damage to crops by locusts. As a result, the production of cereals decreased by more than 50 per cent., the wheat harvest being almost entirely destroyed. The Administration took the necessary measures to combat locusts, to assist farmers by the distribution of seed, etc. and to relieve famine stricken Natives.

Problems of general education, technical education and Native medical assistance continue to receive the attention of the competent authorities. According to a communication from the Governor-General, Native medical assistance during the year resulted in 2,400,000 consultations or treatments, 153,000 atoxil inoculations, 110,000 vaccinations, and a large number of other forms of relief.

Two Ordinances of 8 September 1934 concern sleeping sickness. According to a report by Dr. Trolli, Director of Health Services in the Belgian Congo, during 1927-1928 22,771 cases of sleeping sickness were noted among the Natives of Angola. By 1933, the figure had fallen to 867. It thus appears that this disease, which used to be endemic in the Colony, is no longer of great importance.

The Administration also passed various measures to encourage and improve the cultivation of certain colonial products, such as cotton, maize and sisal (Instruction of 3 February concerning the application of Decree No. 11994, circular of 16 June and Ordinance of 22 September 1934, Ordinance of 28 July 1934, Order of 18 August 1934). Measures were also taken to encourage and improve stock breeding and Native cattle under an Order of 1 September 1934, while the Official Bulletin of the Colony for 20 October 1934 published a draft Order for the establishment of societies for the production, sale and export of livestock.

Important programmes of public works (roads, railways, etc.) were planned or put into execution in 1934.

From a note published by the Luanda customs services on trade between January and July 1934, it appears that during this period receipts exceeded by 1,011,419 angolares the figure for the corresponding period in 1933.

In *Mozambique* an Order of 14 February 1934 provides for certain measures in support of Native stock. Ordinances of 22 August and 26 September 1934 concern the agricultural assistance of Natives. Under an Ordinance of 1 September 1934, compulsory free primary education has been established for children of both sexes of the white race or of similar standing between seven and thirteen years of age, and fixes conditions for the admission of Native children.

In June 1934 an agreement was concluded between the Governments of Mozambique and Southern Rhodesia regarding the recruitment of Native labourers in the district of Tete, Mozambique, for employment in Southern Rhodesia. The agreement replaces the

previous agreement of 22 July 1925. The only modifications are the deletion of reference to the recently liquidated Rhodesian Native Labour Bureau, of provision for a minimum payment by Southern Rhodesia to Mozambique, and of certain customs provisions applying to the goods and baggage of Native labourers. The principal clause provides that the Government of Mozambique will permit the recruiting within the district of Tete of Native labourers by any person or organisation agreed upon by the authorities as fit and proper persons to engage Native labour, provided that the number of Native labourers from Tete who may be in Southern Rhodesia at any time as a result of such recruiting may not exceed a monthly average of 15,000.

A Convention concerning Native labour and commercial relations between Mozambique and the Union of South Africa was signed on 17 November 1934. The chief features of this Convention are summarised above, under the Union of South Africa.

During 1934, Mozambique suffered from the devastation of many crops by locusts, and the Government was compelled to take various steps to combat the plague.

The different municipalities have received instructions to assign 5 per cent. of their receipts to a fund for the development of primary education in the Colony.

The Government of Mozambique has transmitted to the home Government a proposal, which has been approved by the Government Council of the Colony, for the creation of an agricultural and industrial credit institution.

Large-scale public works, which for some time have been under consideration, in particular the irrigation of the Limpopo Valley, have been further studied and submitted for consideration to the competent organisations in the Colony.

In *Portuguese Guinea* the situation continues to demand the attention of the Administration, which has pursued its efforts for the organisation of Native production and for the assistance of the Natives. In view of the difficult situation of many Natives as a result of the depression, the Administration has promulgated various measures with a view to facilitating the payment of taxes (Ordinances of 8 January, Order of 5 February 1934).

By Order of 29 January 1934 new provisions were issued regulating Native passes in further application of the Decree of 6 December 1928 approving the Native Labour Code in the Portuguese African colonies. All male Natives of 16 years of over age residing in the Colony are required to obtain an identity or work book. Female Natives and children under 16 years of age who do not possess such a book are required to obtain a pass whenever they wish to travel within the Colony or to change their residence. Among the purposes of the measure is the prevention of the influx into the town of unemployed Natives and the suppression of vagrancy.

By an Order of 30 December 1933, certain amendments were made in the Order of 18 December 1932 establishing two special

Native Assistance Funds (the Native Medical Assistance Fund and the Agricultural Assistance Fund).

Ordinances of 30 April and 11 June 1934 contain various measures for the development of agricultural production, in particular as regards the improvement of crops, the distribution of seeds, the purchase of agricultural machinery for Native use, etc.

In the *Cape Verde Islands* the situation remains difficult. As measures against unemployment resulting from the decrease in shipping, the general commercial depression, and the shortage of employment in the building trades, the Administration has drawn up and put into execution a far-reaching programme of public works. For this purpose, the Colony has contracted from the General Lisbon Deposit Fund a loan of 15,000,000 escudos, which will be used partly for afforestation and irrigation works, the construction of schools, the contruction and repair of roads, etc. (Orders of 16 June, 10 August and 21 September 1934).

In the *Portuguese Indies* the difficulties of the farmers increased during 1934. The Administration, under Orders of 4 May and 18 September granted certain indemnities and exemptions, in particular as regards payment of land taxes. The special agricultural protection fund received under Ordinances of 15 October and 1 November subsidies of 84,933: 11: 00 rupees and 570: 01: 09 rupees.

Mention should also be made of the creation by the Order of 3 July 1934 of a national assistance scheme for rural workers in case of old age or invalidity. The Ordinance of 4 September approving the statutes of the institution states that its purpose is to insure against old age and invalidity all workers of both sexes employed in rural occupations and all workers connected with such occupations.

In *Timor*, in spite of the fall in coffee, there were some signs of economic improvement. According to official reports, trade equilibrium was regained during 1934. The Government Council approved Native Labour Regulations based on the Portuguese Native Labour Code of 1928.

Spain. — In the *Spanish Protectorate of Morocco* Spanish and Native workers suffered severely from the depression. Remedies have been sought in the extension of the road system, other public works, and land settlement.

Handicrafts and trade were seriously affected by shortage of capital and foreign competition under the same customs system as in French Morocco. A Dahir of 28 May 1934, also as in French Morocco, prohibits the import of foreign slippers with a view to the protection of this important branch of local handicrafts.

In *Spanish Guinea* the Governor-General's Decree of 27 September 1934 provides new regulations for the recruiting and engagement of contract workers. The policy in view is the economic development of the Colony, a reduction in the number of workers required in Fernando Po from Spanish Continental Guinea where labour

is scarce and the birth rate is falling to an alarming extent, the prohibition of private recruiting agents, new measures for the protection of the health and welfare of recruits, the establishment of employment exchanges, which from 1 June 1935 are to be responsible for the placing of Spanish and Cameroons Native workers, and the strict application of contracts attested by the Colonial Curator.

The International Situation

The work of the International Labour Organisation in the field of Native labour during the year 1934 was marked by the holding of the fifth Session of the Committee of Experts on Native Labour (Geneva, 30 April to 5 May 1934), and the placing of the question of the recruiting of Native labour on the Agenda of the 1935 Session of the International Labour Conference [1].

At its 1934 meeting the Committee of Experts on Native Labour first completed the final revision of its recommendations concerning the recruiting of Native labour, and then continued the study of written contracts of employment.

The essential principles adopted by the Committee in regard to written contracts comprised the following points:

Contracts of employment with Native workers should be required to be in writing in certain cases, in particular when the contract is concluded for a period exceeding a maximum to be fixed by the competent authorities. This maximum should in no case be greater than six months.

All written contracts should be concluded in the presence of a public officer who should ascertain a number of facts, in particular that the worker has given his consent without coercion or undue influence. Every written contract should be registered by the competent authority and a copy delivered to the worker. The contract should mention, in addition to details of identification and of the terms of the employment, all particulars necessary to show the rights and obligations of both parties.

The maximum period of service should be prescribed by law or regulations and should be as short as possible. Without laying down any precise recommendation on this subject, the Committee expressed the opinion that contracts should not exceed 36 months when the worker is employed in a territory other than his territory of origin, and 12 months in other cases, and that this maximum should not exceed 12 months in any circumstances in continental Africa.

The conclusion of re-engagement contracts and the transfer of workers from one employer to another should be subject to the same essential guarantees as the conclusion of the original contract.

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[1] Cf. *The Recruiting of Labour in Colonies and in Other Territories with Analogous Labour Conditions.* Report IV, International Labour Conference, Nineteenth Session.

The termination of written contracts should be permitted only in the cases and under the conditions prescribed by the law or regulations. Contracts should be terminable before the expiry of the stipulated period of service on the application of either party in special circumstances, for which the law or regulations should provide.

The worker and his family should be entitled to free repatriation except where provision is made for their settlement at or near the place of employment.

The question of penal sanctions was the subject of careful consideration by the Committee. While recognising that penal sanctions for breach of contract by the worker cannot immediately be abolished in all territories, the Committee expressed the opinion that the general trend of Government policy should be towards the mitigation of the sanctions with a view to their abolition. Meanwhile, and in order to pave the way for eventual abolition, the Committee suggested that the Governments should take certain measures, including the following: a clear distinction should be drawn between breaches of the contract, offences against health and safety, and breaches of discipline; penal sanctions for breach of contract should be abolished in the case of peoples sufficiently evolved to understand the binding nature of contracts; where penal sanctions are still maintained, a special jurisdiction and procedure should be set up to deal with such offences; the worker should be warned or fined without the alternative of imprisonment for first offences; finally, the possibility should be examined of requiring employers to employ increasing percentages of workers whose contracts do not provide for penal sanctions.

A comparison between the above principles and the national developments which have been recorded above under that head suggests that the recommendations of the Committee of Experts concerning contract labour reflect present tendencies in Native labour territories. The Government control of the conclusion of contracts is increasing. The maximum periods of service tend to decrease, the general trend of Government policy is towards the mitigation and often the complete abolition of penal sanctions.

A not dissimilar conclusion results from the examination of the present situation in regard to the use of forced labour, in comparison with the provisions of the Forced Labour Convention.

During the year further progress was made in the ratification and application of the Convention. The usual statement concerning the action taken on the 1930 Convention and Recommendations and officially communicated to the International Labour Office is given below:

Convention No. 29: Forced Labour, 1930 [1].

Finland. — In a proposal submitted to Parliament in April 1934 the Government asked for authority to ratify the Convention. Approval of the Convention

[1] The information given here relates only to 1934. See the tables at the end of the volume for the general situation as regards the Convention.

would not involve any legislative or other action by Finland, but would simply show that for humanitarian reasons Finland desires to support the attempt to abolish forced labour.

Italy. — Ratification registered on 18 June 1934.

Latvia. — The Minister of Social Welfare informed the Office that the Government had decided to take the necessary action to ratify the Convention.

Mexico. — Ratification registered on 12 May 1934.

Nicaragua. — Ratification registered on 12 April 1934.

Recommendation No. 35: Forced Labour (Indirect Compulsion), 1930.

Recommendation No. 36: Forced Labour (Regulation), 1930.

Finland. — The Government informed Parliament in April 1934 that since these Recommendations had no practical importance for Finland, they could not give rise to any action.

Further, as the summary of national developments shows, the provisions of the Convention became applicable in the Netherlands Indies, and additional legislative action in application of the Convention was taken in certain British dependencies. Moreover, in the case of the colonial powers which have not yet seen fit to ratify the Convention, forced labour appears to be regarded increasingly as an exceptional measure, recourse to which must be subject to guarantees of the kind embodied in the Convention. In this connection, the action taken in certain French colonies is particularly illuminating.

The national developments also show certain international tendencies in matters with which the International Labour Organisation has not dealt directly in their bearings on colonial labour problems. In British, Netherlands and French dependencies the necessity is being increasingly felt for adequate workmen's compensation legislation. The extension of labour inspection in French dependencies and the results of its infortunate retrogression under financial stress in the Netherlands Indies and certain British dependencies indicate, from the positive and negative side, the supreme importance of some such machinery in territories where the enforcement of the laws is complicated by geographical and administrative difficulties and by the absence of workers' organisations. Above all, the plight of the unemployed Native who has become dependent on European industry and of the Native cultivator who is caught in the web of world economics remains much the same whether the administration be British, Netherlands, French, Italian, or Portuguese, while the remedies which are being tried bear a strong resemblance.

Thus, in a year of intensified nationalism the international character of colonial problems has been marked, as has the similarity of the solutions contemplated. So far as these solutions have been standardised by the International Labour Organisation—by Conference decisions in the case of forced labour, and tentatively as recommendations of the Committe of Experts in the case of recruiting and contract labour—they no longer have to be defended

against charges of utopianism. Moreover, even though the tendency common in varying degrees to all the colonial powers towards forming with their overseas dependencies an economic system closed as far as possible against outsiders may appear to make of less importance the establishment of international standards and may even engender distrust of new international commitments, this economic nationalism appears in one direction to be favourable to Native welfare and to the work of the International Labour Organisation. The development of the colonies is becoming of more obvious importance to the metropolitan countries and practical recognition is increasing that the wealth of the colonies is to be found in the prosperity of their peoples, primarily through the development of Native economy.

Nevertheless, in spite of these hopeful signs, in spite of definitely improved material conditions in the Union of South Africa and certain dependencies of the European powers, in spite of courageous official optimism, the general impression left by the year is that the lifting of the depression in colonial and analogous territories is cruelly slow. If the populations are to be induced freely to aid in any revival, there will be not only the psychological problem of convincing them once again of the value and possibility of material betterment, but also in too many cases the task of rebuilding the machinery of such progress, including the development of the human material. The depression has at least emphasised the economic importance, the demographical necessity of social justice for peoples unable or learning to stand by themselves under the strenuous conditions of the modern world.

Prison Labour

The Fourteenth Assembly of the League of Nations had decided in 1933 to communicate the Standard Minimum Rules for the Treatment of Prisoners to Governments, requesting them to state whether they were able to approve and apply them [1].

In 1934, the Fifteenth Assembly, having received the replies of 29 Governments, recommended the States to adapt their legislation to the Standard Rules in order that the treatment of prisoners might never fall below the minimum established by the International Penal and Penitentiary Commission. In the resolution it adopted, the Assembly particularly expressed the hope that the International Labour Organisation would continue to follow the very important question of prison labour.

National regulations are to an increasing extent giving expression to the idea that useful work must form the basis of the treatment of prisoners, but at the same time this raises the problem of finding

[1] Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book.* p. 404.

suitable work that will not compete unfairly with industry or injure the interests of free workers. The legislative measures adopted in 1934, especially in the United States, reflect the movement towards a solution of this problem. The State-use system, i.e. the employment of prisoners on production for State purposes, the assimilation of the conditions of employment in prisons to the general level, the diversification of employment of prisoners are considered to be the most effective methods.

Germany. — Penal administration is within the competence of the Federal States, which, in order to secure a certain uniformity, had concluded a convention in 1923 laying down guiding principles for the imposition of sentences of imprisonment. In consequence of the movement for constitutional reform that took place during 1933, an Act of 16 February 1934 provided for the transfer of judicial powers to the National Government. Under the Act, an Order of 14 May 1934 prescribed that provisionally, pending an Act for unifying penal administration, and subject to the amendments made by the Order, the principles of 1923 should be observed for the imposition of sentences of imprisonment.

Contrary to the 1923 convention, the Order defines the primary aim of the sentence as that of punishment. In spite of this change of principle, the Order maintains the provisions approved in 1923 as regards prison labour. These relate in particular to the organisation of prison labour, the conditions of employment in prisons, remuneration, etc. On the other hand, the Order abolishes the advisory committees that had been set up in prisons.

A new chapter establishes the principles that should govern the application of measures for preventive or corrective detention (in an asylum, an inebriates' asylum, a workhouse, or after a sentence has been served).

Great Britain. — The Departmental Committee appointed in 1932 by the Secretary of State for Home Affairs " to review the methods of employing prisoners and of assisting them to find employment on discharge, and to report what methods are desirable and practicable " has published a first report on the employment of prisoners [1].

Continuous and useful employment, says the report, must be regarded not as a punishment but as an instrument of discipline and reform. Suitable employment is the most important factor in the physical and moral regeneration of the prisoner. The root of all evil in the employment of prisoners is the definite shortage of work. The report advocates closer co-operation between the prison authorities and other departments and the local authorities. In view of the fact that the number of prisoners likely to be employed on outside work is comparatively small, there is held to be no objection to outside work being undertaken so long as prison goods are not sold below the market price, and every

[1] For further details, cf. *International Labour Review*, Volume XXX, No. 2, Aug. 1934, pp. 227 *et seq.*

consideration is shown to the special circumstances of particular industries outside, so as to avoid undue interference with wages or the employment of free labour. According to the report, the effect of the competition of prisoners will be negligible, provided there is a careful avoidance of concentration on a particular industry in a particular district.

The report considers that training should be the main aim in the case of inmates of the Borstal institutions (reform schools for boys and girls between 16 and 21 years of age) and of prisoners under 30 years of age serving comparatively long sentences.

As regards hours of work, the Committee advocates the re-establishment of the former associated working day of eight hours, subject to certain reservations.

In view of the good results obtained under the wages systems in force in certain prisons, the Committee recommends that, so long as a sufficiency of work is available, a system of payment should be generally introduced. In any case, however, payment should not be automatic, but should be based either on the actual measurement of output or on a careful assessment of the prisoner's activity.

United States. — The Federal Act of 19 January 1929, known as the Hawes-Cooper Act, which gives each State of the Union the right to prohibit the sale of prison-made goods coming from other States throughout its territory, came into force on 19 January 1934 [1].

In 1934 the States of Mississippi, New Jersey, New York, Rhode Island and Virginia promulgated legislation in conformity with the Federal Act, so that in the great majority of the States of the Union there is now legislation to restrict inter-State trade in prison goods.

A Federal Act No. 461, which came into force on 23 June 1934, authorised the creation of " Federal prison industries ". The Act supplements the Act of 27 May 1930 providing for the diversification of employment of Federal prisoners and for their training in trades and occupations. The Federal Prison Industries Corporation has the duty of determining in what manner and to what extent industrial operations shall be carried on in Federal penal and correctional institutions, diversifying as far as practicable present industrial operations so that no single private industry shall be forced to bear an undue burden of competition from the products of prison workshops. The Corporation is authorised to use the Prison Industries Fund for the purposes enumerated in the Act of 1930, and also for the payment of compensation to inmates of penal institutions for injuries suffered in any industry. Compensation paid may not be greater than that provided in the Federal Employees' Compensation Act. The Corporation was established on 11 December 1934.

[1] For the scope of this Act. cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1932*, p. 378.

In several industries more particularly exposed to the competition of prison labour, the codes of fair competition introduced under the National Industrial Recovery Act also deal with prison labour. Apart from those which simply prohibit such labour (the handkerchief code) these codes usually provide that articles may not be manufactured in prisons or that the products of prison labour may not be sold if the conditions of labour in the prison and the prices of the goods produced there are not the same as in private industry (e.g. cotton garment, retail trade, and food product codes).

The application of the provisions was made subject to the conclusion of a compact between the States, which were to guarantee the observance of the fair competition clauses in prisons. This compact was duly concluded and was approved by the President of the United States on 19 April 1934. It limits the hours of labour in prison industries to not more than those prescribed in the code for each industry, and provides that in no case may prison labour be permitted to work more than 40 hours per week. It forbids the employment of persons under 16 years of age in prison industries and of persons under eighteen years of age in dangerous occupations. It also provides that prison products shall be sold at prices not lower than the fair current prices prevailing in the market in which the product is customarily sold.

By 1 November 1934 the governors or prison authorities of 39 States, as well as the competent authorities of the District of Columbia and the United States Department of Justice, had signed the compact.

U.S.S.R. — In virtue of a circular of the Commissariat of Justice dated 28 September 1934, political prisoners and prisoners under the general law may be granted a holiday for the season of agricultural work in their place of origin. This holiday may be granted only after the prisoner has served one-third of his sentence.

If the prisoner gives satisfaction to the management of the collective farm or the State farm employing him, he may be regarded as having continued to serve his sentence during the holiday.

APPENDIX

I. — List of States Members of the International Labour Organisation

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

II. — List of Permanent Delegates accredited to the International Labour Office and to the League of Nations [1]

Albania: Mr. Lec Kurti, Resident Minister.
Canada: Dr. W. A. Riddell, Permanent Advisory Officer, Vice-Chairman of the Governing Body of the International Labour Office.
Chile: Mr. F. Garcia Oldini [1], Minister Plenipotentiary.
China: Mr. Hoo Chi-Tsai, Minister Plenipotentiary, Director of the Permanent Office of the Chinese Delegation.
Colombia: Mr. A. Nieto Caballero, Minister Plenipotentiary.
Cuba: Mr. C. de Armenteros y Cárdenas, Minister Plenipotentiary.
Denmark: Mr. W. Borberg, Permanent Delegate.
Finland: Mr. R. Holsti, Minister Plenipotentiary.
Greece: Mr. R. Raphaël, Minister Plenipotentiary.
Hungary: Mr. L. de Tahy, Minister Plenipotentiary.
Iran: Mr. Abol-Hassan Khan Forughi, Minister Plenipotentiary.
Iraq: Mr. Muzahim Bey Amin-Al-Pachachi, Minister Plenipotentiary.
Irish Free State: Mr. Francis Thomas Cremins, Permanent Delegate.
Japan: Mr. Shunzo Yoshisaka [2], Permanent Delegate, Member of the Governing Body of the International Labour Office.
Latvia: Mr. J. Feldmans, Minister Plenipotentiary.
Liberia: Mr. A. Sottile, Minister Plenipotentiary.

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[1] As on 31 December 1934.
[2] Accredited to the International Labour Office only.

Portugal: Mr. Henrique da Guerra Q. Vianna, Chief of the Delegation accredited to the League of Nations.
Rumania: Mr. B. Antoniade, Minister Plenipotentiary.
Turkey: Cemal Hüsnü Bey, Minister Plenipotentiary.
Union of South Africa: Mr. D. Steyn, Permanent Delegate.
Yugoslavia: Mr. C. Fotitch, Minister Plenipotentiary.

To this list should be added the following diplomatic or consular representatives at Berne or Geneva responsible for relations with the International Labour Office and the Secretariat of the League of Nations, or with the International Labour Office alone:

Bulgaria: Mr. N. Antonoff, Chargé d'Affaires.
Czechoslovakia: Mr. Künzl-Jizersky, Minister Plenipotentiary.
Norway: Mr. S. O. Maseng, Permanent Delegate to the League of Nations.

III. — Distribution of the Fifty-eight Ratifications Registered in 1934

A. — By Conventions

Hours of work (industry): Cuba, Nicaragua.
Unemployment: Nicaragua.
Childbirth: Brazil, Nicaragua.
Night work (women): Brazil, Nicaragua.
Minimum age (industry): Brazil, Nicaragua.
Night work (young persons): Brazil, Nicaragua.
Minimum age (sea): Nicaragua.
Unemployment indemnity (shipwreck): Nicaragua.
Placing of seamen: Nicaragua.
Minimum age (agriculture): Nicaragua.
Right of association (agriculture): China, Nicaragua.
Workmen's compensation (agriculture): Nicaragua.
White lead (painting): Nicaragua.
Weekly rest (industry): China, Nicaragua.
Minimum age (trimmers and stokers): Nicaragua.
Medical examination of young persons (sea): Nicaragua.
Workmen's compensation (accidents): Mexico, Nicaragua.
Workmen's compensation (occupational diseases): Denmark, Italy, Nicaragua.
Equality of treatment (accident compensation): China, Lithuania, Mexico, Nicaragua.
Night work (bakeries): Nicaragua.
Inspection of emigrants: Nicaragua.
Seamen's articles of agreement: Mexico, Nicaragua.
Repatriation of seamen: Mexico, Nicaragua.
Sickness insurance (industry, etc.): Nicaragua.
Sickness insurance (agriculture): Nicaragua.
Minimum wage-fixing machinery: Mexico, Nicaragua.
Marking of weight (packages transported by vessels): Belgium, Czechoslovakia, Lithuania, Mexico, Nicaragua, Switzerland.
Protection against accidents (dockers): Nicaragua.
Forced labour: Italy, Mexico, Nicaragua.
Hours of work (commerce and offices): Mexico, Nicaragua.
Protection against accidents (dockers) (revised): Mexico, Spain.
Minimum age (non-industrial employment): Belgium, Spain.

B. — By Countries

Belgium	2	Italy	2
Brazil	4	Lithuania	2
China	3	Mexico	9
Cuba	1	Nicaragua	30
Czechoslovakia	1	Spain	2
Denmark	1	Switzerland	1

IV. — Commissions of Enquiry

The following nomination was approved by the Governing Body of the International Labour Office for the panel of Commissions of Enquiry provided for by Article 26 of the Constitution of the International Labour Organisation (Article 412 of the Treaty of Versailles):

Great Britain:

Person of independent standing: Lord Askwith, K.C.B. (*vice* Lord Burnham).

V. — Representation at the Conference and Composition of Delegations

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
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
Maritime Session	22	9	3	34
Geneva, 1930	33	16	2	51
Geneva, 1931	29	17	3	49
Geneva, 1932	30	15	4	49
Geneva, 1933	33	11	5	49
Geneva, 1934	27	20	2	49

VI. — Committees

A. — Committees consisting of Members of the Governing Body [1]

In addition to its regular Committees—the Standing Orders Committee, the Finance Committee, and the Accommodation Sub-Committee—which hold their meetings in connection with its Sessions, the Governing Body has set up a certain number of Committees consisting entirely of members of the Governing Body, although some of them may, if necessary, consult experts.

1. *Finance Committee*

Chairman: The Chairman of the Governing Body.

Government Group: Mr. Leggett, Mr. de Michelis, Sir Bhupendra Nath Mitra, Mr. Picquenard (substitutes: Mr. Yoshisaka, Mr. Riddell).

Employers' Group: Mr. Forbes Watson, Mr. Olivetti, Mr. Oersted, Mr. Erulkar.

Workers' Group: Mr. Jouhaux, Mr. Mertens, Mr. Hayday, 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: Mr. Mahaim, Chairman; Sir Bhupendra Nath Mitra (substitute, Mr. Ruiz Manent), Mr. Riddell (substitute, Mr. Jurkiewicz), Mr. Mannio (substitute, Mr. de Michelis).

Employers' Group: Mr. Oersted, Mr. Olivetti, Mr. Forbes Watson, Mr. Vaněk (substitutes: Mr. Erulkar, Mr. Tzaut).

Workers' Group: Mr. Jouhaux, Mr. Hayday, Mr. Johanson, Mr. Schürch.

4. *Committee on Agricultural Work*

Government Group: Mr. Picquenard, Mr. Riddell (substitutes: Mr. de Michelis, Mr. Ruiz Guiñazú).

Employers' Group: Mr. Vaněk, Mr. Oersted (substitutes: Mr. Olivetti, Mr. Čurčin).

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[1] The present edition of the *Year-Book* omits the usual table concerning the Governing Body, but readers will find in the General Introduction (pp. 7 et seq.) notes on its composition as it now stands, following the elections which took place at the Eighteenth Session of the Conference and the decisions taken by the Governing Body at its Sixty-ninth Session (January 1935), in consequence of the admission to the Organisation of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics and of the United States of America. The General Introduction also gives a full list of the members of the Governing Body on 1 February 1935.

Workers' Group: Mr. Caballero, Mr. Schürch (substitutes: Mr. Němeček, Mr. Jensen).

5. *Preparatory Sub-Committee on Handicraftsmen*

Government Group: Mr. de Michelis (substitute, Mr. Li Ping-Heng).

Employers' Group: Mr. Oersted.

Workers' Group: Mr. Johanson.

6. *Committee on Social Charges*

Government Group: Mr. Yoshisaka, Mr. Winter.

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

Workers' Group: Mr. Johanson, Mr. Caballero.

7. *Unemployment Committee*

Government Group: Mr. Mannio, Mr. Leggett, Mr. de Michelis, Mr. Muniz (substitutes: Mr. Picquenard, Sir Bhupendra Nath Mitra, Mr. Yoshisaka).

Employers' Group: Mr. Oersted, Mr. Lambert-Ribot, Mr. Olivetti, Mr. Forbes Watson (substitutes: Mr. Čurčin, Mr. Gérard, Mr. Asano).

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

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

Government Group: Mr. Riddell, Mr. Winter, Mr. Leggett, Mr. Jurkiewicz.

Employers' Group: Mr. Lambert-Ribot, Mr. Erulkar, Mr. Forbes Watson, Mr. Oersted (substitutes: Mr. Vaněk, Mr. Balella).

Workers' Group: Mr. Hayday, Mr. Jouhaux, Mr. Mertens, Mr. Zulawski.

9. *Committee on Conditions of Work in the Iron and Steel Industry*

Government Group: Mr. Muniz, Mr. Yoshisaka, Mr. Leggett, Mr. Picquenard (substitute, Mr. Jurkiewicz).

Employers' Group: Mr. Erulkar, Mr. Forbes Watson, Mr. Lambert-Ribot, Mr. Oersted (substitute, Mr. Szydlowski).

Workers' Group: Mr. Hayday, Mr. Jouhaux, Mr. Mertens, Mr. Johanson (substitutes: Mr. Jensen, Mr. Krier).

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

Government Group: Mr. Leggett, Mr. Jurkiewicz, Mr. Mahaim.

Employers' Group: Mr. Forbes Watson, Mr. Lambert-Ribot, Mr. Gérard.

Workers' Group: Mr. Jouhaux, Mr. Hayday, Mr. Mertens (substitute, Mr. Němeček).

11. *Committee on Freedom of Association*

Government Group: Mr. Ruiz Manent (substitute, Mr. Yoshisaka).

Employers' Group: Mr. Vaněk.

Workers' Group: Mr. Jouhaux.

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

Government Group: Mr. Leggett, Mr. de Michelis, Sir Bhupendra Nath Mitra, Mr. Yoshisaka (substitute, Mr. Ruiz Manent).

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

Workers' Group: Mr. Hayday, Mr. Joshi, Mr. Jouhaux, Mr. Němeček (substitute, Mr. Jensen).

13. *Committee set up to consider the Possible Continuation by the Office of the Work of the International Management Institute*

Government Group: Mr. Riddell. Mr. Ruiz Manent.

Employers' Group: Mr. Olivetti. Mr. Čurčin (substitute, Mr. Tzaut).

Workers' Group: Mr. Jouhaux, Mr. Mertens.

Representation of the Organisation on the International Agricultural Co-ordination Committee, set up by the International Institute of Agriculture

The Chairman of the Governing Body (substitute, the Government Vice-Chairman).

Representatives of the Governing Body on the Committee on Unemployment of the Commission of Enquiry for European Union

Government Group: Mr. Jurkiewicz, Mr. de Michelis.

Employers' Group: Mr. Lambert-Ribot, Mr. Olivetti.

Workers' Group: Mr. Jouhaux, Mr. Schürch (substitutes: Mr. Mertens, Mr. Hayday).

Representatives of the Workers' Group of the Governing Body on the Consultative Economic Committee of the League of Nations

Mr. Hayday, Mr. Jouhaux, Mr. Mertens (substitutes: Mr. Zulawski, Mr. Johanson, Mr. Caballero).

Representatives of the International Labour Office on the Administrative Board of the International Office for Technical Education

Government Group: Mr. Mahaim (substitute, Mr. Tello).

Employers' Group: Mr. Oersted.

Workers' Group: Mr. Mertens (substitute, Mr. Hayday).

Representatives of the Employers' and Workers' Groups of the Governing Body on the Advisory Committee on Refugees of the League of Nations

Employers' Group: Mr. Čurčin (substitute, Mr. Tzaut).

Workers' Group: Mr. Zulawski (substitute, Mr. Schürch).

Representatives of the Governing Body on the Committee of the Communications and Transit Organisation on Public Works and National Equipment

Government Group: Mr. de Michelis (substitute, Mr. Jurkiewicz).

Employers' Group: Mr. Lambert-Ribot (substitute, Mr. Gérard).

Workers' Group: Mr. Jouhaux (substitute, Mr. Schürch).

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

1. *Correspondence Committee on Accident Prevention*

Representatives of the Governing Body:

Government Group: Mr. Ruiz Manent (substitute, Mr. Jurkiewicz).

Employers' Group: Mr. Tzaut (substitute, Mr. Olivetti).

Workers' Group: Mr. Moore (substitute, Mr. Zulawski).

Experts:

Mr. Cyril Ainsworth (United States). — Mr. J. T. Bilborough (South African). — Mr. J. Caen (French). — Mr. Vitaliano Colombo (Italian). — Mr. L. Deladrière (Belgian). — Mr. R. Delauney (French). — Mr. Antoni Eichhorn (Polish). — Mr. Arthur Gaboury (Canadian). — Mr. Erik V. Gabrielson (Swedish). — Mr. R. A. Gorter (Netherlands). — Mr. Viktor Hendrych (Austrian). — Mr. Kitaoka (Japanese). — Mr. Kjaer (United States). — Mr. H. Kresta (Czechoslovak). — Mr. F. Massarelli (Italian). — Mr. R. B. Morley (Canadian). — Dr. L. Pfisterer (Hungarian). — Mr. Onni Pyykkö (Finnish). — Major Henry A. Reninger (United States). — Mr. H. J. Scholte (Netherlands). — Mr. Stevenson Taylor (British). — Mr. Alfred Tzaut (Swiss). — Mr. E. van de Weyer (Belgian).

Honorary Member: Sir Gerald Bellhouse (British).

2. *Mixed Advisory Agricultural Committee*

Representatives of the Governing Body:

Government Group: Mr. Picquenard, Mr. Riddell (substitutes: Mr. de Michelis, Mr. Ruiz Guiñazú).

Employers' Group: Mr. Vaněk, Mr. Oersted (substitutes: Mr. Olivetti Mr. Ćurčin).

Workers' Group: Mr. Caballero, Mr. Schürch (substitutes: Mr. Němeček, Mr. Jensen).

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

Prince Spada-Potenziani (Italian). — Mr. Louis Dop (French). — Mr. F. Bilbao (Spanish). — Mr. R. R. Enfield (British). — Mr. H. C. Taylor (United States). — Mr. J. J. Van Rijn (Netherlands). Substitutes: Mr. V. Coppi (Colombian). — Mr. B. Mikulski (Polish). — Mr. E. Porn (Rumanian).

3. *Committee on Automatic Coupling*

Representatives of the Governing Body:

Government Group: Mr. Ruiz Manent (substitute, Mr. Yoshisaka).

Employers' Group: Mr. Tzaut (substitute, Mr. Vaněk).

Workers' Group: Mr. Schürch (substitute, Mr. Caballero).

Members of the Committee:

Government Group: 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). — One vacant seat.

Employers' Group: Mr. de Boysson (French). — Mr. B. O. Ekman (Swedish); substitute, Mr. E. von Friesen (Swedish). — Mr. Francisco Gomez Rojas (Spanish); substitute, Mr. Gutierrez (Spanish). — Mr. Jenkin Jones (British). — Mr. Riccardo Luzzatti (Italian); substitute, Mr. Anghileri (Italian). — Mr. de Toynay (Hungarian). — Dr. R. Zehnder (Swiss). — One vacant seat.

Workers' Group: Mr. A. Forslund (Swedish). — Dr. Grenczer (Hungarian). — Mr. E. Held (Swiss). — Mr. J. Jarrigion (French). — Mr. P. Moltmaker (Netherlands). — Mr. N. Nathans (Netherlands). — Mr. J. Smeykal (Austrian). — Mr. R. J. Tallon (Canadian). Substitutes: Mr. V. Brodecky (Czechoslovak). — Mr. Issaieff (Bulgarian). — Mr. T. Gomez (Spanish). — Mr. K. Maxamin (Polish).

Sub-Committee on Automatic Coupling

Government Group: Mr. Ciardi (Italian); substitute, Mr. Colens (Belgian). — One vacant seat.

Employers' Group: Mr. Tzaut (Swiss). — One vacant seat.

Workers' Group: Mr. Schürch (Swiss). — Mr. Nathans (Netherlands).

4. *Advisory Committee on Salaried Employees*

Representatives of the Governing Body:

Government Group: Mr. Mannio (substitute, Mr. de Michelis).

Employers' Group: ——

Workers' Group: Mr. Mertens.

Members representing salaried employees:

Mr. Aufhäuser (German). — Mr. Christophe (Belgian). — Mr. Hallsworth (British). — Mr. Horand (Swiss). — Mr. Klein (Czechoslovak). — Mr. Landi (Italian). — Mr. Portalier (French). — Mr. Raabe (Polish). — Mr. Spiekman (Netherlands). — Mr. Bunji Suzuki (Japanese). — Mr. Tessier (French). — One vacant seat.

Members representing the employers:

Two persons (not appointed).

5. *Correspondence Committee on Industrial Hygiene*

Representatives of the Governing Body:

Government Group: Mr. Jurkiewicz (substitute, Mr. Tello).

Employers' Group: Mr. Gérard (substitute, Mr. Tzaut).

Workers' Group: Mr. Johanson (substitute, Mr. Serrarens).

1. *Experts on questions of industrial hygiene:*

Prof. E. Agasse-Lafont (French). — Dr. B. Albert (Czechoslovak). — Prof. Biondi (Italian). — Dr. Bogo Koinuma (Japanese). — Dr. Brezina (Austrian). — Dr. Bridge (British). — Dr. Chajes (German). — Mr. E. L. Collis (British). — Prof. Cristiani (Swiss). — Dr. Grant Cunningham (Canadian). — Dr. di Donna (Italian). — Dr. Leroy V. Gardner (United States). — Dr. O. P. Geier (United States). — Dr. Glibert (Belgian). — Dr. S. Gudjonsson (Danish). — Dr. Hamilton (United States). — Dr. Heim de Balsac (French). — Dr. Jinnosuke Hoshiai (Japanese). — Dr. H. Hummel (Polish). — Dr. L. Irvine (South African). — Dr. Kabrehl (Czechoslovak). — Dr. Kranenburg (Netherlands). — Dr. Langelez (Belgian). — Dr. J. Loewy (Czechoslovak). — Dr. O. Lorange (Norwegian). — Dr. G. Loriga (Italian). — Dr. Madsen (Danish). — Prof. Etienne Martin

(French). — Dr. Mavrogordato (South African). — Dr. Keith Moore (Australian). — Dr. Brunon Nowakowski (Polish). — Sir Thomas Oliver (British). — Dr. A. J. Orenstein (South African). — Dr. Pieraccini (Italian). — Dr. Rajchman (Polish). — Dr. Joseph Rocek (Czechoslovak). — Dr. R. R. Sayers (United States). — Prof. Stampar (Yugoslavia). — Dr. Teruoka (Japanese). — Dr. C. Tovo (Italian). — Dr. M. de Vasconcelos (Portuguese). — Prof. C. E. A. Winslow (United States). — Prof. C. Wirgin (Swedish).

2. *Experts on questions of industrial fatigue:*

Mr. F. Lee (United States). — Mr. J. S. R. Macleod (British). — Sir David Munro (British). — Mr. Charles S. Myers (British). — Prof. M. L. Patrizi (Italian). — Mr. D. R. Wilson (British).

6. *Advisory Committee on Professional Workers*

Representatives of the Governing Body:

Government Group: Mr. de Michelis (substitutes: Mr. Ruiz Manent, Mr. Mannio, Mr. Tello).

Employers' Group: Mr. Lambert-Ribot (substitute, Mr. Gérard).

Workers' Group: Mr. Jouhaux (substitute, Mr. Yonekubo).

Representatives of the International Committee on Intellectual Co-operation:

Mr. Destrée (Belgian); substitute, Mr. Castillejo (Spanish). — One vacant seat.

Representatives of the International Confederation of Professional Workers:

Mr. Cornelissen (Netherlands). — Mr. Gallié (French). — Mr. Koscinski (Polish). — Mr. Lathan (British). — Mr. Laurila (Finnish).

Representative of the International Federation of Journalists:

Mr. Valot (French).

Representative of Italian Professional Workers' Organisations:

Mr. Cornelio di Marzio (Italian).

Representatives of Professional Workers of Oversea Countries:

Mr. R. P. Paranjpye (Indian). — Mr. Mayeda (Japanese).

Representatives of the International Organisation of Industrial Employers:

Mr. Lecocq; — Mr. Olivetti.

Sub-Committee on the Rights of Performers in Broadcasting:

Mr. Destrée; Mr. Olivetti; Mr. Gallié.

7. *Joint Maritime Commission*

Chairman: The Chairman of the Governing Body.

Regular members:

Employers' Group: Mr. Olivetti (substitute, Mr. J. Lecocq).

Workers' Group: Mr. Hayday (substitute, Mr. Yonekubo).

Shipowners: Mr. Brett (British). — Mr. Brunelli (Italian). — Mr. E. Deckers (Belgian). — Mr. Goudriaan (Netherlands). — Mr. Marchegay (French). — Mr. Kojiro Matsukata (Japanese); substitute, Mr. Masazo Yamanaka. — Mr. F. Odfjell (Norwegian).

Seamen: Mr. Ehlers (French). — Mr. Edo Fimmen (Netherlands). — Mr. J. Henson (British). — Mr. S. Lundgren (Swedish). — Mr. Mahlman (Belgian). — Mr. R. W. Spence (British). — One vacant seat.

Deputy members:

Shipowners: Mr. E. de Cortina y Arteta (Spanish). — One vacant seat.
Seamen: Mr. Bécu (Belgian). — Mr. Yonekubo (Japanese).

8. *Migration Committee*

Representatives of the Governing Body:

Government Group: Mr. Picquenard, Mr. Ruiz Guiñazú, Mr. Jurkiewicz, Mr. Yoshisaka (substitute, Mr. Li Ping-Heng).

Employers' Group: Mr. Gérard, Mr. Lambert-Ribot, Mr. Olivetti, Mr. Erulkar (substitutes: Mr. Mircea, Mr. Asano).

Workers' Group: Mr. Jouhaux, Mr. Moore, Mr. Hayday, Mr. Zulawski (substitutes: Mr. Yonekubo, Mr. Joshi).

Permanent Experts:

Mr. de Michelis (Italian). — Mr. Sanchez de Fuentes (Cuban). — Mrs. Vignat de Bacourt (French); substitute, Mr. François (Belgian). — Mr. Fritz Rager (Austrian); substitute, Mr. François (Belgian).

9. *Mixed Committee on Inland Navigation*

Representatives of the Governing Body:

Government Group: Mr. Picquenard (substitute, Mr. Ruiz Guiñazú).

Employers' Group: Seat reserved (substitutes: Mr. Čurčin, Mr. Vaněk).

Workers' Group: Mr. Jouhaux (substitute, Mr. Kupers).

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

Mr. Sylvain Dreyfus, Mr. Seeliger, Mr. Winiarski.

10. *Technical Committee on Glassworks*

Government nominations:

Representative of the Governing Body: Mr. Picquenard (substitute, Mr. Yoshisaka).

Experts: Mr. Wodon (Belgian). — Mr. A. W. Garrett (British). — Mr. Desvaux (French). — Mr. Malusardi (Italian). — Mr. Pokorny (Czechoslovakia). — One vacant seat.

Employers' nominations:

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

Experts: Mr. Baugnies (French); substitute, Mr. Frachon (French). — Mr. Benedetti (Italian); substitute, Mr. Cornaz (Swiss). — Mr. Larson (Swedish). — Mr. Meigh (British); substitute, Mr. Marchand (British). — Mr. Muhlig (Czechoslovak). — One vacant seat.

Workers' nominations:

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

Experts: Five seats to be filled.

Expert nominated by the Director of the International Labour Office:

Mr. Brussel (Netherlands); substitute, Mr. Roscam (Belgian).

C. — Committees of Experts

1. *Committee of Experts on Article 22 (408) of the Constitution*

Mr. Cesar Charlone (Uruguayan). — Mr. Erich (Finnish). — Sir Selwyn Fremantle (India). — Mr. Jules Gautier (French). — Mr. Gini (Italian). — Dr. A. D. McNair (British). — Mr. Waclaw Makowski (Polish). — Prof. Quadrat (Czechoslovak). — Prof. William Rappard (Swiss). — Mr. Paul Tschoffen (Belgian).

2. *Correspondence Committee on Social Insurance*

Experts: Mr. Agalopoulos (Greek). — Mr. T. Andersson (Swedish). — Mr. Argeseanu (Rumanian). — Mr. Aron (French). — Mr. S. Aznar (Spanish). — Prof. F. Bach (Mexican). — Mr. R. R. Bannatyne (British). — Dr. Barla Szabo (Hungarian). — Dr. J. Baumgarten (Polish). — Mr. A. Begault (Belgian). — Mr. Birkmose (Danish). — Mr. Bisqueret (Belgian). — Mr. Bohren (Swiss). — Mr. L. P. Borberg (Danish). — Dr Brableč (Czechoslovak). — Mr. Breit (Austrian). — Dr. Bresky (Czechoslovak). — Prof. Brezina (Austrian). — Mr. W. Bruner (Polish). — Dr. Buchgraber (Austrian). — Dr. J. Bujalski (Polish). — Mr. Calamanni (Italian). — Prof. Cantelli (Italian). — Mr. E. F. Carnevali (Italian). — Mr. A. G. Clow (India). — Mr. J. Collie (South African). — Dr. C. H. Cramer (Swedish). — Mr. Daugirdas (Lithuanian). — Mr. Delvaux (Belgian). — Mr. Demeur (Belgian). — Prof. Dersch (German). — Mr. de Voghel (Belgian). — Mr. Dewandre (Belgian). — Mr. J. F. Dreyfus (French). — Mr. Stanley L. Duff (British). — Canon Eeckhout (Belgian). — Mr. E. A. R. van Eimeren (Netherlands). — Mr. Enescu (Rumanian). — Mr. G. S. W. Epps (British). — Mr. Abraham Epstein (United States). — 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). — Mr. Edgar Hackforth (British). — Dr. Z. Hahn (Yugoslav). — Mr. Hampl (Czechoslovak). — Dr. Heimann (German). — Mr. J. M. Hendrie (British). — Mr. Povl Holck (Danish). — Dr. Hermann Horowitz (Polish). — Mr. Jablonski (Latvian). — Mr. Arthur Jauniaux (Belgian). — Mr. J. H. Jerram (New Zealand). — Mr. Inocencio Jimenez y Vicente (Spanish). — Mr. Leopold Johanson (Estonian). — Dr. T. Gunnar Kahlmeter (Swedish). — Mr. Armand Kayser (Luxemburg). — Sir Walter S. Kinnear (British). — Dr. Béla Kovrig (Hungarian). — Dr. Kretschmer (Austrian). — Mr. H. L. Lamond (Australian). — Mr. Giuseppe Landi (Italian). — Mr. Lange (French). — Mr. Per Larssen (Norwegian). — Mr. Helmuth Lehmann (German). — Dr. Leinberg (Finnish). — Dr. F. de Lemos Macedo Santos (Portuguese). — Mr. Karl Levinson (Swedish). — Mr. K. Lindner (Netherlands). — Dr. Alcides Lucero-Gonsalez (Chilean). — Mr. William Maguire (Irish). — Mr. St. Makowiecki (Polish). — Mr. Medolaghi (Italian). — Mr. Mochanoff (Bulgarian). — Mr. de Montmorency (British). — Mr. Isidoro Muñoz Alegria (Chilean). — Mr. J. A. Newrick (British). — Mr. Oermestad (Norwegian). — Mr. d'Oliveira (Brazilian). — Mr. H. Paavilainen (Finnish). — Dr. Parisot (French). — Dr. Géza Pap (Hungarian). — Dr. Joseph Pasternak (Polish). — Dr. P. W. L. Penris (Dutch). — Dr. A. Pfisterer (Hungarian). — Dr. Joseph Potyka (Polish). — Dr. Resch (Austrian). — Mr. Gaston Roussel (French). — Mr. Roze (Latvian). — Dr. Isaac M. Rubinow (United States). — Mr. Saccasyn (Belgian). — Prof. Schoenbaum (Czechoslovak). — Mr. Schromm (Austrian). — Mr. Gen Shimizu (Japanese). — Mr. V. A. Sinclair (Canadian). — Mr. J. Sonin (Estonian). — Miss Stemberg (Netherlands). — Mr. Störvold (Norwegian). — Mr. Taub (Czechoslovak). — Mr. H. Terlet (Dutch). — Mr. Tomasini (French). — Dr. Trnka (Czechoslovak). — Mr. Jonas Vilkaitis (Lithuanian). — Dr. Winter (Czechoslovak). — Mr. I. Wyslouch (Polish). — Mr. Douchan M. Yeremitch (Yugoslav). — Mr. André Zakkas (Greek). — Mr. Verne A. Zimmer (United States).

3. *Correspondence Committee on Women's Work*

Dr. Jenny Adler-Herzmark (Austrian). — Dame Adelaide Anderson (British). — Miss Mary Anderson (United States). — Miss Atanaskovitch (Yugoslav). — Mrs. Avril de Sainte-Croix (French). — Miss Baers (Belgian). — Dr. Dagny Bang (Norwegian). — Dr. A. I. Balfour (British). — Dr. F. Baumgartner-Tramer (Swiss). — Miss Louie Bennett (Irish). — Miss Helny Bergbom (Finnish). — Mrs. Fanny Blatny (Czechoslovak). — Mrs. Isabelle Blume (Belgian). — Rt. Hon. Margaret Bondfield (British). — Miss C. Bonnin (French). — Mrs. A. Boschek (Austrian). — Mrs. Calypso Botez (Rumanian). — Dr. Giommaria Cau (Italian). — Mr. Leo Chester (British). — Mrs. Jeanne Chévenard (French). — Miss Elizabeth Christman (United States). — Miss J. E. Cieremans (Netherlands). — Mrs. Coullaud-Minier (French). — Prof. Winifred C. Cullis (British). — Miss Pravabati Das-Gupta (Indian). — Miss Grete Daurer (Austrian). — Mrs. Delabit (French). — Miss Cora Deng (Chinese). — Miss Mary Dingman (United States). — Miss I. M. Drummond (British). — Miss Dorothy Evans (British). — Mrs. Ada Fischmann (Palestine). — Mrs. Emma Freundlich (Austrian). — Miss Regina Garcia (Spanish). — Dr. Zofja Garlicka (Polish). — Mr. Jac. Gemen (Netherlands). — Mrs. Kirsten Gloerfelt-Tarp (Danish). — Miss Emilie Gourd (Swiss). — Dr. Tatiana Grigorovici (Rumanian). — Miss C. Haslett (British). — Mr. van der Heeg (Netherlands). — Miss Kerstin Hesselgren (Swedish). — Mr. Hochstrasser (Swiss). — Miss May Holman (Australian). — Dr. Nelly Jaussi (Swiss). — Mrs. Bella Jobson (British). — Miss Ellen Johnson (Swedish). — Miss Alida de Jong (Netherlands). — Mr. K. de Jonge (Netherlands). — Mrs. Klara Kalnin (Latvian). — Mrs. Betty Karpiskova (Czechoslovak). — Mrs. Anna Kethly (Hungarian). — Mr. Juitsu Kitaoka (Japanese). — Mrs. Betsy Kjelsberg (Norwegian). — Miss Mary van Kleeck (United States). — Mrs. Isa Kösseldorfer (Austrian). — Mrs. Krahelska (Polish). — Mrs. Kurs-Olesk (Estonian). — Miss Lafeuille (French). — Miss Marie Langlois (French). — Miss Susan Lawrence (British). — Dr. Käthe Leichter (Austrian). — Mrs. Julie Léonet (Belgian). — Mrs. Letellier (French). — Mrs. Levanto (Finnish). — Miss Edith Lindblom (Swedish). — Mrs. Maria A. Loschi (Italian). — Mrs. Bertha Lutz (Brazilian). — Miss Chrystal MacMillan (British). — Mrs. Burnita Shelton Matthews (United States). — Dr. Teresita Menzinger (Italian). — Mr. van der Meys (Netherlands). — Dr. Alicia Moreau (Argentine). — Miss Elizabeth Morrissy (United States). — Miss Martha Mundt (German). — Mrs. Marie Neumann (Czechoslovak). — Miss Karin Nilsson (Swedish). — Miss Birgit Nissen (Norwegian). — Mrs. Valérie Novotná (Czechoslovak). — Mr. Olsen (Danish). — Mr. Seiji Onishi (Japanese). — Dr. Ethel Osborne (Australian). — Miss May Oung (Indian). — Mrs. Olga de Paiva Meira (Brazilian). — Mrs. Isabelle Palencia (Spanish). — Miss Pelevilain (French). — Miss Lena Madesin Phillips (United States). — Mrs. Františka Plaminková (Czechoslovak). — Mrs. Plasky (Belgian). — Miss Anna Polak (Netherlands). — Shrimati Anasuya Sarabhai (Indian). — Dr. Dora Schmidt (Swiss). — Mr. Tom Shaw (British). — Mrs. Minna Sillanpää (Finnish). — Mrs. Martha Silverhjelm (Swedish). — Miss Ethel Smith (United States). — Dr. Emilia Sorentini (Italian). — Mr. W. G. Spiekman (Netherlands). — Miss B. Stafford (Irish). — Dr. Emma Steiger (Swiss). — Dr. Alma Sundquist (Swedish). — Mrs. Svolos (Greek). — Mrs. Setsuko Tanino (Japanese). — Dr. Paolina Tarugi (Italian). — Dr. Me Jung-Ting (Chinese). — Mrs. Vajkai (Hungarian). — Prof. A. Vetterová-Bečvářová (Czechoslovak). — Mrs. Wasniewska (Polish). — Mrs. Signe Wessman (Swedish). — Miss Charlotte Whitton (Canadian).

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

Experts nominated by the Employers' Group: Mr. Vaněk; one vacant seat.

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

Independent Experts: Mr. Eugène Botez (Rumanian). — Dr. Victor Hofman (Czechoslovak). — Mr. Houpeurt (French). — Dr. Robert Kerber (Austrian). — Mr. Alfred Konopka (Polish). — Mr. Erwin Lengyel (Hungarian). — Mr. Radovan Matiachitch (Yugoslav). — Dr. Westhoff (Netherlands). — Mr. Woestyn (Belgian).

Representatives of the Communications and Transit Organisation of the League of Nations: Three experts.

5. *Committee of Experts on Native Labour*

Mr. José d'Almada (Portuguese). — Mr. Cayen (Belgian). — Prof. J. C. Chamberlain (United States); substitute, Mr. Samuel Reber (United States). — Major Herbert Sutton Cooke (South African). — Sir Selwyn Fremantle (India). — Mr. Gohr (Belgian). — Mr. Nobumi Ito (Japanese). — Mr. Camille Lejeune (French). — Lord Lugard (British); substitute, Mr. G. St. J. Orde-Browne (British). — Mrs. Marzorati (Belgian). — Mr. Merlin (French); substitute, Mr. Marchand (French). — Mr. Pollera Orsucci (Italian). — Mr. Ruiz de Arana (Spanish).

6. *Committee of Statistical Experts*

Mr. Coats (Canadian). — Mr. J. F. Gennings (India). — Mr. Takeo Hasegawa (Japanese). — Mr. Huber (French). — Mr. Isador Lubin (United States). — Mr. Ramsbottom (British). — Prof. Savorgnan (Italian). — Mr. Szturm de Sztrem (Polish).

VII. — Statistics of International and National Federations of Trade Unions

Table I refers to International Trade Union Federations and gives statistics of membership at 1 January 1933 and 1 January 1934.

Table II refers to International Trade Secretariats and gives the statistics of membership at 1 January 1933 and 1 January 1934 indicating their orientation or affiliation.

Table III gives statistics of membership of National Federations of Trade Unions. The particular international organisation to which each national federation is affiliated or whose programme and policy it adopts are indicated by signs, corresponding to those given hereafter. In addition, information is given where available under the title of " non-affiliated organisations ", of the membership of certain workers' organisations which, while not affiliated to the national federation whose title immediately precedes, accept its programme and policy. These figures of non-affiliated unions do not therefore represent the total of membership of all unions not affiliated to the national federations.

Table IV is a summary of the figures of table III and for the reasons mentioned in the preceding paragraph it does not represent the total trade union membership in the different countries but only that of national federations and of certain unions, not affiliated to these federations, yet accepting their programme and policy.

The membership figures in the following tables are given on the responsibility of the trade union bodies concerned, by whom, with a few exceptions, they have been supplied directly to the International Labour Office.

Explanation of the Signs

‡ International Federation of Trade Unions, Paris.
¶ International Federation of Christian Trade Unions, Utrecht.
+ International Federation of Non-political Independent Trade Unions, Utrecht.
§ Red International of Labour Unions, Moscow.
† International Working Men's Association, Madrid.
* Other tendencies.

I. — NAME, HEADQUARTERS, AND MEMBERSHIP OF INTERNATIONAL TRADE UNION FEDERATIONS

Name	Total membership 1 January		Number of countries 1 January	
	1933	1934	1933	1934
‡ International Federation of Trade Unions, Paris	13,710,206	9,295,409	30	30
¶ International Federation of Christian Trade Unions, Utrecht . .	1,511,319	1,000,000	11	10
§ Red International of Labour Unions, Moscow	?	?	?	?
† International Working Men's Association, Madrid	?	?	?	?
+ International Federation of Non-Political Independent Trade Unions, Utrecht . .	802,870	267,410	10	9
* Pan-American Federation of Labor, Washington, D.C.	?	?	?	?

II. — NAME, HEADQUARTERS, AND MEMBERSHIP OF THE INTERNATIONAL FEDERATIONS OF CRAFTS AND INDUSTRIES (INTERNATIONAL TRADE SECRETARIATS)

[The figures given in parentheses indicate the number of affiliated countries. The letters A—Y given in these tables refer to the list of industries given in the introduction to Vol. II of the Year-Book: "Labour Statistics".

Name and headquarters	Orientation I.F.T.U. †		Affiliated I.F.C.T.U. ¶		Other tendencies *	
	1 January 1933	1 January 1934	1 January 1933	1 January 1934	1 January 1933	1 January 1934
A Land Workers' Federation: International, Utrecht	424,300 (14)	460,136 (13)	—	—	—	—
Agricultural Workers' Trade Unions: International Federation of Christian, Haarlem	—	—	139,607 (4)	56,244 (3)	—	—
B Miners' International Federation, London	1,362,485 (16)	1,565,034 (16)	—	—	—	—
Miners' Trade Unions: International Federation of Christian, Brussels	—	—	135,536 (10)	62,298 (6)	—	—
C Metal Workers' Federation: International, Berne	± 1,500,000 (21)	± 800,000 (18)	—	—	—	—
Metal Workers' Trade Unions: International Federation of Christian, Utrecht	—	—	191,115 (10)	112,133 (10)	—	—
D Stone Workers: International Secretariat of, Zurich	102,859 (12)	64,139 (11)	—	—	—	—
Glass Workers: International Federation of, Amsterdam	39,000 (14)	31,031 (12)	—	—	—	—
Pottery Workers: International Federation of, Teplitz-Schönau	80,060 (6)	27,826 (5)	—	—	—	—

II. — NAME, HEADQUARTERS AND MEMBERSHIP OF THE INTERNATIONAL FEDERATIONS OF CRAFTS AND INDUSTRIES (INTERNATIONAL TRADE SECRETARIATS) *(continued)*

Name and headquarters	Orientation I.F.T.U. ‡		Affiliated I.F.C.T.U. ¶		Other tendencies *	
	1 January 1933	1 January 1934	1 January 1933	1 January 1934	1 January 1933	1 January 1934
E/F Building and Woodworkers: International Federation of, Amsterdam .	—	730,117 [1] (24)	—	—	—	—
E Building Operatives: International Federation of Christian, Utrecht . . .	—	—	117,580 (8)	85,717 (8)	—	—
Painters' Federation : International, Amsterdam	113,092 (13)	70,293 (12)	—	—	—	—
F Wood Workers: International Federation of Christian, Zurich	—	—	35,243 [2] (6)	34,980 (7)	—	—
G Typographical Secretariat: International, Berne	243,000 (26)	124,663 (25)	—	—	—	—
Lithographers and Kindred Trades: International Federation of, Amsterdam .	± 52,700 (17)	27,698 (17)	—	—	—	—
Bookbinders and Kindred Trades: International Federation of, Berne . . .	95,150 (16)	43,139 (14)	—	—	—	—
Graphical Trades: International Federation of Trade Unions of Christian Workers in the, Amsterdam	—	—	22,000 (7)	13,739 (5)	—	—
H Textile Workers' Associations: International Federation of, London . . .	826,073 (15)	540,000 (17)	—	—	—	—
Textile Workers' Trade Unions: International Federation of Christian, Utrecht	—	—	210,692	143,846	—	—

tional, Amsterdam	208,492 (20)	230,529 (17)	—	—	—	—
Clothing Workers' Trade Unions: International Federation of Christian, Utrecht	—	—	26,000 (5)	?	—	—
Hatters: International Federation of, Paris	14,900 [2] (8)	13,250 (8)	—	—	—	—
Boot and Shoe Operatives and Leather Workers' Federation: International, London	270,000 (15)	161,750 (15)	—	—	—	—
L Food and Drink Trades: International Union of Federations of Workers in the, Zurich	336,148 (21)	202,919 (21)	—	—	—	—
Food and Drink Trades: International Federation of Trade Unions of Christian Workers in the, Utrecht	—	—	24,000 (4)	7,500 (3)	—	—
Tobacco Workers: International Federation of, Copenhagen	120,000 (13)	41,126 (10)	—	—	—	—
Tobacco Workers: International Federation of Christian, Eindhoven (Holland)	—	—	29,848 (6)	16,592 (6)	—	—
M Transport Workers' Federation: International, Amsterdam	1,786,858 (37)	1,650,000 (34)	—	—	—	—
Railwaymen's and Tramwaymen's Trade Unions: International Federation of Christian, Utrecht	—	—	110,467 (8)	109,506 (8)	—	—

[1] This Federation, established on 1 April 1934, is the outcome of an amalgamation of the International Federation of Building Workers (membership about 381,000) and the International Union of Wood Workers (membership about 352,000). The membership of the new Federation is as per 1 April 1934.
[2] As per 1 September 1933.

II. — NAME, HEADQUARTERS, AND MEMBERSHIP OF THE INTERNATIONAL FEDERATIONS OF CRAFTS AND INDUSTRIES (INTERNATIONAL TRADE SECRETARIATS) *(concluded)*

Name and headquarters	Orientation I.F.T.U. †		Affiliated I.F.C.T.U. ¶		Other tendencies *	
	1 January 1933	1 January 1934	1 January 1933	1 January 1934	1 January 1933	1 January 1934
Enginemen's and Firemen's Unions: International Federation of, Copenhagen	64,300 (4)	?	—	—	—	—
N Mercantile Marine Officers' Association: International, Antwerp	—	—	—	—	31,050 (17)	31,200 (18)
P Postal, Telegraph and Telephone International, Berne	422,400 (25)	268,400 (21)	—	—	—	—
Post Office Workers' Trade Unions: International Federation of Christian, Vaals (Holland)	—	—	25,000 (6)	28,750 (5)	—	—
Q/R Public Services: International Federation of Employees in, Paris	555,812 (15)	489,943 (15)	—	—	—	—
Public Services: International Federation of Christian Organisations of the Staff of, Antwerp	—	—	75,000 (5)	33,650 (5)	—	—
Police Federation: International, Marckolsheim (France)	—	—	—	—	153,984 (8)	26,311 (6)
R Civil Servants: International Federation of, Paris	?	226,200 (5)	—	—	—	—
S Commercial Travellers' Associations: International League of, Berne	—	—	—	—	65,000 (10)	60,000 (10)

International Union of, The Hague.		(15)				
Hotel and Restaurant Employees: Geneva International Association of, Zurich .	—	—	—	—	20,325 (18)	15,000 (14)
Hairdressers: International Union of, Copenhagen	11,743 (10)	7,005 (7)	—	—	—	—
V Teachers: International Trade Secretariat of, Caen.	110,000 (10)	125,000 (11)	—	—	—	—
Teachers' Associations : International Federation of, Paris	—	—	—	—	667,110 (24)	542,000 (26)
X Diamond Workers: Universal Alliance of, Antwerp.	± 19,000 (6)	± 19,500 (5)	—	—	—	—
Y Factory Workers: International Federation of General, Amsterdam . . .	596,842 (15)	361,726 (15)	—	—	—	—
Y (M) Factory and Transport Workers' Trade Unions: International Federation of Christian, The Hague	—	—	179,567 (8)	128,754 (7)	—	—
Employees: International Federation of Commercial, Clerical and Technical, Amsterdam	488,313 (19)	430,000 (18)	—	—	—	—
Employees' Trade Unions: International Federation of Christian, Paris . . .	—	—	± 620,000 (11)	± 140,000 (11)	—	—
Employees: International Federation of Neutral Employees' Organisations, Strasburg	—	—	—	—	?	?

III. — NATIONAL TRADE UNION FEDERATIONS

[The figures given in parentheses in these tables indicate the number of female members.]

A. — *European Countries*

Country	Total membership 1 January		Number of organisations 1 January	
	1933	1934	1933	1934
Austria				
‡ Bund der freien Gewerkschaften Österreichs, Vienna	520,162 (114,868)	— [1]	43	— [1]
‡ Non-affiliated organisations	24,500	— [1]	2	— [1]
¶ Zentralkommission der christlichen Gewerkschaften Österreichs, Vienna	100,606 (31,756)	— [1]	21	— [1]
* Gewerkschaftsbund österreichischer Arbeiter und Angestellter, Vienna	—	224,913 [2]	—	—
Belgium				
‡ Commission syndicale de Belgique, Brussels	608,579	629,532	24	24
‡ Non-affiliated organisations	6,292	?	5	?
¶ Confédération des Syndicats chrétiens de Belgique, Brussels	300,800 (36,447)	304,010 (33,987)	17	17
* Centrale nationale des Syndicats libéraux de Belgique, Ghent	43,164 (5,915)	42,289 (4,372)	70	130
Bulgaria				
‡ Obcht saius na svobodnite Sindikati v Balgaria, Sofia	2,118 (148)	— [3]	39	— [3]
‡ Non-affiliated organisations	16,800	—	3	—
Czechoslovakia				
‡ Odborové Sdruzeni Ceskoslovenské, Spolecna Ustredna, Prague	631,750 [4] (125,690)	628,950 [4] (121,045)	66 [4]	64 [4]

[1] The organisations existing on 1 January 1933, with a total membership of 645,268, were dissolved by the Austrian Government in the course of the year 1934, viz. the " free " trade unions in February, the Christian unions of workers and employees in private industry in June, and the Christian unions of workers and employees in public services in December.

[2] As per 1 November 1934.

[3] The trade union organisations which have hitherto existed in Bulgaria have, in accordance with the Bulgarian Decrees dated 19 September 1934 and 11 January 1935, been dissolved. It is understood that a new uniform workers' organisation under Government auspices is being constituted.

[4] These figures include the Zentralgewerkschaftskommission des Deutschen Gewerkschaftsbundes in Reichenberg, which comprises 224,207 (1933) and 216,672 (1934) members grouped in respectively 20 and 18 organisations.

A. — *European Countries* (continued)

Country	Total membership 1 January		Number of organisations 1 January	
	1933	1934	1933	1934
‡ Non-affiliated organisation	7,000	—	1	—
¶ Verband der christlichen Gewerkschaften für das Gebiet des tschechoslow. Staates, Zwittau	31,172 (16,136)	39,357 (16,082)	9	10
¶ Risska odborova rada krestanskych odborovych organisaci v Ceskoslov., Brno	63,158 (12,012)	108,009 (30,925)	15	47
Non-affiliated organisations	2,862	—	4	—
¶ Risska Ceskoslovenska Vseodborova Komise krestanskosocialni, Brno	53,000 (18,000)	54,200 (18,800)	22	21
¶ Sdruzenie slovenskych odborovych organizacii, Zilina	29,803 (4,584)	30,000	6	6
* Ceskoslovenska obec delnicka, Prague	295,752 (49,867)	306,380 (53,367)	56	67
* Republikanské ustredi Zamestnanecké, Prague	103,422 (17,913)	110,935 (18,707)	11	3
* Narodni sdruzeni odborovych organisaci v Praze, Prague	39,117 (4,811)	39,874 (5,116)	7	2
* Reichsvereinigung der deutschen Gewerkschaften, Prague	16,485 (2,854)	54,085	10	8
* Verband der deutschen Staatsangestellten-Vereinigungen in der Tschechosl. Republik, Aussig	5,984	6,046	14	14
* Vysokoskolsky Svaz, Prague	14,514	13,314	33	35
+ Odborové Ustredi, Ceskoslov. Svaz Urednickych a Zrizeneckych Organisaci, Prague	105,350 (21,047)	105,452 (21,961)	40	43
+ Stredoskolsky Svaz, Prague	—	± 15,000	—	16
Danzig				
‡ Allgemeiner Arbeiterverband der Freien Stadt Danzig	—	5,400[1] (220)	—	—
‡ Non-affiliated organisation	—	439	—	1

[1] As per 1 October 1934.

A. — *European Countries* (continued)

Country	Total membership 1 January		Number of organisations 1 January	
	1933	1934	1933	1934
Denmark				
‡ De samvirkende Fagforbund i Danmark, Copenhagen	300,000 (49,614)	301,806 (56,755)	60	60
Non-affiliated organisations	69,069 (6,855)	102,292 (7,569)	26	28
Estonia				
‡ Eestimaa Töölisühingute Keskliit, Tallinn	6,129	6,373	47	44
Non-affiliated organisation	2,300	2,000	1	1
Finland				
‡ Suomen Ammattiyhdistysten Keskusliitto, Helsinki	18,930 (4,091)	19,847 (4,115)	15	15
Non-affiliated organisations	4,000	3,000	4	3
France				
‡ Confédération Générale du Travail, Paris	884,700	891,922	4,250	4,249
¶ Confédération française des Travailleurs chrétiens, Paris	155,000 (45,000)	155,000 (45,000)	760	792
§ Confédération Générale du Travail Unitaire, Paris	300,000 (40,000)	320,000 (40,000)	?	2,100
Germany				
* Deutsche Arbeitsfront, Berlin	—	— [1]	—	—
Great Britain				
‡ Trades Union Congress General Council, London	3,367,911 [2] (414,164)	3,367,911 (414,164)	208	208
Non-affiliated organisations	141,811	153,481	3	3
‡ Scottish Trades Union Congress, Glasgow	261,061 [3]	251,910 [3] (42,939)	61	63
Non-affiliated organisations	5,650	?	8	?
Greece				
‡ Geniki Synomospondia Ton Ergaton Tis Ellados, Piraeus	62,500 (25,000)	66,500 (25,000)	300	354

[1] Exact membership figures are not available.
[2] As per 1 July 1933.
[3] Of which 239,496 (1933) and 228,848 (1934) are included in the membership figures of the British Trades Union Congress General Council, London.

A. — *European Countries* (continued)

Country	Total membership 1 January		Number of organisations 1 January	
	1933	1934	1933	1934
Hungary				
‡ Magyarorszagi Munkasegyesületek Szövetsége, Budapest	111,060 (15,803)	111,561 (17,182)	35	34
¶ Keresztényszociolista Orszagos Szakegyesületek Szövetsége, Budapest	42,500 (6,360)	42,500 (6,360)	22	22
Irish Free State				
* Irish Trade Union Congress, Dublin	153,812	177,000	42	47
Italy				
* Confederazione nazionale dei sindacati fascisti dell' industria, Rome.	1,654,340	1,813,463	—	—
* Confederazione nazionale dei sindacati fascisti dell'agricoltura, Rome	1,658,596	1,926,931	—	—
* Confederazione nazionale dei sindacati fascisti del commercio, Rome	350,632	368,175	—	—
* Confederazione nazionale dei sindacati fascisti delle communicazioni interne, Rome	194,230	201,873	—	—
* Confederazione nazionale dei sindacati fascisti della gente del mare e dell' aria, Rome	50,972	24,539	—	—
* Confederazione nazionale dei sindacati fascisti del credito e delle assicurazioni, Rome	33,781	34,791	—	—
Latvia				
‡ Latvijas Arodbiedribu Centralbirojs, Riga	28,884 (6,312)	— [1]	29	— [1]
‡ Non-affiliated organisations	5,500	—	3	—
Luxemburg				
‡ Commission Syndicale de Luxembourg	12,500	13,185	6	6
¶ Confédération Chrétienne Luxembourgeoise du Travail, Luxemburg	6,016 (217)	6,108 (215)	4	3

[1] This organisation was dissolved when the present Latvian Government took office

A. — *European Countries* (continued)

Country	Total membership 1 January		Number of organisations 1 January	
	1933	1934	1933	1934
Netherlands				
‡ Nederlands Verbond van Vakverenigingen, Amsterdam	335,465 (20,635)	324,890 (18,961)	30	30
Non-affiliated organisations	3,900	3,200	2	1
¶ R.K. Werkliedenverbond in Nederland, Utrecht	213,675 (8,754)	208,164 (7,604)	30	28
Non-affiliated organisations	19,720	22,385	15	14
¶ Christelijk Nationaal Vakverbond in Nederland, Utrecht	116,913 (4,507)	117,193 (3,841)	22	22
Non-affiliated organisations	9,859	10,824	13	8
+ Nederlandse Vakcentrale, Amsterdam	49,521 (1,121)	47,820 (3,700)	31	32
Non-affiliated organisations	7,500	9,588	1	2
† Nederlandsch Syndicalistisch Vakverbond, Amsterdam	?	2,600 (250)	?	8
* Nationaal Arbeids Secretariaat, Amsterdam	22,500	19,550	11	11
Norway				
‡ Arbeidernes Faglige Landsorganisasion i Norge, Oslo	153,374 (20,574)	157,524 (22,005)	34	33
Non-affiliated organisations	1,549	4,200	1	2
Poland				
‡ Zwiazek Stowarzyszen Zawodowych w Polsce, Warsaw	214,333 (16,400)	245,103 (34,176)	28	29
Non-affiliated organisations	± 10,000	± 10,000	?	?
¶ Zjednoczenie Zawodowe Polskie, Poznan	184,901 (3,376)	169,300 (4,300)	13	12
¶ Chrześcijanskie Zjednoczenie Zawodowe w Rzeczypospolitej Polskiej, Warsaw	79,328	78,040	10	20
* Zjednoczenie Zawodowe " Praca Polska ", Sosnowice	3,937 (86)	5,892 (112)	20	20
* Unja Zwiazkow Zawodowych Pracownikow Umyslowych, Warsaw	106,400	106,000	38	36

A. — *European Countries* (continued)

Country	Total membership 1 January		Number of organisations 1 January	
	1933	1934	1933	1934
* Zwiazek Zwiazkow Zawodowych w Polsce, Warsaw	140,000	150,000	27	30
* Centrala Zjednoczenia Klasowych Zwiazkow Zawodowych, Warsaw	?	?	?	?
* Zjednoczenie Zawodowe " Praca ", Lodz	?	?	?	?
Rumania				
‡ Confederatia Generala a Muncii din Romania, Bucarest	27,748	41,627	221	250
Saar Territory				
‡ Allgemeiner Deutscher Gewerkschaftsbund für das Saargebiet, Saarbrücken	30,307 (682)	21,785 (73)	14	12
Spain [1]				
‡ Union General de Trabajadores de Espana, Madrid	800,000	?	36	?
¶ Confederación Nacional de Sindicatos Catolicos de Obreros, Madrid	?	?	?	?
† Confederación Nacional del Trabajo, Barcelona	?	?	?	?
Sweden				
‡ Landsorganisationen i Sverige, Stockholm	638,593 (91,103)	633,351 (92,774)	41	41
‡ Non-affiliated organisations	12,937	12,927	5	5
† Sveriges Arbetares Centralorganisation, Stockholm	34,018[2]	?	623 loc. org.	?
+ De Anställdas Centralorganisation i Sverige, Stockholm	23,997	25,121	11	13
+ Non-affiliated organisations	2,441	± 8,800	2	3
Switzerland				
‡ Schweizerischer Gewerkschaftsbund, Berne	224,164 (24,186)	229,819 (24,494)	14	16
‡ Non-affiliated organisation	—	2,150	—	1

[1] Since October 1934, political events in Spain have led to structural modifications within the trade union movement. Exact data with regard to membership, etc., were not obtainable.

[2] As per 1 October 1932.

A. — *European Countries* (concluded)

Country	Total membership 1 January		Number of organisations 1 January	
	1933	1934	1933	1934
‡ Föderativverband des Personals öffentlicher Verwaltungen und Betriebe, Berne	77,741[1] (4,934)	78,439[1] (5,012)	10	10
¶ Christlichnationaler Gewerkschaftsbund der Schweiz, St. Gall	40,000 (13,000)	40,471 (12,009)	11	13
¶ Schweizerischer Verband evangelischer Arbeiter und Angestellter, Zürich	12,000 (3,679)	11,908 (2,845)	—	—
+ Landesverband Freier Schweizer Arbeiter, St. Gall	7,050 (630)	7,500 (1,500)	?	?
U.S.S.R.				
§ Vsesojuzny Centralny Sovjet Professionalnykh Sojuzov, Moscow	17,260,000[2]	17,701,300 (5,995,600)	47	163
Yugoslavia				
‡ Ujedinjeni Radnicki Sindikalni Savez Jugoslavije, Beograd	34,757	30,421 (2,923)	?	37
‡ Non-affiliated organisations	± 10,000	± 9,100	?	5
¶ Jugoslovanska Strokovna Zveza, Ljubljana	2,538 (832)	2,600 (600)	6	5
* Narodna strokovna zveza, Ljubljana	4,689 (1,499)	± 14,000 (5,000)	43	58

B. — *Extra-European Countries*

Algeria				
‡ Union Départementale d'Alger des Syndicats Confédérés, Alger	± 4,000[3] (500)	± 4,900[3] (900)	45	4
‡ Union Départementale des Syndicats Confédérés d'Oran, Oran	2,700[3] (700)	?	17	?
‡ Union des Syndicats Confédérés du Département de Constantine, Constantine	3,000[3] (250)	3,500[3] (500)	22	28
¶ Union Algérienne des Syndicats Chrétiens, Alger	—	1,730 (630)	—	6

[1] Of which 70,521 (1933) and 71,395 (1934) are included in the membership of the Schweizerischer Gewerkschaftsbund.
[2] *Izvestia*, 4 July 1933.
[3] Included in the membership figures of the Confédération Générale du Travail, Paris.

B. — *Extra-European Countries* (continued)

Country	Total membership 1 January		Number of organisations 1 January	
	1933	1934	1933	1934
Argentina				
† Confederación General del Trabajo de la Republica Argentina, Buenos Aires	250,000	250,000	150	150
Australia				
* Australasian Council of Trade Unions, Melbourne	338,725	338,725	317	317
* The Australian Workers' Union, Sydney . . .	?	50,486 (2,811)	?	?
Brazil				
† Uniao Geral dos Trabalhadores do Brasil, Rio de Janeiro	?	28,167 (5,149)	?	108
* Federacao do Trabalho do Districto Federal, Rio de Janeiro . . .	30,000	?	31	34
Canada				
† The Trades and Labor Congress of Canada, Ottawa.	145,000	130,000	62	1,512 [1]
† Non-affiliated organisations	28,752	25,000	4	4
† The All-Canadian Congress of Labor, Ottawa . .	78,000	78,500	57	70
¶ Federation of Catholic Workers of Canada, Quebec.	25,000 [2]	?	1	?
Ceylon				
† All-Ceylon Trade Union Congress, Colombo .	25,000 (7,000)	?	32	?
Egypt				
* Consortium des Syndicats et Associations des Ouvriers d'Alexandrie, Alexandria	50,000	50,000	25	25
† Fédération des Syndicats Ouvriers en Egypte, Cairo	—	150,000	—	60
India				
† National Trades Union Federation, Bombay .	78,001	?	40	?

[1] Sixty National and International Unions with 1,441 units in Canada; directly chartered local unions: 71.
[2] *The Labour Gazette*, Dec. 1933, p. 1179.

B. — *Extra-European Countries* (continued)

Country	Total membership 1 January		Number of organisations 1 January	
	1933	1934	1933	1934
§ All-India Trade Union Congress, Calcutta. .	?	?	?	?
Iraq				
‡ The Iraq United Labour Union, Baghdad. . .	—	50,000	—	21
Japan				
‡ Nihon Rodo Kumiai Kaigi, Kobe	275,704[1]	276,012[1]	11	10
Other organisations of various tendencies. .	108,909[2]	105,553[2]	496 single unions + 65 federations	514 single unions + 64 federations
Morocco				
‡ Union Départementale des Syndicats Confédérés du Maroc, Casablanca	2,790[3] (513)	4,256[3] (734)	47	42
Mexico				
* Confederación Regional Obrera Mexicana, Mexico	?	600,000	?	886[4]
* Camara Nacional del Trabajo de la Republica Mexicana, Mexico	2,000,000	2,000,000	3,400	?
New Zealand				
‡ New Zealand Alliance of Labour, Wellington .	45,000 (4,000)	45,000 (4,000)	40	88
Palestine				
‡ General Federation of Jewish Labour in Palestine, Tel-Aviv .	35,389 (15,036)	47,819 (19,953)	3 Nat. fed. 45 local org.	
Puerto Rico				
* Federación libre de los Trabajadores de Puerto Rico, San Juan .	?	90,000	?	455
South Africa				
* South African Trades and Labour Council, Johannesburg	14,000	13,000	33	34

[1] As per 1 September.
[2] 1933: as per 31 December; 1934: as per 1 July.
[3] Included in the membership figures of the Confédération Générale du Travail, Paris.
[4] Six National industrial unions, 11 State federations and unions, 42 local federations, and 827 trade union branches.

B. — *Extra-European Countries* (concluded)

Country	Total membership 1 January		Number of organisations 1 January	
	1933	1934	1933	1934
* Cape Federation of Labour Unions, Cape Town	10,000 (3,000)	11,000 (3,000)	23	23
Tunisia				
† Union des Syndicats de Tunisie, Tunis . . .	12,600[1] (400)	12,000[1] (700)	42	37
United States				
* American Federation of Labor, Washington, D.C.	2,126,796[2]	2,608,011[2]	109	109
Venezuela				
* Federación Obrera de Venezuela, Caracas .	36,182	37,691	23	25

[1] Included in the membership figures of the Confédération Générale du Travail, Paris
[2] As per 31 August.

IV. — SUMMARY OF TABLE III SHOWING BY COUNTRIES THE MEMBERSHIP NON-AFFILIATED ORGANISATIONS CLASSIFIED BY ORIENTATION

Country	"Free" ‡		Christian ¶		Communist §	
	1 January 1933	1 January 1934	1 January 1933	1 January 1934	1 January 1933	1 January 1934
Europe						
Austria	544,662	—	100,606	—	—	—
Belgium	614,871	629,532	300,800	304,010	—	—
Bulgaria	18,918	—	—	—	—	—
Czechoslovakia	638,750	628,950	179,995	264,966	—	—
Danzig	—	5,839	—	—	—	—
Denmark	369,069	404,098	—	—	—	—
Estonia	8,429	8,373	—	—	—	—
Finland	22,930	22,847	—	—	—	—
France	884,700	891,922	155,000	155,000	300,000	320,000
Germany	—	—	—	—	—	—
Great Britain	3,536,937	3,544,454	—	—	—	—
Greece	69,000	66,500	—	—	—	—
Hungary	111,060	111,561	42,500	42,500	—	—
Irish Free State	—	—	—	—	—	—
Italy	—	—	—	—	—	—
Latvia	34,384	—	—	—	—	—
Luxemburg	12,500	13,185	6,016	6,108	—	—
Netherlands	339,365	328,090	360,167	358,566	—	—
Norway	154,923	161,724	—	—	—	—
Poland	224,333	255,103	264,229	247,340	—	—
Rumania	27,748	41,627	—	—	—	—
Saar Territory	30,307	21,785	—	—	—	—
Spain	800,000	—	—	—	—	—
Sweden	651,530	646,278	—	—	—	—
Switzerland	231,384	239,013	52,000	52,379	—	—
U.S.S.R.	—	—	—	—	17,260,000	17,701,300
Yugoslavia	44,757	39,521	2,538	2,600	—	—
Extra-European countries						
Algeria	9,700[1]	8,400[1]	—	1,730	—	—
Argentina	250,000	250,000	—	—	—	—
Australia	—	—	—	—	—	—
Brazil	—	28,167	—	—	—	—
Canada	251,752	233,500	25,000	?	—	—
Ceylon	25,000	?	—	—	—	—
Egypt	—	150,000	—	—	—	—
India	78,001	?	—	—	—	—
Iraq	—	50,000	—	—	—	—
Japan	275,704	276,012	—	—	—	—
Morocco	2,790[1]	4,256[1]	—	—	—	—
Mexico	—	—	—	—	—	—
New Zealand	45,000	45,000	—	—	—	—
Palestine	35,389	47,819	—	—	—	—
Puerto Rico	—	—	—	—	—	—
South Africa	—	—	—	—	—	—
Tunisia	12,600[1]	12,000[1]	—	—	—	—
United States	—	—	—	—	—	—
Venezuela	—	—	—	—	—	—

[1] These figures are included in the membership figures of France.

OF THE NATIONAL FEDERATIONS OF TRADE UNIONS AND CERTAIN
ON 1 JANUARY 1933 AND 1 JANUARY 1934

Syndicalist †		Neutral +		Other tendencies *		Country
1 January 1933	1 January 1934	1 January 1933	1 Jannary 1934	1 January 1933	1 January 1934	
						Europe
—	—	—	—	—	224,913	Austria
—	—	—	—	43,164	42,289	Belgium
—	—	—	—	—	—	Bulgaria
—	—	105,350	120,452	475,274	530,634	Czechoslovakia
—	—	—	—	—	—	Danzig
—	—	—	—	—	—	Denmark
—	—	—	—	—	—	Estonia
—	—	—	—	—	—	Finland
—	—	—	—	—	—	France
—	—	—	—	—	—	Germany
—	—	—	—	—	—	Great Britain
—	—	—	—	—	—	Greece
—	—	—	—	—	—	Hungary
—	—	—	—	153,812	177,000	Irish Free State
—	—	—	—	3,942,551	4,369,772	Italy
—	—	—	—	—	—	Latvia
—	—	—	—	—	—	Luxemburg
?	2,600	57,021	57,408	22,500	19,550	Netherlands
—	—	—	—	—	—	Norway
—	—	—	—	250,337	261,892	Poland
—	—	—	—	—	—	Rumania
—	—	—	—	—	—	Saar Territory
—	—	—	—	—	—	Spain
34,018	?	26,438	33,921	—	—	Sweden
—	—	7,050	7,500	—	—	Switzerland
—	—	—	—	—	—	U.S.S.R.
—	—	—	—	4,689	14,000	Yugoslavia
						Extra-European countries
—	—	—	—	—	—	Algeria
—	—	—	—	—	—	Argentina
—	—	—	—	338,725	389,211	Australia
—	—	—	—	30,000	—	Brazil
—	—	—	—	—	—	Canada
—	—	—	—	—	—	Ceylon
—	—	—	—	50,000	50,000	Egypt
—	—	—	—	—	—	India
—	—	—	—	—	—	Iraq
—	—	—	—	108,909	105,553	Japan
—	—	—	—	—	—	Morocco
—	—	—	—	2,000,000	2,600,000	Mexico
—	—	—	—	—	—	New Zealand
—	—	—	—	—	—	Palestine
—	—	—	—	?	90,000	Puerto Rico
—	—	—	—	24,000	24,000	South Africa
—	—	—	—	—	—	Tunisia
—	—	—	—	2,126,796	2,608,011	United States
—	—	—	—	36,182	37,691	Venezuela

INDEX

A

Accident prevention 166.
  Acetylene 168.
  Celluloid and films 169.
  Docks 169.
  Electricity 167.
  Explosives 169.
  Fire prevention 168.
  Gas-pressure apparatus 167.
  Hoisting apparatus 168.
  Inflammable and toxic liquids 168.
  International activities 171.
  Mines and quarries 169.
  Shipping 169.
  Spray painting 169.
  Steam boilers 167.
  Transport 170.
Aerial navigation 202.
Afghanistan
  Admission to International Labour Organisation 1.
Agriculture
  Legislation and other social action 454.
  Conditions of employment 452.
  Economic position 442.
  Employment 447, 451.
  Land reform and settlement 447, 450.
  Organisation 447.
  Population 447, 451.
  Structure of the industry 447.
  Wages 453.
  Workers in 442.
Albania
  Agriculture: land reform and settlement 450.
  Children and young persons 196.
Algeria
  Native and colonial labour 487.
Angola
  Migration 334.
  Native labour 499.
Ankylostomiasis, etc. 150.
Annam: Transport of explosives 170.
Annual holidays with pay 133.
  International regulation 136.
Anthrax 149.
Argentina
  Agriculture
    Legislation 454.
  Ankylostomiasis 150.
  Annual holidays with pay 133.
  Conciliation and arbitration 402.
  Hours of work in industry 74.
  Housing 357.
  Hygiene 153.
    Education 165.
  Individual contract of service 403.
  Maternity protection 187.
  Medical assistance 151.
  Migration 335.
  Night work in bakeries 129.
  Shop closing 131.
  Social insurance 203, 271, 273.
  Unemployment relief measures 299.
    Public works 309.
  Vocational training 343.
  Weekly rest: commercial undertakings 124.
  Women workers, Protection of 139.
Armenian refugees 338.
Asiatic Labour Congress 20.
Australia
  Accident prevention 168, 169.
  Agriculture: wages 453.
  Annual holidays with pay 133.
  Australasian Council of Trade Unions 20.
  Children and young persons 317.
  Conciliation and arbitration 393.
  Conventions, Action on 111, 158, 185, 266, 338, 339.
  Employers' organisations 22.
  Family allowances 290.
  Hours of work.
    Industry 74.
    Salaried employees 111.
  Hygiene
    Forestry 170.
    Lead poisoning 144.
    Maritime transport 155.
    Mining 153.
    Research methods 164.
  Maternity protection 188.
  Medical assistance 152.

Australia *(continued)*
Monetary and financial policy 66.
Night work in bakeries 129.
Protection of aboriginal labour 140.
Protection of children 144.
Recommendations, Action on 268, 339, 341.
Shop closing 131.
Silicosis 148.
Social insurance 206, 271, 273.
Statistics
Index numbers of agricultural wages 277.
Index numbers of industrial wages 275.
Unemployment insurance 297.
Unemployment insurance and relief measures 299, 323.
Public works 309.
Vocational training 343.
Wage policy 278.
Women workers 195.
Wages 192.
Workmen's compensation 159.
Austria
Accident prevention 167, 168.
Agriculture 447.
Conditions of employment 452.
Children and young persons 317.
Conventions, Action on 199.
Employers' organisations 22.
Employment exchanges 326.
Home industries 192.
Hours of work
Industry 74.
Salaried employees 112.
Housing 357.
Hygiene
Apprentices 156.
Benzene poisoning 146.
Individual contract of service 404.
I.L.O. Correspondent 3.
Migration 335, 337.
Monetary and financial policy 64.
National economic councils 420.
Organisation of production 54.
Public holidays 137.
Right of combination in trade unions 361.
Social insurance 207, 273.
Statistics
Occupational diseases 161.
Unemployment insurance 297.
Unemployment relief measures 317.
Weekly rest: commercial undertakings 124.
Women's work 173, 176.
Protective measures 182.
Workers' organisations 14.
Works Councils 382.
Automatic sheet-glass works: rests and alternation of shifts 109.

B

Balkan Conference
Hygiene 156.
Barbados
Native labour 483.
Basutoland
Native labour 482.
Bechuanaland
Accident prevention 169.
Native labour 482.
Occupational hygiene 154.
Ankylostomiasis 150.
Protection of Native workers 140.
Workmen's compensation 159.
Bedaux system 141.
Belgian Congo
Accident prevention 166, 167.
Belgium
Agriculture: wages 453.
Conventions, Action on 158, 171, 172, 185, 199, 290, 339.
Employers' organisations 23.
Employment exchanges 326.
Family allowances 290.
Home work: wages 192.
Hours of work in industry 75.
Hygiene 153.
Education and publicity 165.
Home work 156.
Mining 154.
Individual contract of service 404.
Migration 335, 337.
Monetary and financial policy 62.
Native labour 471.
Organisation of production 56.
Production indexes of countries with currencies of unreduced gold content 40.
Right of combination in trade unions 365.
Salaried employees' organisations, Demands of 118.
Silicosis 148.
Social insurance 208.
Statistics of occupational diseases 161.
Statistics
Index numbers of industrial wages 275.
Short-term and long-term interest rates 50.
Unemployment insurance 297.
Unemployment 295.
Insurance and relief measures 295, 299, 300, 324.
Vocational training 344.
Wholesale prices in countries with currencies of unreduced gold content 44.
Women's work 174, 176.
Workers' spare time 353.

Benzene 146.
Brazil
Accident prevention 169.
Agriculture
Land settlement 450.
Legislation 454.
Annual holidays with pay 133.
Children and young persons 139, 196.
Collective agreements 386.
Conventions, Action on 184, 187, 199, 200, 266, 339.
Factory inspection 201.
Hours of work
Industry 76.
Salaried employees 113.
Hygiene 153, 154.
Individual contract of service 404.
Inspection of ports 202.
Labour law 415.
Maternity protection 188, 191.
Migration 335.
Monetary and financial policy 68.
Ratifications 4.
Recommendations, Action on 268, 341.
Right of combination in trade unions 366.
Social insurance 210, 271, 273.
Vocational training 344.
Weekly rest: commercial undertakings 125.
Women workers 139, 179, 192.
Workmen's compensation 159.
British Commonwealth
Native labour 473.
British Guiana
Native and colonial labour 482.
British Honduras
Native labour 482.
British Solomon Islands Protectorate
Native labour 485.
Broadcasting
Activities of I.L.O. 36-37.
Bulgaria
Accident prevention 168.
Children and young persons 139.
Conventions, Action on 171.
Employment exchanges 327.
Factory inspection 201.
Hygiene: domestic servants 156.
Monetary and financial policy 65.
National economic councils 420.
Right of combination in trade unions 367.
Social insurance 212.
Statistics of unemployment insurance and relief measures 297.
Unemployment relief measures
Public works 310.
Vocational training 344.
Women workers: protective measures 184.

C

Canada
Accident prevention 167, 168, 169.
Agriculture
Land settlement 450.
Wages 453.
Children and young persons 196.
Collective agreements 386.
Conventions, Action on 4.
Employers' organisations 23.
Hours of work
Industry 76.
Salaried employees 113.
Hygiene 153.
Education and publicity 165.
Forestry 170.
Industrial medicine 165.
Research methods 164.
Silicosis 147.
Individual contract of service 404.
Monetary and financial policy 66.
Production indexes of countries with currencies of reduced gold content 41.
Right of combination in trade unions 368.
Salaried employees' organisations, Demands of 118.
Seamen: conditions of service 456.
Social insurance 212, 271, 273.
Solvents 146.
Statistics
Index numbers of agricultural wages 277.
Index numbers of industrial wages 275.
Unemployment 293.
Relief measures 300, 317.
Public works 310.
Vocational training 344.
Wage policy 280.
Weekly rest: commercial undertakings 125.
Wholesale prices in countries with currencies of reduced gold content 45.
Women's work 179, 182, 193.
Workers' organisation 12.
Workers' spare time 353.
Workmen's compensation 159.
Cancer 150.
Cape Verde Islands
Native labour 501.
Catholic Church 29.
Ceylon
Native labour 483.
Women's work 180.
Workmen's compensation 159.
Chemicals 153.
Children and young persons 196.
Unemployment 316.

Chile
Agriculture
Employment situation and population movements 451.
Land settlement 450.
Wages 453.
Annual holidays with pay 134.
Conciliation and arbitration 402.
Conventions, Action on 119, 172, 266, 339, 455, 470, 471.
Factory inspection 201.
Hours of work in industry 78.
Maternity protection 188.
Monetary and financial policy 68.
National economic council 420.
Permanent Delegate accredited to the International Labour Office 3.
Social insurance 215, 271.
Unemployment relief measures: public works 310.
China
Conventions, Action on 123, 185, 187, 265, 266, 339, 455.
Employment exchanges 327.
Factory inspection 201.
Monetary and financial policy 68.
National economic council 420.
Recommendations, Action on 268, 341.
Vocational training 345.
Weekly rest: industrial undertakings 120.
Christian Trade Unions 14.
Coal mines, Hours of work
Forty-hour week 108.
International regulations 107.
National regulations 106.
Collective agreements 384.
Colombia
Conciliation and arbitration 402.
Conventions, Action on 111, 158, 185, 339.
Hours of work
Industry 78.
Salaried employees 114.
Recommendations, Action on 339.
Commercial policy 57.
Compensation for industrial diseases 157.
Compressed air 154.
Conciliation and arbitration 393.
Conditions of work 73.
Conventions, Action of Governments
No. 1: Hours of Work (Industry), 1919 4, 105, 106.
No. 2: Unemployment, 1919 338.
No. 3: Childbirth, 1919 187.
No. 4: Night Work (Women), 1919 184.
No. 5: Minimum Age (Industry), 1919 199.
No. 6: Night Work (Young Persons), 1919 200.
Conventions, Action of Governments *(continued)*
No. 7: Minimum Age (Sea), 1920 470.
No. 8: Unemployment Indemnity (Shipwreck), 1920 470.
No. 9: Placing of Seamen, 1920 471.
No. 10: Minimum Age (Agriculture), 1921 455.
No. 11: Right of Association (Agriculture), 1921 455.
No. 12: Workmen's Compensation (Agriculture), 1921 456.
No. 13: White Lead (Painting), 1921 143.
No. 14: Weekly Rest (Industry), 1921 4, 123.
No. 15: Minimum Age (Trimmers and Stokers), 1921 471.
No. 16: Medical Examination of Young Persons (Sea), 1921 471.
No. 17: Workmen's Compensation (Accidents), 1925 265.
No. 18: Workmen's Compensation (Occupational Diseases), 1925 157.
No. 19: Equality of Treatment (Accident Compensation), 1925 265.
No. 20: Night Work (Bakeries), 1925 131.
No. 21: Inspection of Emigrants, 1926 342.
No. 22: Seamen's Articles of Agreement, 1926 4, 471.
No. 23: Repatriation of Seamen, 1926 471.
No. 24: Sickness Insurance (Industry, etc.), 1927 264.
No. 25: Sickness Insurance (Agriculture), 1927 266.
No. 26: Minimum Wage-fixing Machinery, 1928 290.
No. 27: Marking of Weight (Packages Transported by Vessels), 1929 4, 171.
No. 28: Protection against Accidents (Dockers), 1929 171.
No. 29: Forced Labour, 1930 4, 503.
No. 30: Hours of Work (Commerce and Offices), 1930 119.
No. 31: Hours of Work (Coal Mines), 1931 108.
No. 32: Protection against Accidents (Dockers) (Revised), 1932 4, 172.
No. 33: Minimum Age (Non-Industrial Employment), 1932 199.
No. 34: Fee-Charging Employment Agencies, 1933 339.
No. 35: Old-Age Insurance (Industry, etc.), 1933 266.
No. 36: Old-Age Insurance (Agriculture), 1933 266.
No. 37: Invalidity Insurance (Industry, etc.), 1933 266.

Conventions, Action of Governments *(continued)*
No. 38: Invalidity Insurance (Agriculture), 1933 266.
No. 39: Survivors' Insurance (Industry, etc.), 1933 266.
No. 40: Survivors' Insurance (Agriculture), 1933 266.
No. 41: Night Work (Women) (Revised), 1934 185.
No. 42: Workmen's Compensation (Occupational Diseases) (Revised), 1934 158.
No. 43: Sheet-Glass Works, 1934 111.
No. 44: Unemployment Provision, 1934 338.
Co-operation 424.
Correspondence Committee on Accident Prevention 171.
Correspondence Committee on Industrial Hygiene 159, 163, 166.
Costa Rica
Social insurance 216.
Wage policy 281.
Workmen's compensation 159.
Cuba
Conventions, Action on 106.
Hours of work in industry 79.
Maternity protection 188.
Migration 335.
Right of combination in trade unions 369.
Seamen: conditions of service 457.
Social insurance 216, 271.
Curaçao
Native and colonial labour 498.
Currencies and interest rates 48.
Czechoslovakia
Agriculture 447.
Conditions of employment 452.
Wages 453.
Automatic sheet-glass works: rests and alternation of shifts 109.
Cancer 150.
Children and young persons 318.
Collective agreements 387.
Conventions, Action on 171.
Employers' organisations 23.
Employment exchanges 327.
Hours of work in industry 79.
Hygiene
Industry 165.
Salaried employees 156.
Health of the unemployed 140.
Individual contract of service 402, 404.
Maternity protection 189.
Mining
Inspection 202.
Safety delegates 202.
Monetary and financial policy 64.
National economic council 421.
Night work in bakeries 130.
Czechoslovakia *(continued)*
Occupational diseases 162.
Organisation of production 55.
Production indexes of countries with currencies of reduced gold content 41.
Rationalisation 142.
Silicosis 147.
Social insurance 218, 270, 271.
Statistics
Index numbers of industrial wages 275.
Short-term and long-term interest rates 50.
Unemployment insurance and relief measures 297.
Unemployment 295.
Insurance and relief measures 299, 300, 317.
Public works 310.
Wage policy 282.
Wholesale prices in countries with currencies of reduced gold content 45.
Women's work 174.
Workers' spare time 353.

D

Danzig, Free City of
Accident prevention 167, 168.
Children and young persons 318.
Collective agreements 387.
Economic council 421.
Hours of work in industry 84.
Individual contract of service 407.
Labour law 415.
Public holidays 137.
Right of combination in trade unions 369.
Unemployment relief measures 318.
Public works 310.
Workmen's compensation 159.
Works Councils 382.
Denmark
Accident prevention 168.
Agriculture 447.
Conditions of employment 452.
Employment situation and population movements 451.
Wages 453.
Children and young persons 318.
Collective agreements 387.
Conciliation and arbitration 394.
Conventions, Action on 157, 266, 339.
Factory inspection 201.
Hours of work in industry 81.
Hygiene 153, 156.
Lead poisoning 144.
Manganese poisoning 145.
Research methods 164.

Denmark *(continued)*
Inspection of vessels 202.
Migration 334.
Monetary and financial policy 65.
Night work in bakeries 130.
Recommendations, Action on 268, 341.
Silicosis 147.
Social insurance 221, 271.
Statistics
Index numbers of agricultural wages 277.
Index numbers of industrial wages 275.
Unemployment insurance and relief measures 297.
Unemployment 293.
Relief measures 300, 318.
Women workers 195.
Diagrams
Commerce, Movement of international 47.
Index numbers of the production of consumption goods of the investment industries, 1929-1934 43.
Production indexes of countries with currencies of reduced gold content 41.
Production indexes of countries with currencies of unreduced gold content 40.
Wholesale prices in countries with currencies of reduced gold content 45.
Wholesale prices in countries with currencies of unreduced gold content 44.
Dominican Republic
Conventions, Action on 111, 158, 185, 339.
Migration 335.
Recommendations, Action on 339.
Wage policy 282.

E

Economic depression 140, 191, 307.
Economic developments 39.
Ecuador
Admission to International Labour Organisation 1.
National economic council 421.
Education 35.
Egypt 3.
Accident prevention 166.
Agriculture: land reform and settlement 450.
Night work of women 186.
Employers' organisations
National 22.
International 21.
Employment exchanges 326.
Enamel works 145.
Equality of treatment for both sexes: wages 191.
Eritrea
Native and colonial labour 496.
Estonia
Accident prevention 167.
Agriculture
Employment situation and population movements 451.
Legislation 454.
Wages 454.
Annual holidays with pay 134.
Conventions, Action on 266, 339.
Employment exchanges 327.
Hours of work in industry 82.
Hygiene
Forestry 170.
Lead poisoning 144.
I.L.O. Correspondents 3.
Monetary and financial policy 66.
National economic council 421.
Recommendations, Action on 268, 341.
Social insurance 221, 271.
Statistics: Index numbers of agricultural wages 277.
Unemployment relief measures: Public works 311.
Vocational training 345.

F

Factory inspection 201.
Family allowances 290.
Federated Malay States
Accident prevention 169.
Protection of women workers 183.
Fiji Islands
Accident prevention 169.
Native labour 485.
Protection of women workers 169.
Film scenarios
Activities of I.L.O. 36.
Finland
Accident prevention 168, 169.
Agriculture: wages 454.
Children and young persons 319.
Conventions, Action on 106, 108, 119, 172, 199, 200, 266, 340, 456, 503.
Hours of work of salaried employees 114.
Monetary and financial policy 66.
National economic council 421.
Recommendations, Action on 120, 172, 200, 268, 341, 504.
Social insurance 222, 273
Statistics
Index numbers of agricultural wages 277.

Finland *(continued)*
Unemployment insurance and relief measures 297, 301, 319.
Wage policy 282.
Women's work 175.
France
Accident prevention 166, 167, 168, 169.
Compressed air 154, 170.
Transport of dangerous substances 170.
Aerial navigation 202.
Agriculture 448.
Employment situation and population movements 451.
Legislation and other social action 455.
Wages 454.
Anthrax 149.
Children and young persons 318.
Collective agreements 387.
Conventions, Action on 108, 171, 172, 199, 266, 340.
Employers' organisations 23.
Employment exchanges 328.
Family allowances 291.
Hours of work
Coal mines 106.
Industry 82.
Salaried employees 114.
Housing 357.
Hygiene 152.
Building 153, 170.
Creosote, Use of 146.
Domestic service 156.
Education and publicity 165.
Factory inspection 164.
Lead poisoning 144.
Manganese poisoning 145.
Maritime transport 155.
Mining 154.
Phosphorus poisoning 145.
Shipbuilding 153.
Silicosis 147.
X-rays 155.
Industrial physiology 141.
Inspection of navigation 202.
Migration 336, 337.
Monetary and financial policy 62.
National economic council 422.
Native and colonial labour 486.
Production indexes of countries with currencies of unreduced gold content 40.
Recommendations, Action on 172, 200, 266, 268, 341.
Seamen: wages 466.
Social insurance 223, 271.
Statistics
Index numbers of agricultural wages 277.
Index numbers of industrial wages 275.
France *(continued)*
Statistics *(continued)*
Short-term and long-term interest rates 50.
Unemployment insurance 297.
Statistics of occupational diseases 162.
Unemployment 295.
Insurance and relief measures 299, 301, 318.
Public works 311.
Vocational training 345.
Wage policy 283.
Weekly rest
Commercial undertakings 125.
Industrial undertakings 120.
Wholesale prices in countries with currencies of unreduced gold content 44.
Women's work 173, 180, 186, 195.
Workers' organisations 11.
Workers' spare time 353.
Workmen's compensation 159.
See also names of the various colonies
French Cameroons, Mandated Territory
Native labour 489.
French Equatorial Africa
Accident prevention 168.
Mining inspection 202.
Native labour 489.
French Indo-China
Accident prevention 167, 168.
Native labour 493.
French Somaliland
Accident prevention 168.
Native labour 491.
French Togoland, Mandated Territory
Convict labour 491.
Native labour 491.
French West Africa
Factory inspection 201.
Native labour 490.

G.

Gambia
Native labour 478.
Germany
Accident prevention 166, 167, 168, 169.
Agriculture 448.
Conditions of employment 453.
Employment situation and population movements 451.
Land reform and settlement 450.
Annual holidays with pay 134.
Children and young persons 139, 319.
Collective agreements 387.
Conciliation and arbitration 394.
Conventions, Action on 266, 340.
Employers' organisations 24.
Employment exchanges 328.

Germany *(continued)*
Factory inspection 201.
Health of the unemployed 141.
Home work 192, 439.
Hours of work
Coal mines 106.
Industry 84.
Salaried employees 115.
Housing 358.
Hygiene 152, 153.
Benzene poisoning 146.
Domestic servants 156.
Education and publicity 166.
Home work 156.
Lead poisoning 144.
Mining 154.
Outdoor construction 153.
Silicosis 147.
Index numbers of the production of consumption goods of the investment industries, 1929-1934 43.
Individual contract of service 407.
Industrial physiology 141.
I.L.O. Correspondent 3.
International Labour Organisation, Withdrawal from 2, 3.
Labour law 415.
Maternity protection 191.
Medical assistance 152.
Migration of refugees 337.
Mining
Hygiene 154.
Safety delegates 202.
Monetary and financial policy 63.
National economic council 422.
Night work in bakeries 130.
Occupational diseases 165.
See also Hygiene.
Organisation of production 54.
Prison labour 506.
Production indexes of countries with currencies of unreduced gold content 40.
Public holidays 137.
Rationalisation 142.
Recommendations, Action on 268, 341.
Right of combination in trade unions 369.
Seamen
Conditions of service 457.
Hours of work, manning, and holidays with pay 462.
Wages 466.
Shop closing 132.
Social insurance 225, 270, 271.
Statistics
Index numbers of industrial wages 275.
Short-term and long-term interest rates 50.
Unemployment insurance and relief measures 297.

Germany *(continued)*
Statistics of occupational diseases 162.
Training of motor drivers 170.
Unemployment insurance and relief measures 301, 319.
Public works 312.
Vocational training 346.
Wage policy 283.
Weekly rest
Commercial undertakings 126.
Industrial undertakings 121.
Wholesale prices in countries with currencies of unreduced gold content 44.
Women's work 174, 175, 177, 182.
Workers' organisations 14.
Workers' spare time 354.
Works Councils 383.
Gilbert and Ellice Islands
Native labour 486.
Gold Coast
Native labour 477, 478.
Governing Body 7.
Enlargement of 2.
Nominations 5.
Graphs
See Diagrams.
Great Britain
Accident prevention 169.
Agriculture 448.
Conditions of employment 453.
Employment situation and population movements 451.
Legislation and other social action 455.
Wages 454.
Annual holidays with pay 135.
Children and young persons 197, 319.
Collective agreements 389.
Conciliation and arbitration 397.
Conventions, Action on 4, 111, 158, 172, 185, 200, 339.
Economic advisory council 422.
Employment exchanges 329.
Health of the unemployed 140.
Hours of work
Coal mines 106.
Industry 87.
Salaried employees 115.
Housing 358.
Hygiene 153.
Anthrax 150.
Asbestosis 149.
Building 153.
Cancer 150.
Education and publicity 165-166.
Factory inspection 164.
Lead poisoning 144.
Maritime transport 155.
Mining 154.
Salaried employees 155.

Great Britain *(continued)*
Hygiene *(continued)*
Silicosis 147.
Skin diseases 146.
X-rays 155.
Medical assistance 152.
Monetary and financial policy 67.
Night work in bakeries 130.
Organisation of production 55.
Prison labour 506.
Production indexes of countries with currencies of reduced gold content 41.
Profit-sharing and shareholding by workers 381.
Rationalisation 142.
Recommendations, Action on 173, 200, 339.
Salaried employees' organisations, Demands of 119.
Seamen
Wages 466.
Social insurance 228, 270, 271.
Statistics
Index numbers of agricultural wages 277.
Index numbers of industrial wages 275.
Short-term and long-term interest rates 50.
Unemployment insurance and relief measures 297.
Statistics of occupational diseases 162.
Unemployment 296.
Insurance and relief measures 302, 319, 324.
Public works 312.
Vocational guidance and training 143, 347.
Wage policy 284.
Weekly rest
Commercial undertakings 127.
Industrial undertakings 121.
Women's work 174, 175, 179.
Workers' spare time 354.
Workmen's compensation 159.
See also names of the various possessions.
Greece
Accident prevention 166, 168, 169.
Agriculture
Land reform and settlement 451.
Conciliation and arbitration 402.
Hygiene
Lead poisoning 144.
Solvents 146.
Individual contract of service 409.
Maternity protection 189.
Monetary and financial policy 65.
Social insurance 229, 271.
Women workers 182.
Workmen's compensation 160.
Guatemala
Migration 336.
Guinea, Portuguese
Native labour 500.
Guinea, Spanish
Native labour 501.

H

Health of the unemployed 140.
Home work 156, 191, 438.
Wages 191.
Women workers 191.
Honduras
Conciliation and arbitration 400.
Migration 366.
Social insurance 232.
Hong Kong: Accident prevention 168.
Hours of work 73.
Industry
International movement 101.
International regulations 103.
National regulations 73.
Salaried employees 111.
Housing 357.
International activities 360.
Hungary
Accident prevention 169.
Agriculture
Employment situation and population movements 452.
Legislation 455.
Wages 454.
Conventions, Action on 123, 158, 266, 455.
Employment exchanges 329.
Hours of work in industry 89.
Medical assistance 152.
Monetary and financial policy 64.
Recommendations, Action on 268.
Seamen
Conditions of service 458.
Hours of work, manning and holidays with pay 462.
Social insurance 232, 271.
Statistics
Index numbers of agricultural wages 277.
Index numbers of industrial wages 275.
Short-term and long-term interest rates 50.
Statistics of occupational diseases 162.
Unemployment relief measures: public works 312.
Weekly rest
Commercial undertakings 127.
Industrial undertakings 121.
Hydrocarbons 146.
Hygiene 152.
Education and publicity 165.
See also Industrial medicine.

I

Iceland
Factory inspection 201.
Housing 156.
Hygiene 156.
Social insurance 233, 273.
India
Accident prevention 167, 168, 169.
Aerial navigation 202.
Children and young persons 143, 197.
Conciliation and arbitration 397.
Conventions, Action on 172, 266, 340.
Employers' organisations 24.
Hours of work
Industry 89.
Salaried employees 115.
Hygiene
Factories 156.
Lead poisoning 143.
Mining 154.
Silicosis 148.
Maternity protection 189.
Recommendations, Action on 268, 341.
Unemployment relief measures 325.
Vocational training 347.
Women workers 139, 143, 182, 183, 186.
Workers' organisation 11, 12.
Individual contract of service 402.
Industrial medicine 138.
Industrial pathology 143.
Industrial physiology 139, 141.
Industrial relations 418.
International Christian associations 34.
International Code of Signals: medical assistance at sea 155.
International Conference of Catholic Employers' Associations: Affiliated Associations 22.
International Congress of Agriculture (Budapest) 447.
International Congress of Master-Printers (Fourth) 21.
International Commission of Agriculture 447.
International Cotton Committee 21.
International Federation of Agricultural Workers 447.
International Federation of Trade Unions 10.
International Labour Conference
Committee on Occupational Diseases 158.
Delegations 513.
Eighteenth Session 5.
Maritime Session (1936) 468-470.
International Labour Office
Correspondence Committee on Industrial Hygiene 147.
International Labour Office *(continued)*
Correspondence Offices and National Correspondents 3.
Enlargement of Governing Body 2.
Permanent delegates 511.
International Labour Organisation
Additions to membership 1.
Admission of Afghanistan 1.
Admission of Ecuador 1.
Admission of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics 1.
Admission of the United States of America 1.
Commissions and Committees 513, 514.
Conventions, Ratification of 4.
List of States Members 511.
International Miners' Federation 13.
International Organisation of Industrial Employers 21.
International Silk Federation 22.
International Textile Workers' Congress 13.
International trade 46.
International Wool Conference (Tenth) 21.
International Workers' Federations of Crafts and Industries 12.
Iran
See Persia.
Iraq
Delegation to the League of Nations: relations with International Labour Office 3.
Migration of Assyrians 338.
Irish Free State
Agriculture
Conditions of employment 453.
Wages 454.
Conventions, Action on 267, 340.
Hours of work in industry 90.
Recommendations, Action on 268, 341.
Social insurance 233, 271.
Statistics
Index numbers of agricultural wages 277.
Unemployment insurance and relief measures 297.
Unemployment insurance 304.
Vocational training 347.
Workmen's compensation 159.
Italy
Accident prevention 168.
Agriculture 448.
Conditions of employment 453.
Employment situation and population movements 452.
Land reform and settlement 451.
Legislation and other social action 455.
Wages 454.

Italy *(continued)*
Automatic sheet-glass works: rests and alternation of shifts 110.
Children and young persons 139, 197.
Conciliation and arbitration 398.
Conventions, Action on 4, 157, 504.
Employers' organisations 24.
Employment exchanges 330.
Family allowances 292.
Hours of work
Industry 91.
Salaried employees 116.
Housing 157, 359.
Hygiene 152.
Education and publicity 166.
Factory inspection 164.
Malaria 150.
Maritime transport 155.
Rural housing 157.
Silicosis 148.
Individual contract of service 409.
Labour law 416.
Maternity protection 189.
Medical assistance 152.
Monetary and financial policy 63.
National Council of Corporations 422.
Native and colonial labour 495.
Organisation of production 53.
Production indexes of countries with currencies of unreduced gold content 40.
Rationalisation 142.
Right of combination in trade unions 373.
Seamen: wages 467.
Social insurance 233, 272.
Statistics
Index numbers of agricultural wages 277.
Index numbers of industrial wages 275.
Short-term and long-term interest rates 50.
Unemployment insurance and relief measures 297.
Unemployment relief measures 320.
Public works 312.
Vocational training 347.
Wage policy 285.
Weekly rest
Commercial undertakings 127.
Industrial undertakings 121.
Wholesale prices in countries with currencies of unreduced gold content 44.
Women workers 139, 174, 178, 182, 195.
Workmen's compensation 60.

J

Japan
Accident prevention 169.
Agriculture 448.
Wages 454.
Conciliation and arbitration 402.
Conventions, Action on 4, 108, 172, 200, 267, 340.
Employers' organisations 25.
Hours of work
Coal mines 107.
Industry 91.
Hygiene
Education and publicity 165.
Maritime transport 155.
Interest in the work of the International Labour Organisation 2.
Maternity protection 190.
Monetary and financial policy 68.
National Economic Council 422.
Organisation of production 55.
Production indexes of countries with currencies of reduced gold content 41.
Recommendations, Action on 268, 341.
Seamen: wages 467.
Social insurance 234, 272. 273.
Statistics
Index numbers of agricultural wages 277.
Index numbers of industrial wages 275.
Short-term and long-term interest rates 50.
Trade Union Congress 20.
Unemployment relief measures 304.
Public works 313.
Wholesale prices in countries with currencies of reduced gold content 45.
Women workers 186.

K

Kenya
Native labour 476, 477.

L

Labour law. Administration of 415.
Latvia
Agriculture
Employment situation and population movements 452.
Land reform and settlement 451.
Wages 454.
Conventions, Action on 171, 267, 338, 340, 471, 504.
Employers' organisations 25.
Hours of work in industry 91.

Latvia *(continued)*
Lead poisoning 144.
Monetary and financial policy 66.
Public holidays 138.
Recommendations, Action on 268, 342.
Right of combination in trade unions 376.
Social insurance 235, 271.
Statistics: index numbers of agricultural wages 277.
Leeward Islands
Shop closing 132.
Levant, States of the: French Mandated Territory
Native labour 492.
Libia
Native labour 495.
Lithuania
Agriculture
Wages 454.
Annual holidays with pay 135.
Conventions, Action on 171, 199, 265.
Hygiene
Factory inspection 201.
Lead poisoning 144.
Individual contract of service 410.
Maternity protection 190.
Monetary and financial policy 66.
Right of combination in trade unons 376.
Social insurance 236.
Statistics: index numbers of agricultural wages 277.
Unemployment relief measures: public works 313.
Wage policy 285.
Women workers 180, 186.
Luxemburg
Annual holidays with pay 135.
Children and young persons 320.
Employers' organisations 25.
Employment exchanges 330.
Hours of work in industry 92.
Individual contract of service 410.
Migration 366.
National Economic Council 422.
Social insurance 236, 270.
Unemployment insurance and relief measures 299, 320.
Women workers 179.

M

Madagascar
Native labour 492.
Malaya
Native labour 485.
See also Malay States, Federated, Malay States, Non-federated, and Straits Settlements.
Malay States, Federated
Native labour 485.
Malay States, Non-federated
Johore
Native labour 485.
Workmen's compensation 160.
Kedah
Ankylostomiasis 150.
Native labour 485.
Workmen's compensation 160.
Kelantan
Native labour 485.
Women workers 186.
Malta
Workmen's compensation 160.
Manganese 145.
Maritime transport 155.
Marking of weight on heavy packages transported by vessels 170.
Martinique
Accident prevention 167.
Mauritius
Accident prevention 167.
Native labour 477.
Women workers 186.
Medical assistance 151.
Medical inspection 163.
Mercury 145.
Mexico
Accident prevention 167, 169.
Agriculture
Land reform and settlement 451.
Wages 454.
Children and young persons 198.
Conciliation and arbitration 402.
Conventions, Action on 120, 171, 172, 265, 290, 471, 504.
Employment exchanges 330.
Hygiene 157.
Education and publicity 165.
Maternity protection 190.
Migration 336.
Organisation of production 53.
Ratifications 4.
Shop closing 132.
Social insurance 237.
Unemployment 295.
Wage policy 286.
Women workers 139, 183.
Migration 332.
Organisation and control 334.
Mining 153, 202.
Monetary and financial policy 62.
Morocco
French Zone
Accident prevention 167.
Native and colonial labour 487.
Spanish zone
Native labour 501.
Mozambique
Native labour 499.

N

National economic councils 419.
Native and colonial labour 471.
  International situation 502.
  Protection of workers 140.
Netherlands
  Accident prevention 167.
  Agriculture
    Conditions of employment 453.
    Wages 454.
  Conventions, Action on 4, 131, 143, 200, 267, 340.
  Family allowances 293.
  Home work 192.
  Hours of work
    Industry 92.
    Salaried employees 116.
  Hygiene
    Domestic servants 156.
    Lead poisoning 144.
    Occupational diseases 164.
    Railways 155.
    Silicosis 148.
  Night work in bakeries 131.
  Production indexes of countries with currencies of unreduced gold content 40.
  Public holidays 138.
  Recommendations, Action on 268, 342.
  Seamen: wages 467.
  Social insurance 238.
  Statistics
    Index numbers of industrial wages 275.
    Short-term and long-term interest rates 50.
    Unemployment insurance and relief measures 297.
  Statistics of occupational diseases 162.
  Unemployment insurance and relief measures 304.
    Public works 313.
  Wage policy 286.
  Weekly rest: commercial undertakings 127.
  Wholesale prices in countries with currencies of unreduced gold content 44.
  Women's work 175, 179.
Netherlands Indies
  Factory inspection 201.
  Native and colonial labour 496.
  Seamen
    Conditions of service 459.
    Hours of work, manning, and holidays with pay 462.
New Caledonia
  Native labour 494.
New Hebrides
  Native labour 486.
New Zealand
  Agriculture: wages 454.
  Conventions, Action on 111, 159, 185, 339.
  Employers' organisations 25.
  Hours of work in industry 92.
  Lead poisoning 144.
  Migration 336.
  Monetary and financial policy 67.
  Recommendations, Action on 339.
  Social insurance 239, 272.
  Statistics
    Index numbers of agricultural wages 277.
    Index numbers of industrial wages 275.
  Unemployment insurance and relief measures 304.
  Vocational training 347.
  Wage policy 286.
  Women workers 174, 194, 195.
Nicaragua
  Conciliation and arbitration 402.
  Conventions, Action on 106, 120, 123, 131, 143, 157, 171, 185, 187, 199, 200, 265, 266, 338, 342, 455, 456, 470, 471, 504.
  Hours of work in industry
    National regulations 92.
  Medical assistance 152.
  Ratifications 4.
Nigeria
  Accident prevention 167.
  Native labour 477, 478.
Night work in bakeries 129.
North Africa
  Native and colonial labour 487.
Norway
  Accident prevention 167.
  Agriculture
    Wages 454.
  Conciliation and arbitration 399.
  Conventions, Action on 267, 340.
  Hours of work in industry 93.
  Monetary and financial policy 65.
  Recommendations, Action on 268, 342.
  Social insurance 240, 273.
  Statistics
    Index numbers of agricultural wages 277.
    Index numbers of industrial wages 275.
    Unemployment insurance and relief measures 297.
  Transport of explosives 170.
  Unemployment 295.
  Women's work 180, 195.
  Workers' organisations 11.
  Workers' spare time 355.

O

Occupational hygiene 153.
Organisation of production 52.

P

Pacific Islands
Native labour 485.
Panama
Unemployment relief measures
Public works 313.
Workers' spare time 355.
Palestine
Accident prevention 168.
Employment exchanges 331.
Social insurance 241.
Unemployment relief measures
Public works 313.
Papua
Native labour 486.
Participation of workers in national economic life 419.
Persia
Unemployment relief measures 314.
Peru
Hygiene 157.
Monetary and financial policy 68.
Social insurance 241.
Workmen's compensation 160.
Phosphorus 145.
Poland
Accident prevention 169.
Agriculture
Land reform and settlement 451.
Legislation 455.
Annual holidays with pay 135.
Children and young persons 320.
Collective agreements 390.
Conciliation and arbitration 399.
Conventions, Action on 157, 200, 265.
Employers' organisations 26.
Employment exchanges 331.
Hours of work
Industry 93,
Salaried employees 116.
Hygiene
Education and publicity 165.
Factory inspection 201.
Occupational 153.
Individual contract of service 402, 411.
Industrial and Technical Museum 170.
I.L.O. Correspondent 3.
Labour law 416.
Maternity protection 190.
Medical assistance 152.
Monetary and financial policy 63.
Organisation of production 55.
Poland *(continued)*
Production indexes of countries with currencies of unreduced gold content 40.
Salaried employees' organisations, Demands of 119.
Seamen: wages 467.
Social insurance 243, 270, 272, 273.
Statistics
Index numbers of agricultural wages 277.
Index numbers of industrial wages 275.
Short-term and long-term interest rates 50.
Unemployment insurance and relief measures 297.
Statistics of occupational diseases 163.
Unemployment insurance and relief measures 299, 304, 314, 320.
Vocational training 348.
Weekly rest in industrial undertakings 122.
Wholesale prices in countries with currencies of unreduced gold content 44.
Women workers 174, 183.
Workers' spare time 355.
Ports and maritime navigation
Inspection 202.
Portugal
Annual holidays with pay 135.
Conventions, Action on 267, 340.
Hours of work
Industry 94.
Salaried employees 116.
Hygiene: Factory inspection 164.
Labour law 417.
Monetary and financial policy 64.
Native and colonial labour 498.
Right of combination in trade unions 376.
Social insurance 245.
Unemployment relief measures 314.
Weekly rest
Commercial undertakings 127.
Industrial undertakings 122.
Women workers 139, 186.
Portuguese Guinea
See Guinea.
Portuguese Indies
Native labour 501.
Press and public opinion 35.
Prison labour 505.
Private associations 28.
International Association for Social Progress 28.
International Congress on Alcoholism 28.
International Federation of League of Nations Societies 28.
Inter-Parliamentary Conference 28

Private associations *(continued)*
Liaison Committee of the Major International Associations 29.
Production 39.
Production indexes of countries with currencies of reduced gold content: world production 41.
Production indexes of countries with currencies of unreduced gold content: world production 40.
Professional workers
Organisation 437.
Unemployment 432.
Profit-sharing and shareholding by workers 381.
Public holidays 137.
Public works 307.

R

Railways 155.
Ratifications registered in 1934 512.
Rationalisation 142, 418.
Recommendations, Action of Governments
No. 29: Sickness Insurance, 1927 266.
No. 35: Forced Labour (Indirect Compulsion), 1930 504.
No. 36: Forced Labour (Regulation) 1930 504.
No. 37: Hours of work (Hotels, etc.), 1930 120.
No. 38: Hours of work (Theatres, etc.), 1930 120.
No. 39: Hours of work (Hospitals, etc.), 1930 120.
No. 40: Protection against Accidents (Dockers), Reciprocity, 1932 172.
No. 41: Minimum Age (Non-Industrial Employment), 1932 200.
No. 42: Employment Agencies, 1933 341.
No. 43: Invalidity, Old-Age and Survivors' Insurance, 1933 268.
No. 44: Unemployment provision, 1934 339.
Relations 10.
Research Methods in Factories 163.
Rhodesia, Northern
Accident prevention 169.
Native labour 479.
Rhodesia, Southern
Native labour 479.
Transport of explosives 170.
Right of combination in trade unions 361.
Röntgen rays
See X-rays
Russian refugees 338.
Rumania
Accident prevention 167.
Conventions, Action on 111, 159, 185, 339.
Employers' organisations 26.
Hours of work in industry 95.
Migration 336.
Monetary and financial policy 65.
Recommendations, Action on 339.
Salaried employees' organisations, Demands of 118-119.
Social insurance 246, 272.
Superior Economic Council 423.
Vocational training 348.
Weekly rest: commercial undertakings 127.
Workmen's compensation 160.
Russia
See U.S.S.R.

S

Saar Territory
Children and young persons 321.
Collective agreements 390.
Hours of work in industry 95.
Unemployment relief measures 321.
Safety
See Accident prevention.
Safety delegates 202.
" Safety First " Movement 170.
Safety movements and institutions 170.
Salaried employees 429.
Hygiene 155.
Demands of organisations 118.
Salvador
Hours of work in industry 95.
Sarawak
Native labour 485.
Scientific management 141.
Seamen 456.
Conditions of service 456.
Holidays with pay 461.
Hours of work 461.
Hygiene and welfare 467.
Manning 461.
Maritime Session of the International Labour Conference (1936) 468-470.
Wages 466.
Shop closing 131.
Siam
Conventions, Action on 267, 340.
Hours of work in industry 95.
Hygiene 157.
Recommendations, Action on 268, 341.
Sierra Leone
Native labour 478.
Silicosis 147.
Skin diseases 146.
Social insurance 203.
Bilateral treaties relating to social insurance 259.

Social insurance *(continued)*
International Conference of Health Insurance Funds and Mutual Aid Societies 263.
International Congress of Actuaries 262.
International Medical Association 264.
Meeting of experts on the economical administration of medical and pharmaceutical benefits 260.
Solvents 146.
Somaliland
Native and colonial labour 496.
Spain
Accident prevention 169.
Agriculture
Employment situation and population movements 452.
Land reform and settlement 451.
Wages 454.
Collective agreements 392.
Conciliation and arbitration 402.
Conventions, Action on 4, 111, 159, 172, 185, 200, 267, 339, 340.
Employers' organisations 26.
Hours of work in industry 95.
Housing 359.
Hygiene 164.
Education and publicity 165.
Mining 154.
Individual contract of service 413.
Migration 334.
Monetary and financial policy 64.
National economic council 423.
Railways 202.
Recommendations, Action on 338.
Social insurance 247.
Statistics: unemployment insurance and relief measures 297.
Unemployment insurance and relief measures 305, 314.
Women workers 186.
Workers' organisation 12.
Spanish Guinea
See Guinea
Spanish Morocco
See Morocco, Spanish Zone.
Standard Code of Industrial Hygiene 156.
Statistics
Index numbers of agricultural wages 277.
Index numbers of industrial wages 275.
Name, headquarters, and membership of International Federations of crafts and industries (International Trade Secretariats) 525.
Name, headquarters, and membership of International Trade Union Federations 524.
Statistics *(continued)*
National Trade Union Federations 530.
A. European countries 530.
B. Extra-European countries 537.
Short-term and long-term interest rates 50.
Summary of Table III showing by countries the membership of the National Federations of Trade Unions and certain non-affiliated organisations classified by orientation on 1 January 1933 and 1 January 1934 540.
Unemployment insurance and relief measures 297.
Statistics of International and National Federations of Trade Unions 523.
Statistics of occupational diseases 161.
Stockholm movement 31.
Straits Settlements
Native labour 485.
Women workers: application of night work Convention 186.
Sulphuretted hydrogen 145.
Swaziland
Native labour 482.
Sweden
Agriculture
Conditions of employment 453.
Employment situation and population movements 452.
Legislation and other social action 455.
Wages 454.
Children and young persons 321.
Conciliation and arbitration 400.
Conventions, Action on 267, 340, 471.
Hours of work in industry 96.
Index numbers of the production of consumption goods of the investment industries, 1929-1934 43.
Inspection of vessels 202.
Migration 337.
Monetary and financial policy 65.
Production indexes of countries with currencies of reduced gold content 41.
Recommendations, Action on 268, 341.
Salaried employees' organisations, Demands of 118.
Seamen: hours of work and manning 464.
Silicosis 148.
Social insurance 247.
Statistics
Index numbers of agricultural wages 277.
Index numbers of industrial wages 275.

Sweden *(continued)*
Statistics *(continued)*
Short-term and long-term interest rates 50.
Unemployment insurance and relief measures 297.
Statistics of occupational diseases 163.
Unemployment insurance and relief measures 305, 314, 321.
Wholesale prices in countries with currencies of reduced gold content 45.
Switzerland
Accident prevention 168.
Agriculture: employment situation and population movements 452.
Children and young persons 322.
Conventions, Action on 4, 123, 171, 267, 341.
Employers' organisations 26.
Health of the unemployed 140.
Hours of work in industry 96.
Monetary and financial policy 62.
Rationalisation 142.
Recommendations, Action on 269, 342.
Social insurance 249.
Solvents 146.
Statistics
Index numbers of industrial wages 275.
Short-term and long-term interest rates 50.
Unemployment insurance and relief measures 297.
Statistics of occupational diseases 163.
Transport of dangerous substances 170.
Unemployment 295.
Unemployment insurance and relief measures 306, 315, 322.
Vocational training 349.
Weekly rest
Commercial undertakings 128.
Industrial undertakings 122.

T

Tanganyika, Mandated Territory of
Native labour 476.
Timor
Native labour 501.
Toxic substances 143.
Labelling of containers 146.
Trade Unions
Extra-European countries 18.
Fascist trade unions 17.
Transport
Safety regulations 170.
Trinidad and Tobago
Native labour 482, 483.
Tuberculosis 151.
Tunis
Factory inspection 202.
Native labour 488.
Turkey
Conciliation and arbitration 400.
Conventions, Action on 106.
Hygiene: Mining 154.
Medical assistance 152.
Migration 337.
Organisation of production 53.
Port regulations 202.
Unemployment 295.
Vocational training 349.
Women's work 179.

U

Uganda
Native labour 477.
Unemployed, Occupation for the 316.
Unemployment 140, 293, 432.
Insurance and relief measures 296.
Other measures 323.
Union of South Africa
Accident prevention 169.
Ankylostomiasis 150.
Annual holidays with pay 135.
Children and young persons 322.
Conciliation and arbitration 402.
Conventions, Action on 111, 267, 339, 341.
Employers' organisations 26.
Hours of work in industry 98.
Monetary and financial policy 66.
Native labour 480.
Recommendations, Action on 269, 339, 342.
Silicosis 149.
Social insurance 250, 272.
Statistics: index numbers of industrial wages 275.
Trades and Labour Council 20.
Unemployment relief measures 315, 322.
Wage policy 286.
Women workers 183.
Wages 194.
Workmen's compensation 159.
United Kingdom
Wholesale prices in countries with currencies of reduced gold content 45.
See also Great Britain.
United States of America
Accident prevention 167.
Admission to International Labour Organisation 1.
Agriculture
Employment situation and population movements 452.
Land reform and settlement 451.
Social action 455.
Wages 454.

United States of America *(continued)*
Automatic sheet-glass works: rests and alternation of shifts 110.
Children and young persons 139, 198, 322.
Conciliation and arbitration 400.
Employers' organisations 27.
Employment exchanges 330.
Home work 192, 440.
Hours of work
Coal mines 107.
Industry 98.
Salaried employees 117.
Housing 359.
Hygiene 156, 157.
Education and publicity 166.
Injuries and occupational diseases 157, 164.
Silicosis 148.
Skin diseases 147.
Index numbers of the production of consumption goods of the investment industries, 1929-1934 43.
Individual contract of service 413.
Medical assistance 152.
Monetary and financial policy 67.
Mothers' allowances 191.
National economic council 423
Organisation of production 54.
Prison labour 507.
Production indexes of countries with currencies of reduced gold content 41.
Public holidays 138.
Rationalisation 142.
Right of combination in trade unions 361.
Salaried employees' organisations, Demands of 118.
Seamen
Collective agreements 465.
Conditions of service 459.
Hours of work and holidays with pay 465.
Wages 467.
Social insurance 252, 272.
Statistics
Index numbers of agricultural wages 277.
Index numbers of industrial wages 275.
Short-term and long-term interest rates 50.
Unemployment relief measures 297.
Unemployment 295.
Relief measures 307, 315, 322, 325.
Vocational guidance and training 144, 349.
Wage policy 287.
United States of America *(continued)*
Weekly rest
Commercial undertakings 128.
Industrial undertakings 123.
Wholesale prices in countries with currencies of reduced gold content 45.
Women workers 183, 186, 194.
Workers' spare time 355.
Workmen's compensation 161.
Uruguay
Accident prevention 167.
Children and young persons 198.
Employment exchanges 331.
Home work 192.
Hygiene 157.
Factory inspection 165.
Food and drink trades 170.
Maternity protection 191.
Mothers' pensions 191.
Shop closing 132.
Social insurance 255, 270, 272.
Unemployment relief measures 316.
Workmen's compensation 161.
U.S.S.R.
Admission to International Labour Organisation 1.
Agriculture 448.
Collective agreements 392.
Day nurseries 191.
Health of the working population 141.
Hours of work in industry 101.
Hygiene
Education and publicity 165, 166.
Maritime transport 155.
Organisation of production 53.
Prison labour 508.
Right of combination in trade unions 380.
Seamen: conditions of service 461.
Social insurance 258, 272, 273.
Trade unions 17.
Vocational training 350.
Wage policy 288.
Women's work 180.
Workers' spare time 356.

V

Venezuela
Accident prevention 169.
Conventions, Action on 111, 159, 185, 339.
Monetary and financial policy 68.
Recommendations, Action on 339.
Vocational guidance 142.
Vocational training 343.
International activities 351.
Women workers 195.

W

Wages 274.
  Agriculture 276.
  Manufacturing industries, mining, etc. 274.
  Policy 278.
Weekly rest
  Commercial undertakings 124.
  Industrial undertakings 120.
White lead 143.
Windward Islands
  Women workers: application of night work Convention 186.
  Grenada.
    Native labour 483.
  St. Lucia
    Native labour 483.
  St. Vincent
    Native labour 483.
Women workers 182.
  Childbirth 187.
  Economic protection 191.
  Employment and unemployment 173.
  Night work 184.
  Revision of the Night Work (Women), 1919, Convention 185.
  Vocational training 195.
Workers' organisations 10.
Workers' spare time 352.
  International activities 356.
Workmen's compensation 157, 159.
Works Councils 381.

X

X-rays 155.

Y

Young persons
  See Children and young persons
Yugoslavia
  Accident prevention 168.
  Agriculture: land reform and settlement 451.
  Conventions, Action on 172, 200.
  Monetary and financial policy 65.
  Recommendations, Action on 173, 200.
  Salaried employees' organisations, Demands of 118.
  Social insurance 258, 271, 272.
  Statistics of occupational diseases 163.
  Statistics of short-term and long-term interest rates 50.
  Unemployment 295.
    Insurance and relief measures 307, 317.
  Wage policy 290.
  Women's work 179.

STATE OF RATIFICATIONS (31 DECEMBER 1934)

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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)	16th Session (1932)		17th Session (1933)							18th Session (1934)				Total number of ratifications	Ratifications registered since last edition
	1. Hours of Work (Industry)	2. Unemployment	3. Childbirth	4. Night Work (Women)	5. Minimum Age (Industry)	6. Night Work (Young Persons)	7. Minimum Age (Sea)	8. Unemployment Indemnity (Shipwreck)	9. Placing of Seamen	10. Minimum Age (Agriculture)	11. Right of Association (Agriculture)	12. Workmen's Compensation (Agriculture)	13. White Lead (Painting)	14. Weekly Rest (Industry)	15. Minimum Age (Trimmers and Stokers)	16. Medical Examination of Young Persons (Sea)	17. Workmen's Compensation (Accidents)	18. Workmen's Compensation (Occupational Diseases)	19. Equality of Treatment (Accidents Compensation)	20. Night Work (Bakeries)	21. Inspection of Emigrants	22. Seamen's Articles of Agreement	23. Repatriation of Seamen	24. Sickness Insurance (Industry, etc.)	25. Sickness Insurance (Agriculture)	26. Minimum Wage-Fixing Machinery	27. Marking of Weight (Packages Transported by Vessels)	28. Protection against Accidents (Dockers)	29. Forced Labour	30. Hours of Work (Commerce and Offices)	31. Hours of Work (Coal Mines)	32. Protection against Accidents (Dockers) (Revised)	33. Minimum Age (Non-Industrial Employment)	34. Fee-Charging Employment Agencies	35. Old-Age Insurance (Industry, etc.)	36. Old-Age Insurance (Agriculture)	37. Invalidity Insurance (Industry, etc.)	38. Invalidity Insurance (Agriculture)	39. Survivors' Insurance (Industry, etc.)	40. Survivors' Insurance (Agriculture)	41. Night Work (Women) (Revised)	42. Workmen's Compensation (Occupational Diseases) (Revised)	43. Sheet-Glass Works	44. Unemployment Provision		
Albania	△	△	△	■	■	■	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	■	△	△	△	△	△	△		△	△	▲	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△					4	
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Argentine Repub.	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	△	△	△	△	△	△	△																												9	
Australia	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	■	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	■	△	△	△	△	■	■		■	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△		5	
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Belgium	■	■	△	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■		■	■	■			△	■						■											23	2
Brazil	△	△	■	■	■	■	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△		△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△					4	4
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Canada	○	○	○	○	○	○	■	■	○	○	○	○	○	○	■	■	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	△	△	○	○		○	○	△	○	△											4	
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Cuba	■	△	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	△	△	△	■	○	■	■	■	■	■	■	○	■	■	△	△	△	△		△	△	△													17	1
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Nicaragua	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■													30	30
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Poland	△	■	△	△	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	△	△	■	△	△	■	■	△	△	△	■			△	▲		△											17	
Portugal	■	△	△	■	△	■	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	■	△	△	■	■	■	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	■		△	△	▲	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△					8	
Rumania	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	○	■	■	■	■	△	△	△	△	○	○	○	■	○	○	■		△	△	△	△	△	△										17	
Siam	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	○		△	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○						
Sweden	○	■	○	○	○	○	■	○	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	○	▨	○	○	○	○	○	■		■	○	○	○	○	△	△	△	△	△	△	△					16	
Switzerland	○	■	○	■	■	■	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	■	■	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	■		○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○					7	1
Czechoslovak.	■	△	△	■	■	△				■	■		■	■				■	■	△	■			■	■	△	■																	13	1
Union of South Africa	△	■	△	■	△	△				△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	■	△	△	△	△	△	△	■	▨		△	△	△	▲	○	△	△	△	△	△	△			○	○	5	
Uruguay	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■		○	■		■	■											30	
Venezuela	○	○	○	■	○	■	○	○	○	○	○	○	■	○	○		○	○	○	○	△	△	△				■																	4	
Yugoslavia	△	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	△	■	△	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	△	○	■	■	■	○	○	■		■	○	△	▲	△											21	
Total number of ratifications	21	30	16	30	26	30	28	21	23	17	27	19	23	24	28	26	16	28	34	10	19	18	16	16	11	16	29	4	16	6	1	4	3										636	58
Ratifications resgistered since last edition	2	1	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	2	1	1	2	3	4	1	1	2	2	1	1	2	6	1	3	2		2	2										58	

INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE

THE

I.L.O. YEAR-BOOK

1934-35

FIFTH YEAR OF ISSUE

VOL. II: LABOUR STATISTICS



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PREFACE

The 1933 edition of the *I.L.O. Year-Book* included, for the first time, an appendix on labour statistics, which was to some extent a first attempt to compile an international year-book of these statistics. For the *I.L.O. Year-Book 1934-35* it has been decided to enlarge and extend this appendix and to issue it as a second volume.

The object of this volume is to show for each country for a series of years the principal statistics relating to labour conditions. The period covered is that from 1927 to 1934 inclusive, and annual figures are given for each of these years; in addition, most of the tables contain monthly figures for the year 1934. With a few exceptions, the figures are taken or computed from official sources.

New tables have been added to those published in previous editions of the *Year-Book*. They deal with statistics of actual hours of work, of wages in agriculture, and of migration movements and population; and the general table on unemployment now gives separate figures for males and females. Many new countries have been added to the tables, in particular to those on wages and on employment. On the other hand, the table giving statistics on emigration and immigration has been reduced, for many small countries, e.g. colonial territories, have been omitted on the ground that the available figures were insignificant, not up-to-date or incomplete.

The most important change in the tables is the presentation of all the series of *index numbers* (wages, cost of living, unemployment, etc.) on a uniform base. The base adopted is 1929 = 100, and for this purpose all the series with some other year as base in the original source have been converted where possible to the 1929 base.

In the tables in which data are given for separate industries or occupations (e.g. tables of employment, unemployment, and wages) an attempt has been made to present the data in a uniform manner, and for this purpose a list of industries was drawn up as shown below. The groups given in the tables have been arranged, as far as possible, in this order, and for each industrial group a

capital letter in the table heading indicates to which of the industries in the general list it belongs.

In order to make the English and French editions uniform, the countries are arranged in all the tables in the alphabetical order of their French titles. This order is indicated in the appendix table on population, in which the list of countries is given in order of their French titles. The corresponding order of their English titles is added so as to facilitate the use of the tables by readers of the English edition.

In view of the great diversity which exists in the scope and methods of compilation of the national statistics included in this volume, international comparisons are extremely difficult and only possible with considerable reservations; fluctuations within the same country, however, are generally comparable and it is on these that comparisons can most usefully be made.

It may be added in conclusion that for each of the subjects dealt with a series of notes, indicating for each country the source of the data, the scope of the figures, and the methods of compilation, has been added. These notes had formerly been published in various issues of the *International Labour Review;* they are brought together in the same volume as the figures themselves in order that readers may be able to acquaint themselves with the nature of the statistics.

List of Groups for the Presentation of Data by Industry or Occupation

A. Agriculture (including forestry, hunting, and fishing).
B. Mines (including quarries and oil wells).
C. Metal (metallurgy, mechanical and electrical engineering, construction and repair of vehicles, ships, etc.).
D. Brick and stone, 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 (road and rail).
N. Navigation (inland, maritime, and 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, hairdressing, etc.).
U. Entertainments.
V. Professional services, education, etc.
W. Miscellaneous.
X. Not classifiable.
Y. Occupations covering several groups, e.g. clerks, general labourers, etc.
Z. General averages of above groups.

Explanation of the Signs used in the Various Tables

The sign * signifies: no figures exist.
,, ,, — ,, figures not yet received.
,, ,, † ,, provisional figure.
,, ,, ° ,, series relating to males only.
,, ,, —— appearing between two figures of a series indicates that the former series has been revised or has given place to a new one.

THE I.L.O. YEAR-BOOK 1934-35

VOLUME I

ERRATUM

For the diagram on p. 43 of Volume I the titles, etc., should read as follows :

PRODUCTION INDEXES OF CONSUMPTION GOODS AND INVESTMENT GOODS, 1929-1934

(1928 = 100)

} Consumption goods } Investment goods

SOURCE: *Monthly Bulletin of Statistics* (League of Nations).

CONTENTS

		Page
PREFACE		III
I. *Unemployment and Employment*		1
Table I:	General Level of Unemployment	4
,, II:	Unemployment, by Industries	9
,, III:	General Level of Employment	26
,, IV:	Employment, by Industries	29
,, V *a*:	National Indexes of the Level of Unemployment	41
,, V *b*:	International Indexes of Unemployment	42
II. *Hours of Work*		43
Table VI:	General Level of Actual Hours of Work	45
,, VII:	Actual Hours of Work, by Industries	47
,, VIII:	Normal Hours of Work per Week of Adult Male Workers in Various Occupations in October 1934	63
III. *Wages*		67
Table IX:	Index Numbers of the General Level of Wages	72
,, X:	Wages by Industries or Occupations	82
,, XI:	Wages per Hour of Adult Male Workers in Various Occupations in October 1934	121
,, XII:	Money Wages and Index Numbers of Wages in Agriculture	125
IV. *Cost of Living, Retail Prices, Family Budgets*		131
Table XIII:	Cost-of-living Index Numbers	134
,, XIV:	Average Retail Prices of Certain Articles of Ordinary Consumption (Food, Heating and Lighting) in Certain Towns in October 1934	144
,, XV:	Monthly Rents of Dwellings of Different Kinds in Certain Towns in 1934	146
,, XVI:	Summary of Results of Principal Workers' Family Budget Enquiries since 1924 (Percentage Distribution of Expenditure, per Average Family, on Chief Groups)	148
,, XVII:	Summary of Results of Principal Workers' Family Budget Enquiries (Percentage Distribution of Expenditure on Chief Groups according to Income Classes)	149
V. *Emigration and Immigration*		151
Table XVIII:	Statistics of Emigration and Immigration	152
,, XIX:	Net Intercontinental Migration in Certain European and Extra-European Countries	160

Page

VI. *Industrial Relations* 161

Table XX: Collective Agreements in Force 162

„ XXI: Collective Agreements Concluded, Renewed or Modified 163

„ XXII: Industrial Disputes 164

APPENDIX: Table showing the Population of the Different Countries of the World 167

NOTES

Unemployment and Employment.

Tables I to IV: Unemployment and Employment (General Level and by Industrial Groups) 169

Hours of Work.

Tables VI and VII: General Level of Actual Hours of Work and Actual Hours of Work by Industrial Groups 183

Wages.

Tables IX and X: Index Numbers of the General Level of Wages (Money and Real) and Money Wages by Industrial Groups or Occupations 185

Table XI: Money Wages of Certain Industrial Occupations in Different Countries (October 1934) 198

Table XII: Money Wages and Index Numbers of Wages in Agriculture 200

Cost of Living, Retail Prices, Family Budgets.

Table XIII: Index Numbers of Cost of Living 205

Table XIV: Retail Prices of Articles of Common Consumption (in October 1934) 223

Table XV: Rents of Dwellings of Different Kinds in Various Towns (in 1934) 223

Tables XVI and XVII: Summary of Results of Principal Workers' Family Budget Enquiries 226

Emigration and Immigration.

Tables XVIII and XIX 228-244
(Europe, p. 228; Africa, p. 236; America, p. 238; Asia, p. 241; Oceania, p. 244.)

Industrial Relations.

Tables XX and XXI: Collective Agreements 245

Table XXII: Industrial Disputes 247

I. — UNEMPLOYMENT AND EMPLOYMENT

TABLE I

Table I gives *general statistics of unemployment* for 34 countries, distinguishing where possible males and females. If not otherwise stated, the figures relate to persons recorded as *wholly* unemployed, and in most cases fall short of the reality. Their principal value is in indicating the fluctuations from time to time, and only between such movements are international comparisons possible; the various series are not equally sensitive to changes on the labour market and an equal change in any two series does not necessarily represent a corresponding change in the countries concerned. Moreover, changes in legislation, in administrative practices, in the frequency of registration of the unemployed, in the amount of " short time " worked, and in " normal " hours often result in a decrease (or increase) in the recorded level of unemployment which does not correspond to changes in employment. Percentages are, however, more reliable than absolute numbers as measures of changes in the level of unemployment. Where available, figures of " partial unemployment " are also given, but they are uncertain, incomplete, and based on different definitions; thus here, too, international comparisons are not possible.

The principal problems of these statistics are examined in other publications of the Office [1]; for figures based on unemployment insurance additional information as to the scope and working of these schemes will be found in a recent study of the Office [2].

TABLE II

Table II gives *statistics of unemployment in different industries and occupations* for 17 of the above countries. The principal industries have been selected in most cases so as to give a fairly complete and representative selection, arranged in the order as given by the scheme of industries on p. v.

TABLE III

Table III gives *general statistics on employment* for 23 countries. In the great majority of cases the figures relate to workers recorded as in employment at a certain date, irrespective of the number of hours

[1] *Methods of Statistics of Unemployment*; Studies and Reports, Series N, No. 7; Geneva, 1925. *Report on the Proceedings of the Second International Conference of Labour Statisticians* (containing resolutions on the best methods of compiling unemployment statistics); Studies and Reports, Series N, No. 8; Geneva, 1925.

[2] *Unemployment Insurance and Various Forms of Relief for the Unemployed.* International Labour Conference, Seventeenth Session, Geneva, 1933.

worked per day and per worker. In some cases, however, the statistics relate to the number of hours worked during a certain period of time, and they do in this case record the fluctuations in the *volume* of employment. According to their source the series may be roughly classified in two groups: (1) those (the majority) based on employers' returns and indicating the changes in the number of workers employed or hours worked in a selected sample of mainly industrial establishments. These statistics do not furnish information on the absolute extent of employment, and as a rule index numbers only are reproduced below; (2) those based on returns of employed members in compulsory sickness or in unemployment insurance schemes and covering the great majority of the working population; as these statistics give a more reliable picture of the fluctuations in the absolute extent of employment, absolute figures are generally given as well as index numbers.

Owing, however, to the different scope of the various series and the different methods used in their compilation and classification, international comparisons of the absolute level of employment and its fluctuations are rarely possible. The chief value of the statistics, therefore, is in indicating the trend of short-time fluctuations in employment. In order to facilitate such comparisons the Office has as far as possible recalculated the indexes on 1929 as common base (= 100). The original base year is given in parentheses in the headings of the tables; figures in heavy type indicate that the original base has been retained.

TABLE IV

Table IV gives *statistics of employment for different industrial groups* for 10 countries and on the same lines as for the table III mentioned above.

TABLE V[1]

Table V*a* gives *national index numbers of the general level of unemployment* in 16 countries. They are intended to show the relative *fluctuations* in the general level of unemployment among *industrial* workers, and do not show the absolute height at a given date or the magnitude of the fluctuations of unemployment. They relate generally to the number of totally unemployed individuals, the definition of whom varies with time and circumstances, and do not directly show the fluctuations in the *time lost* through unemployment, as the number of unemployed is affected also by changes in the length of normal working hours and by the extent to which short time and other means of rationing work are applied, as well as by changes in the population of working age, and the proportion of this population seeking gainful occupation. They are also subject to the general reservation attached to unemployment statistics (see notes to table I). More weight should be attached to the direction of movement of the indexes than to the magnitude of the changes. The main value of these indexes is to present selected unemployment series, chiefly those giving percentages, in a convenient and uniform way suited for comparisons with other time series (e.g.

[1] For the sources and a full description of the methods of compilation of these index numbers cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. XXIX, No. 4, April 1934, pp. 557-571.

wages, prices, production, trade, etc.) for which index numbers already exist; for international comparisons of the *movements* in the level of unemployment in different countries, and for computing an " international index " of unemployment.

Table V*b* gives an "*international index*" *of unemployment*, computed by the International Labour Office by combining the national indexes given in table V*a*, and it may serve as a general measure of the relative changes in industrial unemployment in the world at large. While wholly tentative and approximate in character it is less influenced by chance circumstances than the individual indexes of which it is composed, since the errors tend, in the average, to balance each other. In addition, a series is given in which seasonal fluctuations have been eliminated.

TABLE I. — GENERAL LEVEL OF UNEMPLOYMENT

Date	Germany								Australia	
	Trade union returns			Employment exchange statistics					Trade union returns	
	Percentage unemployed			Applicants for work registered	Unemployed registered [3]				Unemployed	
					Number			Per cent.	Number	Per cent.
	Males	Females	Total		Males	Females	Total			
1927 . . .	9.2	7.0	8.8	*	*	*	1,353,000[4]	*	31,032	7.0
1928 . . .	8.6	7.5	8.4	*	*	*	1,353,000[4]	*	45,669	10.8
1929 . . .	13.5	11.1	13.1	1,919,917[2]	1,311,094[2]	367,731[2]	1,678,825[2]	*	47,359	11.1
1930 . . .	23.3	16.5	22.2	3,194,420	2,512,581	626,874	3,139,455	*	84,767	19.3
1931 . . .	35.4	24.9	33.7	4,672,991	3,682,070	891,149	4,573,219	23.7	117,866	27.4
1932 . . .	45.6	32.7	43.7	5,710,405	4,475,804	1,104,054	5,579,858	30.1	120,454	29.0
1933 . . .	*	*	*	5,024,673	3,807,945	925,069	4,733,014	25.8	104,035	25.1
1934 . . .	*	*	*	3,246,117	2,176,328	481,383	2,657,711	14.5	86,865	20.5
1934: Jan.	28.2[1]	14.2[1]	25.4[1]	4,397,950	3,092,196	680,596	3,772,792	21.0	*	*
Feb.	21.8	12.2	20.1	4,081,243	2,735,764	636,847	3,372,611	18.7	92,297	21.9
March	17.4	11.4	16.3	3,609,753	2,223,269	575,055	2,798,324	15.4	*	*
April	16.4	11.0	15.4	3,394,327	2,078,041	530,580	2,608,621	14.1	*	*
May	15.8	10.8	14.9	3,224,981	2,035,920	493,040	2,528,960	13.5	88,413	20.9
June	16.7	10.5	15.6	3,083,763	2,015,790	465,036	2,480,826	13.3	*	*
July	16.3	10.4	15.3	2,955,204	1,993,241	432,773	2,426,014	13.1	*	*
Aug.	16.3	10.5	15.2	2,886,837	1,979,506	418,056	2,397,562	12.9	86,652	20.4
Sept.	16.3	10.3	15.2	2,736,696	1,889,237	392,563	2,281,800	12.3	*	*
Oct.	*	*	*	2,707,563	1,889,711	377,946	2,267,657	12.2	*	*
Nov.	*	*	*	2,809,140	1,972,911	379,751	2,352,662	12.2	80,097	18.8
Dec.	*	*	*	3,065,942	2,210,348	394,352	2,604,700	14.3	*	*
Base figure	6,889,539			*	18,166,304				426,866	

[1] New series: returns from the German Labour Front. — [2] Average of eleven months. — [3] Not including, since 31 July 1933, persons employed in labour camps. — [4] Figures calculated by the "Institut für Konjunkturforschung".

Date	Austria					Belgium				Bulgaria [2]
	Unemployment insurance statistics		Employment exchange statistics			Unemployment insurance statistics				Official estimates
	Unemployed in receipt of benefit		Applicants for work registered			Unemployed				Number unemployed
						Wholly		Partially		
	Number	Per cent.	Males	Females	Total	Number	Per cent.	Number	Per cent.	
1927 . . .	172,450	13.6	*	*	200,112	11,112	1.8	23,763	3.9	*
1928 . . .	156,185	12.1	*	*	182,444	5,386	0.9	22,293	3.5	*
1929 . . .	164,509	12.3	133,281	58,701	191,987[1]	8,462	1.3	18,831	3.0	*
1930 . . .	208,389	15.0	176,691	65,921	242,612	23,250	3.6	50,918	7.9	*
1931 . . .	253,368	20.3	228,874	71,349	300,223	79,186	10.9	121.890	16.9	*
1932 . . .	309,968	26.1	294,194	83,700	377,894	161,468	19.0	175,259	20.7	22,153
1933 . . .	328,844	29.0	313,528	92,213	405,741	168,023	17.0	170,023	17.2	24,977
1934 . . .	287,527	26.3	279,964	90,246	370,210	182,855	19.0	166,229	17.2	32,762
1934: Jan.	357,291	32.3	342,202	98,143	440,345	206,855	21.5	183,712	18.9	43,505
Feb.	352,451	32.1	336,643	98,036	434,679	195,405	20.3	178,556	18.6	42,029
March	325,657	29.9	311,018	92,140	403,158	182,561	18.8	162,780	16.7	40,763
April	295,814	27.1	286,095	89,638	375,733	188,478	19.4	170,352	17.6	36,479
May	273,576	25.0	266,486	87,023	353,509	170,261	17.5	162,511	16.7	35,568
June	263,883	24.1	258,312	89,358	347,670	165,342	17.1	163,216	16.9	33,129
July	257,213	23.7	249,120	89,203	338,323	167,979	17.4	175,974	18.2	25,330
Aug.	248,066	22.9	242,232	86,683	328,915	164,969	17.1	169,255	17.5	23,555
Sept.	243,874	22.4	241,579	83,968	325,547	173,118	17.9	156,408	16.2	20,723
Oct.	249,275	22.8	246,123	85,871	331,994	173,368	18.0	153,422	15.9	23,482
Nov.	275,116	24.9	274,063	89,450	363,513	193,212	20.2	150,997	15.7	29,527
Dec.	308,106	28.4	305,692	93,446	399,138	212,713	22.2	167,562	17.5	39,059
Base figure	1,086,011		*			955,464				*

[1] Including 52 persons for the month of April 1929 without distinction of males and females. — [2] The figures relate to the beginning of the following month.

TABLE I. — GENERAL LEVEL OF UNEMPLOYMENT *(continued)*

Date	Canada			Chile	Denmark					Danzig (Free City of)
	Trade union returns		Employment exchange statistics	Employment exchange statistics	Trade union returns				Employment exchange statistics	Employment exchange statistics
	Unemployed		Applicants for work registered	Applicants for work registered	Unemployed				Applicants for work registered	Unemployed registered
	Number	Per cent.			Number	Per cent. Males	Females	Total		
1927 . . .	8,142	4.9	13,541	*	61,705	*	*	22.5	65,620	*
1928 . . .	8,120	4.5	12,758	*	50,226	*	*	18.5	51,864	*
1929 . . .	11,488	5.7	14,966	*	42,817	*	*	15.5	44,581	12,905
1930 . . .	22,873	11.1	33,008	*	39,631	*	*	13.7	40,551	18,291
1931 . . .	33,625	16.8	71,385	29,345	53,019	18.6	14.5	17.9	59,430	24,898
1932 . . .	38,777	22.0	75,140	107,295	99,508	33.7	20.0	31.7	126,039	33,244
1933 . . .	33,488	22.3	81,809	71,805	97,478	30.9	17.2	28.8	121,115	31,408
1934 . . .	28,320	18.2	88,888	30,055	81,756	23.5	14.6	22.1	97,595	20,326
1934: Jan.	31,695	21.2	97,324	51,502	122,620	37.2	19.0	34.4	134,567	27,525
Feb.	29,568	20.0	91,011	46,775	112,277	33.8	17.5	31.3	126,766	25,718
March	28,436	19.5	88,452	38,953	102,262	30.6	16.5	28.4	113,650	21,907
April	28,725	19.1	89,817	31,459	82,312	22.8	14.6	21.6	95,690	20,332
May	28,994	18.5	88,740	29,015	62,216	17.5	12.5	16.8	77,322	18,462
June	28,774	18.0	86,175	28,040	57,510	16.1	12.2	15.5	73,639	17,774
July	27,945	17.9	83,250	25,789	56,849	15.9	11.7	15.3	72,386	16,852
Aug.	26,191	16.5	83,207	24,464	57,875	16.4	10.6	15.5	75,208	16,941
Sept.	26,204	16.4	84,641	23,289	61,348	17.5	10.4	16.4	79,071	16,588
Oct.	26,291	16.2	91,137	23,214	68,509	19.3	12.2	18.2	85,484	18,835
Nov.	27,904	17.5	94,474	19,954	83,042	23.8	13.8	22.3	103,722	20,395
Dec.	29,112	18.0	88,431	18,211	114,256	31.4	24.2	30.3	133,631	22,585
Base figure	161,618		*	*	377,446				*	*

Date	Spain		Estonia [1]	United States				Finland			
	Employment exchange statistics		Employment exchange statistics	Trade union returns [3]			Estimates (American Federation of Labour)	Employment exchange statistics	Statistics of local unemployment commissions		
				Percentage unemployed							
	Unemployed		Unemployed registered	Weighted	Unweighted		Number [4] unemployed	Unemployed registered	Unemployed		
	Wholly	Partially			Wholly	Partially			Males	Females	Total
1927 . . .	*	*	2,957	*	*	*	*	1,868	*	*	*
1928 . . .	*	*	2,629	9.2	13	*	*	1,735	*	*	*
1929 . . .	*	*	3,181	8.2	12	*	*	3,906	*	*	*
1930 . . .	*	*	3,089	14.5	21	*	3,947,000	7,993	*	*	*
1931 . . .	*	*	3,542	19.1	26	19	7,431,000	11,522	*	*	*
1932 . . .	*	*	7,121	23,8	32	21	11,489,000	17,581	58,768	5,204	63,972
1933 . . .	*	*	8,207	24.3	31	21	11,904,000	17,139	39,629	5,027	44,656
1934 . . .	381,278	240,541	2,970	20.9	26	24	*	10,011	20,068	3,734	23,802
1934: Jan.	381,199	243,898	7,720	22.6	28	23	11,755,000	20,109	36,374	6,798	43,172
Feb.	378,157	230,588	6,149	22.0	26	22	11,443,000	17,510	36,524	6,389	42,913
March	416,360	250,268	6,005	21.3	25	22	10,849,000	14,026	33,912	5,811	39,723
April	426,915	276,899	3,062	20.7	24	23	10,551,000	9,942	27,095	5,083	32,178
May	372,316	266,882	1,990	20.0	24	24	10,248,000	5,996	20,218	3,477	23,695
June	281,707	202,287	903	19.6	25	24	10,310,000	5,946	13,884	2.095	15,979
July	320,907	199,940	493 [2]	20.8	28	24	10,793,000	5,691	9,191	1,797	10,988
Aug.	394,493	253,432	838	21.6	28	24	10,821,000	6,064	9,114	1,927	11,041
Sept.	415,921	240,910	1,016	20.3	25	23	10,950,000	6,834	10,271	2,149	12,420
Oct.	391,906	237,824	1,796	20.1	24	23	11,093,000 [5]	7,629	12,840	2,872	15,712
Nov.	388,711	222,413	2,927	21.1	25	26	11,450,000 [5]	9,708	15,265	3,333	18,598
Dec.	406,743	261,155	2,739	21.2	27	25	11,329,000 [5]	10,680	16,137	3,071	19,208
Base figure	*	*	*	620,000			*	*	*		

[1] The figures relate to the 1st of the following month. — [2] New series. — [3] Unemployed occupied on public and civil works excluded. — [4] Including those employed on public works, etc. — [5] Modified series.

TABLE I. — GENERAL LEVEL OF UNEMPLOYMENT *(continued)*

Date	France [1]						Great Britain and Northern Ireland						
	Public relief fund statistics			Employment exchange statistics			Unemployment insurance statistics						
	Unemployed in receipt of relief			Applications for work			Wholly unemployed (including casuals)		Unemployed owing to temporary stoppages		Total		
	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Number	Per cent.	Number	Per cent.	Per cent.		
											Males	Females	Total
1927 . . .	23,928	9,662	33,590	31,761	15,017	46,778	899,093	7.4	263,077	2.3	11.0	6.2	9.7
1928 . . .	3,970	979	4,949	10,151	4,831	14,982	980,326	8.2	309,903	2.6	12.3	7.0	10.8
1929 . . .	759	169	928	5,990	3,720	9,710	994,091	8.2	268,400	2.2	11.6	7.3	10.4
1930 . . .	2,030	484	2,514	9,065	4,709	13,774	1,467,347	11.8	526,604	4.2	16.5	14.8	16.0
1931 . . .	44,234	11,547	55,781	57,259	17,586	74,845	2,129,359	16.7	587,494	4.6	22.6	17.9	21.3
1932 . . .	205,966 [2]	60,490 [2]	266,456 [2]	231,045	74,335	305,380	2,272,590	17.6	573,805	4.5	25.2	13.7	22.1
1933 . . .	213,464	61,835	275,316	236,989	69,729	306,718	2,110,090	16.4	456,678	3.5	23.1	11.4	19.9
1934 . . .	270,884	71,281	342,165	296,054	80,305	376,359	1,801,913	13.9	368,906	2.9	19.3	10.0	16.8
1934: Jan.	269,521	66,273	335,794	295,468	74,815	370,283	2,045,636	15.8	361,479	2.8	21.5	11.0	18.6
Feb.	279,699	69,461	349,160	305,405	77,457	382,862	1,996,344	15.4	346,450	2.7	20.9	10.7	18.1
March	275,331	70,452	345,783	300,700	78,588	379,288	1,907,908	14.7	316,960	2.5	20.0	9.8	17.2
April	265,353	69,166	334,519	290,766	78,334	369,100	1,813,550	14.0	334,180	2.6	19.2	9.7	16.6
May	250,567	67,658	318,225	275,997	76,315	352,312	1,751,983	13.5	345,268	2.7	18.8	9.2	16.2
June	241,607	69,327	310,934	267,082	78,232	345,314	1,672,644	12.9	451,805	3.5	19.0	9.5	16.4
July	251,088	69,339	320,427	272,368	78,060	350,428	1,663,463	12.8	498,782	3.9	19.0	10.4	16.7
Aug.	255,375	70,280	325,655	278,121	79,551	357,672	1,672,742	12.9	462,413	3.6	18.7	10.4	16.5
Sept.	253,338	70,027	323,365	277,425	79,242	356,667	1,721,737	13.3	358,599	2.8	18.3	10.0	16.1
Oct.	275,118	72,686	347,804	300,207	81,327	381,534	1,776,244	13.7	342,896	2.7	18.8	9.9	16.4
Nov.	298,802	76,381	375,183	328,229	88,323	416,552	1,807,661	13.9	314,638	2.5	18.8	10.0	16.4
Dec.	334,804	84,325	419,129	360,882	93,414	454,296	1,793,047	13.8	293,400	2.3	18.5	9.7	16.1
Base figure	*			*			12,960,000						

[1] The statistics relate to the week ending nearest to the end of each month. — [2] From July 1932 onwards, including unemployed in receipt of relief from the public charitable offices.

Date	Great Britain	Hungary	Netherlands East Indies	Irish Free State				Italy		
	Employment exchange statistics	Employment exchange statistics	Employment exchange statistics	Employment exchange statistics				Social insurance fund statistics [3]		
				Applicants for work registered				Unemployed		
	Applicants for work registered	Applications for work registered	Applicants for work registered	With claims to unemployment benefit	Total					
					Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total
1927 . . .	1,091,271	13,881	*	13,728	17,559	3,725	21,284	193,222	85,262	278,484
1928 . . .	1,246,022	14,715	*	14,821	18,580	3,907	22,487	234,770	89,652	324,422
1929 . . .	1,237,880	15,173	*	14,679	17,038	3,664	20,702	212,664	88,123	300,786
1930 . . .	1,953,935	43,592 [1]	*	16,378	18,428	3,970	22,398	310,849	114,588	425,437
1931 . . .	2,636,805	52,305	6,964	17,852	21,098	4,132	25,230	560,536	173,918	734,454
1932 . . .	2,744,789	66,235	10,922	20,217	57,063 [2]	5,754 [2]	62,817 [2]	758,620	247,822	1,006,442
1933 . . .	2,520,616	60,595	14,576	19,897	66,534	5,721	72,645	785,076	233,879	1,018,955
1934 . . .	2,159,231	52,157	15,784	20,558	95,718	7,953	103,671	785,326	178,351	963,677
1934: Jan.	2,389,068	56,478	13,949	23,418	87,758	6,508	94,266	919,904	238,514	1,158,418
Feb.	2,317,909	57,882	14,707	22,504	91,859	6,783	98,642	880,924	222,626	1,103,550
March	2,201,577	60,821	15,505	22,037	93,520	7,001	100,521	852,590	204,233	1,056,823
April	2,148,195	52,575	15,335	20,230	90,857	7,287	98,144	809,351	186,197	995,548
May	2,090,381	50,901	15,561	19,123	87,229	7,191	94,420	775,442	165,815	941,257
June	2,092,586	46,863	14,949	18,745	82,699	7,709	90,408	689,100	141,756	830,856
July	2,126,260	45,486	15,152	18,447	82,283	7,453	89,736	721,231	165,767	886,998
Aug.	2,136,578	48,365	16,060	18,447	90,086	8,166	98,252	715,288	151,282	866,570
Sept.	2,081,987	46,715	16,904	18,823	101,276	8,910	110,186	736,687	150,658	887,345
Oct.	2,119,635	52,987	16,829	20,179	108,156	9,351	117,507	747,885	157,229	905,114
Nov.	2,120,785	53,641	17,715	20,964	114,193	9,697	123,890	793,925	176,019	969,944
Dec.	2,085,815	53,168	16,741	23,780	118,700	9,384	128,084	781,591	180,114	961,705
Base figure	*	*	*	*				*		

[1] Since January 1930, including non-fee-charging private employment exchanges. — [2] Extended series. — [3] Since July 1933, employment exchange statistics.

TABLE I. — GENERAL LEVEL OF UNEMPLOYMENT *(continued)*

Date	Japan [1]		Latvia			Mexico	Norway		
	Official estimates		Employment exchange statistics			Official estimates	Trade union fund returns		Employment exchange statistics
	Unemployed		Applications for work registered			Number unemployed	Unemployed		Unemployed [5]
	Number	Per cent.	Males	Females	Total		Number	Per cent.	
1927 . . .	*	*	*	*	3,131	*	8,561	25.4	23,889
1928 . . .	*	*	*	*	4,700	*	6,502	19.2	21,759
1929 . . .	*	*	*	*	5,617	*	5,902	15.4	19,089
1930 . . .	369,408	5.3	2,897	1,954	4,851	75,689[2]	7,175	16.6	19,353
1931 . . .	422,755	6.1	5,637	3,072	8,709	257,722	*	22.3	27,479
1932 . . .	485,681	6.8	9,059	5,528	14,587	339,372[3]	14,790	30.8	32,705
1933 . . .	408,710	5.6	5,230	2,926	8,156	275,774	16,588	33.4	35,591
1934 . . .	372,941	5.0	2,894	2,071	4,965	—	15,963	30.7	35,121
1934: Jan.	390,243	5.2	6,350	4,085	10,435	269,702	20,349	40.6	40,792
Feb.	385,343	5.2	7,125	3,916	11,041	273,707	19,276	38.5	42,365
March	381,114	5.1	6,806	3,674	10,480	281,006	18,454	36.6	40,869
April	382,977	5.1	3,368	3,897	7,265	265,970	16,945	33.4	38,975
May	378,065	5.1	854	977	1,831	234,648	14,637	28.7	32,839
June	372,070	5.0	581	438	1,019	210,885	14,073	27.2	28,794
July	367,950	4.9	466	438	904	182,828[4]	12,934	24.7	25,386
Aug.	365,596	4.9	468	481	949	193,364[4]	12,998	24.6	27,210
Sept.	365,291	4.9	497	502	999	213,876[4]	13,690	25.6	31,083
Oct.	360,104	4.8	844	952	1,796	186,188[4]	14,631	27.1	34,292
Nov.	360,750	4.8	2,516	2,496	5,012	—	15,771	29.1	38,556
Dec.	365,788	4.9	4,850	3,004	7,854	—	17,792	32.8	40,288
Base figure	7,517,005			*		*	54,299		*

[1] The figures relate to the 1st of the following month. — [2] Figure for the month of May according to the population census. — [3] Modified series. — [4] Incomplete figures. — [5] The figures relate to the 15th of the month.

Date	New Zealand		Palestine	Netherlands			Poland			
	Employment exchange statistics		Official estimates [3]	Unemployment insurance statistics		Employment exchange statistics	Employment exchange statistics			
							Applications for work registered			
	Applicants for work registered [1]	Employed on public relief works	Number unemployed	Unemployed		Unemployed registered	Males	Females	Total	
				Number	Per cent.				Number	Per cent.
1927 . . .	*	*	*	26,868	9.0	*	122,501	41,452	163,953	7.5
1928 . . .	*	*	*	22,009	6.9	*	94,801	30,751	125,552	5.0
1929 . . .	2,895	*	3,104	27,775	7.5	*	97,363	32,087	129,450	4.9
1930 . . .	5,003	*	4,833	41,281	9.7	*	178,568	48,091	226,659	8.8
1931 . . .	41,430 [2]	*	24,083	96,751	18.7	138,200	242,270	57,232	299,502	12.6
1932 . . .	51,549	40,173	18,239	177,557	30.0	271,092	210,651	44,931	255,582	11.8
1933 . . .	53,382	48,456	18,370	176,429	31.4	322,951	208,479	41,181	249,660	11.9
1934 . . .	47,028	43,175	*	170,681	31.9	332,772	280,491	61,675	342,166	16.3
1934: Jan.	46,527	42,292	16,400	240,748	40.1	387,230	328,022	71,638	399,660	19.0
Feb.	45,125	40,844	15,040	186,856	31.8	358,023	337,548	71,244	408,792	19.5
March	44,441	39,993	13,700	169,776	28.5	332,907	322,675	65,622	388,297	18.5
April	45,052	40,066	14,400	157,631	26.6	309,909	295,690	62,366	358,056	17.0
May	45,952	40,635	*	146,591	29.1	294,938	270,263	58,772	329,035	15.7
June	48,393	44,429	*	146,377	29.1	291,913	250,112	56,275	306,387	14.6
July	49,931	45,793	*	154,188	30.9	297,744	236,215	58,934	295,149	14.0
Aug.	50,545	46,894	*	157,051	31.7	302,095	234,637	54,751	289,388	13.8
Sept.	50,026	46,754	*	153,833	31.3	309,623	234,829	54,391	289,220	13.8
Oct.	48,094	45,359	*	156,929	32.0	328,926	239,073	55,801	294,874	14.0
Nov.	45,963	42,992	*	162,993	33.3	365,613	272,747	60,678	333,425	15.9
Dec.	44,283	42,054	*	215,197	37.9	414,342	344,071	69,632	413,703	19.7
Base figure	*	*	*	568,044		*	2,100,984†			

[1] Including persons employed on public relief works. — [2] Modified series. — [3] These statistics have been discontinued for the time being.

TABLE I. — GENERAL LEVEL OF UNEMPLOYMENT *(concluded)*

Date	Portugal	Rumania	Saar Territory	Sweden				
	Employment exchange statistics	Employment exchange statistics [1]	Employment exchange statistics	Trade unions returns				Employment exchange statistics
				Unemployed				
	Unemployed registered	Unemployed registered	Unemployed registered	Males	Females	Total		Applicants for work registered
						Number	Per cent.	
1927 . . .	*	*	2,976	28,989	2,087	31,076	12.0	25,476
1928 . . .	*	10,373	3,871	27,352	2,364	29,716	10.6	24,399
1929 . . .	*	7,288	6,591	29,824 [2]	2,797 [2]	32,621 [2]	10.7 [2]	21,770
1930 . . .	*	25.335	9,286	38,807	3,209	42,016	12.2	25,156
1931 . . .	*	35,737	20,963	60,513	4,302	64,815	17.2	40,938
1932 . . .	33,352	38,890	41,373	83,779	6,898	90,677	22.8	82,235
1933 . . .	25,255	29,063	38,749	89,517	7,799	97,316	23.7	125,881
1934 . . .	—	17,253	34,541	73,144	7,072	80,216	19.0	97,677
1934: Jan.	26,704	28,323	40,719	84,499	7,263	91,762	24.6	142,875
Feb.	27,986	27,721	39,749	94,565	7,229	101,794	24.7	138,426
March	29,048	26,915	37,223	97,063	7,379	104,442	24.7	132,761
April	30,037	16,462	34,112	78,349	7,508	85,857	20.6	115,538
May	—	12,527	32,797	61,613	5,942	67,555	16.2	89,660
June	—	14,482	32,042	57,903	5,518	63,421	15.0	73,764
July	—	12,758	31,954	52,292	6,710	59,002	14.1	63,541
Aug.	—	13,069	32,055	54,027	6,126	60,153	14.4	65,135
Sept.	—	11,795	32,077	55,522	5,566	61,088	14.2	72,907
Oct.	—	12,570	32,539	65,423	5,994	71,417	16.0	87,770
Nov.	—	13,887	33,594	75,145	6,261	81,406	18.2	96,287
Dec.	—	16,523	35,636	101,327	13,368	114,695	25.0	93,459
Base figure	*	*	*	459,629				*

.The figures relate to the 1st of the following month. — [2] From 1929 onwards, including forestry workers and timber floaters.

Date	Switzerland [1]						Czechoslovakia					Yugoslavia
	Unemployment insurance statistics					Employment exchange statistics	Trade union fund statistics	Employment exchange statistics				Employment exchange statistics
	Percentage unemployed						Unemployed in receipt of benefit	Applicants for work registered				Unemployed registered
	Wholly	Partially	Total		Total	Applications for work registered	Number	Per cent.	Males	Females	Total	
			Males	Females								
1927 . . .	2.7	2.0	2.1	2.9	2.3	11,824	17,617	1.6	40,605	12,264	52,869	*
1928 . . .	2.1	1.1	1.5	1.7	1.6	8,380	16,348	1.4	27,059	11,577	38,636	5,721
1929 . . .	1.8	1.7	1.5	2.5	1.8	8,131	23,763	2.2	30,177	11,453	41,630	8,370
1930 . . .	3.4	7.2	4.6	7.4	5.3	12,881	51,371	4.5	79,094	26,348	105,442	8,198
1931 . . .	5.9	12.1	8.1	11.5	9.0	24,208	102,179	8.3	218,195	73,137	291,332	9,930
1932 . . .	9.3	12.0	10.3	11.7	10.7	54,366	184,555	13.5	423,504	130,555	554,059	14,761
1933 . . .	10.8	8.1	9.8	8.3	9.4	67,867	247,613	16.9	575,256	163,011	738,267	15,997
1934 . . .	9.4	5.9	8.0	6.5	7.6	65,440	245,953	17.4	537,403	139,591	676,994	15,647
1934: Jan.	*	*	*	*	*	99,147	268,708	19.4	672,250	166,732	838,982	27,768
Feb.	*	*	*	*	*	91,233	294,184	20.9	679,373	164,911	844,284	29,001
March	10.6	6.4	9.1	7.0	8.5	70,109	275,026	19.5	634,018	155,771	789,789	21,077
April	*	*	*	*	*	54,210	249,225	17.8	562,644	141,694	704,338	18,915
May	*	*	*	*	*	44,087	226,470	15.8	496,456	128,394	624,850	11,691
June	6.6	5.3	5.9	6.1	6.0	46,936	227,501	15.8	458,581	124,229	582,810	9,186
July	*	*	*	*	*	49,198	226,711	15.8	445,981	123,469	569,450	10,156
Aug.	*	*	*	*	*	52,147	233,227	16.3	446,587	125,841	572,428	10,623
Sept.	7.0	5.7	6.4	6.4	6.4	51,387	230,224	16.1	449,997	126,270	576,267	9,918
Oct.	*	*	*	*	*	59,621	217,741	15.5	467,404	132,060	599,464	11,211
Nov.	*	*	*	*	*	76,009	231,314	16.4	530,176	138,761	668,937	11,721
Dec.	13.3	6.0	10.6	6.6	9.7	91,196	271,110	19.0	605,373	146,955	752,328	16,497
Base figure	544,302					*	1,430,481		*			*

[1] Annual averages calculated on the basis of the four monthly figures (March, June, September and December).

TABLE II. — UNEMPLOYMENT, BY INDUSTRIES[1]

Germany. — *Trade Union Returns: Percentages of Wholly (Wh.) and Partially (Ptl.) Unemployed*

Date	B		B, D		C		E		F		G			
	Mining[3]		Stone and earth[4]		Engineering and metal working[5]		Building		Wood[6]		Paper		Printing, etc.	
	Wh.	Ptl.	Wh.	Ptl.	Wh.	Ptl.	Wh.	Ptl.	Wh.	Ptl.	Wh.	Ptl.	Wh.	Ptl.
1927	1.8	4.6	8.4	2.9	8.8	4.7	17.9	0.2	12.8	4.8	—	—	4.0	1.2
1928	1.8	5.4	10.1	3.4	5.6	4.5	19.2	0.3	10.7	4.9	4.9	5.3	4.5	0.6
1929	2.2	3.1	18.8	5.2	9.0	8.9	29.8	0.6	17.5	8.0	8.6	8.8	8.6	1.1
1930	6.1	21.6	33.2	10.9	18.6	20.1	47.7	0.7	31.8	13.5	15.8	20.0	15.8	4.1
1931	13.8	29.2	50.6	12.5	31.2	27.6	68.9	0.7	49.6	12.1	24.6	28.8	26.0	11.2
1932	18.1	35.0	59.5	12.7	44.6	28.1	82.4	0.4	65.0	10.8	34.3	31.8	35.6	17.0
1933[2]	16.5	29.1	*	*	40.8	22.2	65.5	0.1	54.7	7.0	34.1	23.5	33.3	16.0
1934	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
1934: Jan.	15.8	*	33.6	*	26.7	*	55.0	*	34.6	*	19.6	*	26.8	*
Feb.	15.8	*	34.1	*	23.1	*	45.4	*	32.5	*	18.2	*	25.2	*
March	15.1	*	27.4	*	20.9	*	23.5	*	29.3	*	17.9	*	24.6	*
April	14.7	*	23.4	*	19.7	*	20.8	*	27.8	*	17.5	*	23.9	*
May	14.3	*	21.5	*	18.3	*	22.3	*	26.5	*	17.8	*	23.4	*
June	14.2	*	21.8	*	19.5	*	24.6	*	25.5	*	17.5	*	23.4	*
July	14.0	*	22.0	*	18.6	*	25.8	*	25.0	*	17.2	*	23.1	*
Aug.	13.8	*	21.8	*	18.4	*	26.9	*	24.2	*	17.0	*	22.4	*
Sept.	13.6	*	21.9	*	18.2	*	26.9	*	24.6	*	16.8	*	22.6	*
Oct.	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Nov.	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Dec.	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Membership of unions reporting September 1934	310,710		345,835		1,172,402		777,383		334,081		166,802		178,143	

Date	H		I		J		K		L		M		Z	
	Textiles		Clothing[7]		Leather[7]		Chemicals[8]		Food, drink, tobacco		Transport[9]		All groups[10]	
	Wh.	Ptl.	Wh.	Ptl.	Wh.	Ptl.	Wh.	Ptl.	Wh.	Ptl.	Wh.	Ptl.	Wh.	Ptl.
1927	4.0	4.2	14.4	7.6	10.3	8.3	8.2	3.4	8.3	5.8	6.7	3.1	8.8	3.5
1928	6.1	19.5	15.8	26.0	12.1	19.9	5.7	3.4	7.2	4.5	4.7	1.2	8.4	5.6
1929	9.5	26.5	19.2	21.0	17.7	16.4	7.5	4.5	10.5	7.9	5.7	0.7	13.1	7.5
1930	15.1	34.6	25.2	27.9	26.4	20.2	15.1	14.5	14.5	12.8	*	*	22.2	13.4
1931	22.4	40.2	33.9	32.4	36.2	24.5	24.2	26.0	23.7	23.9	*	*	33.7	19.7
1932	31.3	41.4	39.7	32.9	45.2	22.7	32.6	35.0	29.4	33.1	*	*	43.7	22.6
1933[2]	21.5	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	20.6	28.3	*	*	*	*
1934	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
1934: Jan.	10.7	*	16.3	*	20.9	*	26.5	*	12.6	*	*	*	25.4	*
Feb.	10.1	*	15.9	*	22.3	*	18.8	*	12.8	*	11.1	*	20.1	*
March	9.7	*	14.5	*	20.6	*	18.0	*	12.7	*	9.4	*	16.3	*
April	9.5	*	14.2	*	19.2	*	16.7	*	13.0	*	8.9	*	15.4	*
May	9.3	*	14.2	*	17.9	*	16.9	*	12.8	*	8.4	*	14.9	*
June	8.9	*	14.7	*	18.0	*	16.2	*	12.5	*	8.7	*	15.6	*
July	8.9	*	14.5	*	18.4	*	15.9	*	12.4	*	8.3	*	15.3	*
Aug.	8.9	*	14.6	*	18.0	*	16.0	*	12.4	*	8.3	*	15.2	*
Sept.	9.0	*	14.3	*	18.4	*	16.0	*	12.1	*	8.3	*	15.2	*
Oct.	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Nov.	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Dec.	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Membership of unions reporting September 1934	556,939		255,435		72,450		229,004		502,285		812,067		6,889,539	

[1] The signification of the letters A, B, C, etc., at the head of columns is given on p. V. — [2] Incomplete figures. New series since August 1933: returns from the German Labour Front. — [3] Since August 1928 including workers above ground. — [4] January 1931 to May 1933 weighted average. — [5] Since January 1934, including metals. — [6] Since January 1933, including wood carving. — [7] Since January 1928, the shoemakers' union, and since January 1931 the Christian leather workers' union (which organises mainly shoemakers), are included under "Clothing" instead of "Leather". — [8] Since January 1928, excluding paper products. — [9] Since January 1930 to January 1934 "Transport workers" are included under "Other trades". — [10] 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. — UNEMPLOYMENT, BY INDUSTRIES *(continued)*

Australia. — *Trade Union Statistics; Percentages Unemployed*

Date	B	C	E	F	G	I	L	M	Z
	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 groups [1]
1927 . . .	12.1	5.7	7.4	4.4	1.8	4.3	8.6	5.0	7.0
1928 . . .	18.9	12.8	11.1	9.3	2.7	10.1	8.7	7.2	10.8
1929 . . .	11.3	12.3	11.4	12.4	3.1	10.7	10.3	8.6	11.1
1930 . . .	17.6	21.1	23.6	24.1	7.3	18.2	13.9	14.9	19.3
1931 . . .	33.1	30.1	33.1	33.3	14.2	25.9	19.8	24.1	27.4
1932 . . .	34.3	32.4	40.5	38.5	16.1	21.1	18.9	28.7	29.0
1933 . . .	28.8	28.7	35.7	34.8	15.1	17.4	17.0	25.1	25.1
1934 . . .	29.0	23.2	27.1	30.2	11.0	13.5	16.6	20.6	20.5
1934: Feb.	27 9	24.8	30.8	31.7	11.8	16.0	15.5	22.1	21.9
May	28.3	24.2	28.2	31.1	11.7	12.5	17.1	21.1	20.9
Aug.	30.3	22.6	26.0	29.3	10.8	13.8	17.9	20.2	20.4
Nov.	29.4	21.1	23.4	28.8	9.6	11.5	15.7	19.0	18.8
Membership of unions reporting in 1933	25,901	71,640	48,879	18,580	18,582	32,958	35,777	17,305	426,866[2]

[1] Including unions of workers in other manufacturing, railway and tramway service, shipping, agriculture, domestic service, hotels, etc. — [2] Fourth quarter 1934.

Austria. — *Employment Exchange Statistics: Applicants for Work Registered*

Date	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I
	Agriculture, etc.	Mining, including extraction of salt[1]	Metals, metal working, mechanical and electrical engineering[2]	Brick, pottery and glass	Building	Wood (including furniture)	Paper and printing	Textiles	Clothing
1927	1,221	1,804	27,275	3,861	26,828	8,653	2,783	5,668	13,740
1928	1,923	1,470	21,275	3,766	24,540	6,602	2,369	5,958	14,100
1929	3,125	1,347	26,273	6,986	42,853	8,603	3,754	8,929	13,404
1930	4,424	2,318	42,133	8,673	51,972	12,038	5,972	13,928	14,038
1931	6,531	4,429	56,468	11,707	63,098	17,195	8,532	15,704	17,924
1932	7,426	4,534	73,404	14,339	76,864	23,213	11,579	18,456	23,970
1933	7,504	4,267	76,453	14,729	76,197	26,260	12,671	19,550	24,749
1934	6,022	3,698	64,567	11,810	65,661	22,417	12,521	15,665	22,866
1934: Jan.	8,794	3,974	76,631	18,050	90,554	27,797	12,924	16,054	28,707
Feb.	8,733	4,355	76,041	17,360	88,552	27,286	12,950	16,016	27,195
March	8,179	4,113	70,476	15,374	79,596	25,384	12,470	16,252	20,697
April	6,882	3,950	67,592	12,303	65,616	23,751	12,280	15,979	19,530
May	5,586	4,083	64,971	9,933	56,605	21,894	12,497	15,579	20,098
June	4,556	3,776	63,205	8,523	54,357	20,795	12,297	15,900	24,676
July	4,082	3,546	60,626	8,100	51,771	20,157	12,210	16,062	25,572
Aug.	3,900	3,164	59,050	7,864	49,928	19,260	12,393	15,803	23,342
Sept.	4,146	3,036	57,484	8,040	50,004	19,045	12,307	15,070	20,458
Oct.	4,406	3,038	56,442	9,570	53,178	19,389	12,542	14,441	19,130
Nov.	5,894	3,401	59,220	11,817	67,464	20,644	12,400	14,714	21,085
Dec.	7,105	3,939	63,070	14,784	80,312	23,600	12,981	16,104	23,901

[1] 1927 and 1928: mining only. — [2] 1927 and 1928: excluding electrical engineering.

TABLE II. — UNEMPLOYMENT, BY INDUSTRIES *(continued)*

Austria. — *Employment Exchange Statistics: Applicants for Work Registered* (concluded)

Date	J	K	L	M	S	T	Z
	Skin, leather and rubber	Chemicals and rubber[1]	Food, drink and tobacco	Transport	Commerce, banking and insurance[2]	Hotels, domestic service, laundries, etc.[3]	All groups[4]
1927	1,701	1,586	6,170	2,236	17,448	11,403	200,112
1928	1,434	1,595	6,189	1,953	15,987	11,204	182,444
1929	1,809	2,220	7,158	4,585	6,438	13,628	192,062[5]
1930	2,487	2,996	8,469	6,343	7,281	15,018	242,612
1931	2,996	3,302	10,059	7,724	7,145	16,691	300,223
1932	3,678	3,807	12,720	10,556	9,350	20,444	377,894
1933	3,733	3,949	14,703	11,697	12,384	24,369	405,741
1934	3,534	3,756	13,708	11,424	13,287	25,545	370,210
1934: Jan.	3,963	4,120	15,711	13,399	13,214	28,330	440,345
Feb.	3,818	4,152	15,562	13,350	13,445	28,502	434,679
March	3,533	3,913	14,410	12,781	12,954	28,090	403,158
April	3,341	3,799	14,198	11,675	13,189	27,563	375,733
May	3,440	3,667	13,457	10,993	13,040	26,259	353,509
June	3,710	3,771	13,155	10,482	12,838	24,014	347,670
July	3,721	3,843	12,358	10,067	13,149	22,089	338,323
Aug.	3,513	3,544	12,471	9,890	13,222	21,124	328,915
Sept.	3,207	3,424	12,807	9,930	13,705	21,934	325,547
Oct.	3,192	3,367	12,760	10,016	13,695	25,060	331,994
Nov.	3,403	3,491	13,350	11,511	13,564	26,618	363,513
Dec.	3,567	3,977	14,251	12,994	13,428	26,952	399,138

[1] 1927 and 1928: chemicals and rubber, since 1929: chemicals including gum. — [2] 1927, 1928: commercial employees. — [3] 1927, 1928: hotels and domestic service only. — [4] Including certain minor categories of miscellaneous workers, not specified in the table above. — [5] This figure does not correspond to that indicated in table I as all the figures given in this series are taken from the *Statistisches Jahrbuch*, while the figures given in the table I are taken from *Statistische Nachrichten*.

Belgium. — *Voluntary Unemployment Insurance Statistics: Percentages of Wholly (Wh.) and Partially (Ptl.) Unemployed*

Date	B				C		D				E	
	Mining		Quarrying		Metals		Pottery, etc.		Glass		Building and construction	
	Wh.	Ptl.	Wh.	Ptl.	Wh.	Ptl.	Wh.	Ptl.	Wh.	Ptl.	Wh.	Ptl.
1927	0.1	3.5	1.5	3.7	1.7	3.1	3.7	3.0	3.0	1.6	5.2	2.6
1928	0.2	2.6	0.9	1.6	0.7	1.2	1.4	1.4	2.6	3.1	2.6	1.4
1929	0.0	0.2	1.2	1.7	0.7	1.7	1.0	0.8	3.2	0.7	4.8.	1.9
1930	0.3	1.2	1.5	5.8	2.9	6.8	7.8	6.0	8.7	5.7	6.2	1.8
1931	1.4	8.5	9.4	17.1	11.1	20.9	19.5	15.4	10.2	25.6	18.4	4.2
1932	5.4	29.7	20.2	35.5	20.0	22.7	29.0	16.4	16.8	34.3	26.3	6.0
1933	5.0	30.4	19.4	22.1	19.1	18.3	22.9	14.3	20.8	25.8	25.0	6.5
1934	7.4	27.3	16.7	21.3	19.7	17.3	25.7	15.9	25.2	21.4	29.6	8.1
1934: Jan.	6.5	25.0	21.3	35.2	21.6	18.4	32.5	18.7	24.3	22.7	38.7	10.5
Feb.	6.6	25.6	22.0	29.2	20.8	18.3	39.5	22.7	23.4	23.8	36.0	9.1
March	6.7	27.6	18.5	16.3	19.7	17.6	27.5	16.2	24.0	21.7	31.5	8.2
April	7.2	26.3	16.1	16.2	20.8	18.6	22.8	16.2	26.3	24.6	30.1	7.8
May	7.0	24.2	14.7	15.7	19.3	17.5	19.1	15.4	25.8	22.1	24.7	8.4
June	7.1	27.5	13.8	16.8	19.0	16.7	16.9	12.7	25.2	22.0	23.6	7.6
July	6.8	31.6	13.8	16.2	18.7	17.9	18.0	13.9	26.3	22.7	24.8	7.4
Aug.	7.3	31.5	13.8	15.0	18.5	17.2	17.9	13.7	26.9	20.9	23.0	7.1
Sept.	7.7	30.1	13.7	19.8	18.3	16.2	21.1	15.3	27.5	20.2	26.2	7.2
Oct.	8.5	31.1	15.4	21.8	18.5	15.7	27.9	14.8	23.7	18.1	27.5	7.6
Nov.	8.8	25.5	16.4	26.1	20.2	16.6	30.7	15.9	24.2	19.4	31.8	7.3
Dec.	8.8	21.5	20.9	26.7	21.4	16.7	34.7	15.7	24.7	18.5	37.7	9.0
Membership of funds reporting December 1934	87,305		31,302		215,438		18,241		17,977		121,362	

TABLE II. — UNEMPLOYMENT, BY INDUSTRIES *(continued)*

Belgium. — *Voluntary Unemployment Insurance Statistics: Percentages of Wholly (Wh.) and Partially (Ptl.) Unemployed* (concluded)

Date	F		G				H		I		J	
	Wood (incl. furniture)		Paper		Printing		Textiles		Clothing		Leather and skins	
	Wh.	Ptl.	Wh.	Ptl.	Wh.	Ptl.	Wh.	Ptl.	Wh.	Ptl.	Wh.	Ptl.
1927	3.3	1.3	0.3	5.1	5.5	2.5	0.8	5.4	1.7	2.4	1.9	6.9
1928	1.1	1.0	0.1	3.7	2.0	1.3	0.7	7.3	1.0	2.7	1.3	10.0
1929	1.2	0.5	0.1	4.1	1.1	0.4	0.8	5.8	1.1	2.9	1.2	8.5
1930	5.3	2.9	0.6	10.4	1.6	0.7	2.7	16.0	2.8	4.5	2.3	13.8
1931	16.8	7.0	3.6	25.3	6.5	3.1	9.2	26.1	7.7	9.2	7.3	29.3
1932	25.3	9.9	10.6	42.6	12.0	6.4	19.1	28.9	13.4	14.2	15.5	29.9
1933	23.8	9.4	9.5	32.7	12.5	6.0	15.9	24.7	13.6	12.4	12.9	25.5
1934	26.6	11.5	13.2	30.3	12.5	8.2	17.7	26.6	17.1	16.5	14.8	27.8
1934: Jan.	34.0	13.3	16.8	25.2	11.1	7.5	18.5	30.5	19.6	20.0	15.3	29.0
Feb.	30.5	11.2	13.9	30.0	12.0	6.4	16.6	30.0	18.8	15.1	12.9	26.9
March	27.5	11.4	12.7	26.4	11.1	6.4	15.6	23.5	15.0	12.5	12.0	25.6
April	28.5	10.8	12.8	32.6	11.9	9.9	16.9	27.5	14.8	12.6	12.9	26.7
May	24.1	9.6	13.2	35.1	13.0	8.5	14.8	27.0	13.4	12.5	12.2	11.3
June	23.3	10.9	12.2	33.1	12.2	9.4	15.0	26.1	14.2	15.4	13.3	30.3
July	24.2	11.1	13.1	34.7	13.9	10.3	15.1	28.9	18.6	18.4	16.8	37.6
Aug.	23.4	11.0	9.7	32.5	14.4	7.2	15.5	28.2	18.5	18.1	14.5	36.3
Sept.	23.7	11.2	13.9	27.5	13.5	6.7	18.8	24.2	15.6	16.5	13.3	29.4
Oct.	21.1	11.7	14.1	27.7	9.9	11.4	16.1	22.3	14.5	14.9	14.6	24.3
Nov.	27.5	11.9	12.9	24.3	13.4	6.3	18.0	22.3	18.7	17.4	17.9	24.9
Dec,	30.8	14.1	12.9	34.0	13.8	8.5	19.4	29.0	23.8	24.5	21.3	31.4
Membership of funds reporting December 1934	41,109		5,296		13,381		149,272		6,431		16,382	

Date	K		L				M		Z	
	Chemicals		Food		Tobacco		Transport		All groups[1]	
	Wh.	Ptl.	Wh.	Ptl	Wh.	Ptl.	Wh.	Ptl.	Wh.	Ptl.
1927	3.0	17.7	1.0	1.8	5.8	4.7	0.9	13.2	1.8	3.9
1928	1.7	13.7	0.6	1.1	3.0	4.1	0.7	12.2	0.9	3.5
1929	0.7	5.1	0.8	1.1	2.0	2.4	0.4	14.6	1.3	3.0
1930	1.3	10.9	1.5	2.0	3.5	6.8	2.1	28.2	3.6	7.9
1931	9.3	15.5	4.8	4.6	6.4	18.8	10.4	36.9	10.9	16.9
1932	16.7	22.4	8.3	8.6	13.1	27.7	31.1	29.9	19.0	20.7
1933	16.7	20.9	8.2	8.7	11.6	23.0	18.2	15.9	17.0	17.2
1934	19.3	19.4	9.2	10.5	13.8	21.6	19.3	20.3	19.0	17.2
1934: Jan.	21.4	10.2	8.6	9.2	13.6	25.0	19.9	18.9	21.5	18.9
Feb.	19.3	8.4	8.8	8.8	12.0	25.3	18.7	20.6	20.3	18.6
March.	18.9	22.6	8.7	14.6	13.4	25.0	19.7	20.0	18.8	16.7
April	22.2	37.9	9.5	11.1	17.9	24.3	20.8	19.9	19.4	17.6
May	14.8	27.0	13.4	12.5	13.3	25.7	19.9	19.6	17.5	16.7
June	19.3	26.8	8.6	11.5	12.8	22.5	18.3	19.8	17.1	16.9
July	18.6	26.2	8.6	12.3	13.3	20.8	19.2	22.7	17.4	18 2
Aug.	17.4	20.3	5.7	10.9	12.8	19.2	17.7	20.4	17.1	17.5
Sept.	17.8	10.5	8.6	10.0	12.6	13.3	16.7	18.4	17.9	16.2
Oct.	19.1	9.3	9.3	8.9	12.8	16.7	17.0	18.7	18.0	15.9
Nov.	18.8	10.5	9.7	7.3	16.1	18.8	20.5	20.5	20.2	15.7
Dec.	24.1	23.3	10.9	9.4	15.3	22.8	23.4	24.0	22.2	17.5
Membership of funds reporting December 1934	5.242		22.125		6.919		46.271		955.464	

[1] Including other trades.

TABLE II. — UNEMPLOYMENT, BY INDUSTRIES *(continued)*

Canada. — *Trade Union Statistics: Percentages of Unemployed*

Date	B	C		D	E	F		G		H	I
	Mining	Iron and its products	Non-ferrous metals	Clay, glass and stone products	Building and construction	Lumbering, logging	Wood products	Pulp and paper products	Printing, publishing, lithographing	Fibres, textile and textile products	Garments
1927	4.2	5.7	5.0	25.4	13.4	0.1	12.7	3.1	3.3	9.3	9.9
1928	4.7	4.0	1.5	19.1	10.9	5.4	13.2	3.0	2.7	7.8	8.0
1929	4.4	4.4	2.8	23.2	13.2	4.2	8.8	2.8	2.6	13.1	13.9
1930	7.2	7.0	14.8	30.7	30.5	16.5	16.9	7.5	5.4	17.2	16.7
1931	11.1	13.4	33.0	32.8	45.4	31.3	37.2	12.9	8.9	24.1	24.7
1932	11.2	24.2	22.0	29.9	62.1	36.0	45.6	14.9	13.7	30.0	29.1
1933	15.0	29.4	21.8	31.1	66.7	25.3	29.8	15.5	15.1	17.5	16.5
1934	12.9	20.3	21.5	24.6	61.2	25.7	23.2	10.3	11.3	15.7	15.6
1934: Jan.	7.8	24.5	43.3	45.4	69.2	21.8	19.3	13.3	13.2	13.6	8.9
Feb.	8.2	22.9	36.7	44.5	69.2	19.8	13.8	13.3	13.6	15.9	10.2
March	14.4	21.3	30.0	21.9	69.6	9.1	15.9	11.1	12.0	7.6	5.0
April	19.3	19.5	33.3	10.2	61.3	29.9	21.4	10.4	11.8	11.2	11.4
May	21.1	19.2	33.3	6.9	63.7	6.1	18.4	7.2	10.3	9.0	8.8
June	20.9	18.6	20.0	15.6	57.8	3.0	17.6	8.3	11.6	18.1	21.2
July	20.0	19.8	12.3	4.8	57.0	2.4	21.1	9.2	11.2	25.8	28.3
Aug.	14.1	18.0	3.0	36.6	57.3	37.0	29.2	10.8	10.5	5.2	4.3
Sept.	11.7	19.4	5.6	42.2	53.9	44.7	23.1	10.4	10.3	15.9	20.5
Oct.	6.1	20.0	9.6	46.6	55.1	45.6	23.1	11.6	10.3	16.6	18.0
Nov.	6.2	20.2	15.8	9.5	61.6	38.8	33.0	8.4	10.4	25.2	27.2
Dec.	4.7	19.6	15.3	11.5	58.6	50.6	42.0	9.3	10.4	24.4	23.2
Membership of unions reporting December 1934	*	*	*	*	17,212	*	*	*	*	*	*

Date	L		M		N	P	S	T	Y	Z
	Vegetable products	Animal products	Transport	Steam railway	Shipping, stevedoring	Telegraph	Trade (retail shop clerks)	Services	Manufacturing industries	All groups[1]
1927	6.4	10.9	2.9	2.7	23.3	0.2	0.2	2.1	6.6	4.9
1928	6.3	10.2	2.6	2.1	25.2	0.2	0.8	2.4	5.5	4.5
1929	3.4	9.7	3.9	3.8	19.0	0.3	2.5	2.8	6.3	5.7
1930	6.1	16.9	6.9	7.5	23.9	2.9	0.1	5.6	10.3	11.1
1931	9.3	13.6	10.5	11.7	29.8	7.5	2.2	8.9	16.1	16.8
1932	11.7	18.9	12.9	14.6	36.1	11.7	2.3	11.6	23.2	22.0
1933	12.9	26.6	13.2	14.8	34.6	13.1	1.5	10.9	24.4	22.3
1934	8.1	13.6	10.5	10.4	47.5	12.5	6.9	7.3	17.3	18.2
1934: Jan.	13.4	34.9	13.8	13.3	59.3	13.7	0.0	8.2	21.9	21.2
Feb.	13.1	24.1	12.5	12.7	46.7	13.1	5.1	9.1	19.7	20.0
March	6.8	15.9	12.6	13.3	39.6	13.6	6.8	7.6	16.6	19.5
April	7.2	11.2	11.4	11.9	40.4	13.5	6.8	6.3	16.4	19.1
May	9.5	11.1	9.9	9.9	37.6	12.1	6.6	6.3	15.6	18.5
June	6.0	9.8	9.3	9.1	43.0	12.6	6.2	7.1	17.2	18.0
July	6.6	9.5	8.2	8.0	40.1	11.6	6.3	8.1	18.1	17.9
Aug.	6.9	8.7	9.2	8.6	44.9	11.6	8.2	7.7	13.6	16.5
Sept.	7.3	8.9	8.1	7.8	46.8	12.2	11.9	6.7	16.0	16.4
Oct.	7.1	9.1	9.1	9.1	42.4	12.1	11.0	6.5	16.7	16.2
Nov.	5.9	9.2	10.4	10.0	54.3	12.1	5.9	5.9	18.0	17.5
Dec.	7.9	10.2	11.3	10.9	74.3	11.8	7.8	7.8	17.8	18.0
Membership of unions reporting December 1934	*	*	54,112	*	*	*	*	2,409	49,416	161,618

[1] Including a certain number of industries not included in this table.

TABLE II. — UNEMPLOYMENT, BY INDUSTRIES *(continued)*

Denmark. — *Trade Union Fund Returns: 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 . . .	20.5	24.4	15.0	26.6[2]	35.3	29.0	23.3	36.0	5.1	14.1
1928 . . .	17.1	19.3	9.8	19.5	24.3	25.0	20.2	27.8	3.1	12.1
1929 . . .	16.2	14.1	6.4	19.7	19.9	21.4	16.4	20.9	2.4	11.9
1930 . . .	13.7	13.0	6.5	13.1	13.1	18.2	14.4	14.7	1.5	10.4
1931 . . .	19.6	21.6	9.9	18.5	20.8	21.8	16.5	18.7	1.8	11.0
1932 . . .	44.2	38.0	19.8	48.5	47.1	38.6	32.4	43.8	2.7	17.0
1933 . . .	39.6	34.0	10.2	31.1	34.2	34.5	28.5	35.5	2.9	17.6
1934 . . .	27.3[1]	22.8	5.7	17.7	20.6	23.5	18.6	20.8	2.6	14.7
1934: Jan.	44.1	33.1	10.7	45.5	47.3	64.9	26.7	36.1	2.8	15.6
Feb.	41.4	30.8	8.5	32.6	38.7	53.1	20.7	30.1	2.6	17.1
March	35.8	28.1	6.8	29.0	29.8	24.5	17.4	24.7	2.2	17.7
April	29.4	23.0	5.1	13.0	16.2	2.5	14.2	21.3	2.1	15.6
May	13.8	20.0	3.8	5.4	9.0	4.4	11.5	21.4	2.0	14.2
June	14.2	18.0	3.6	2.2	5.8	7.7	11.2	20.3	1.8	13.0
July	16.1	18.6	4.7	1.5	5.0	6.7	10.9	18.2	1.9	13.1
Aug.	16.5	18.2	3.8	4.1	7.6	8.8	13.7	12.2	1.7	16.4
Sept.	21.3	18.5	3.4	8.0	8.8	5.4	15.4	6.5	2.3	14.4
Oct.	*	19.6	3.5	14.2	17.3	10.3	19.5	10.5	4.4	14.6
Nov.	30.6	21.0	3.6	21.9	25.0	37.2	21.8	17.2	3.7	10.1
Dec.	37.0	25.0	10.6	34.9	36.6	56.1	40.6	31.4	3.3	14.3
Membership of funds reporting December 1934	27,835	32,339	1,542	9,406	8,826	7,024	5,045	9,566	1,591	6,392

Date	H	I		L		N	S	Z
	Textile workers	Tailors	Shoemakers	Bakers and confectioners	Tobacco workers	Seamen	Commercial workers	All groups[4]
1927	21.4	19.5	24.5	28.4	23.7	20.6	13.0	22.5
1928	18.5	15.7	24.2	28.0	23.1	17.9	11.5	18.5
1929	11.1	12.4	20.9	25.9	12.9	13.3	10.0	15.5
1930	12.0	10.6	15.9	24.5	11.5	14.7	7.8	13.7
1931	11.1	11.3	18.3	23.0	20.0[3]	23.0	8.0	17.9
1932	10.6	19.0	24.8	31.0	28.6[3]	32.9	13.7	31.7
1933	7.4	14.6	18.6	37.1	27.4[3]	31.9	13.6	28.8
1934	8.3	12.3	16.7	32.0	22.7	30.2	9.9	22.1
1934: Jan. .	10.2	20.0	19.9	38.1	24.1	36.1	12.1	34.4
Feb. .	8.3	15.3	19.3	38.3	22.9	35.3	12.3	31.3
March .	6.8	9.5	20.4	37.0	26.8	34.2	12.4	28.4
April .	6.2	6.4	19.7	37.2	21.7	37.1	11.8	21.6
May .	5.9	6.5	20.4	33.2	18.9	30.3	9.8	16.8
June .	8.3	10.5	18.1	26.7	16.6	25.2	8.9	15.5
July .	8.6	14.0	16.1	22.7	17.5	24.3	8.6	15.3
Aug. .	5.2	13.2	12.6	27.5	14.5	24.2	8.6	15.5
Sept. .	5.2	10.7	11.7	28.1	13.1	25.4	8.7	16.4
Oct. .	7.3	9.2	11.3	31.8	13.7	28.3	9.2	18.2
Nov. .	8.5	13.3	14.1	30.8	15.3	30.1	8.6	22.3
Dec. .	18.8	18.9	16.3	32.6	67.8	32.0	8.1	30.3
Membership of funds reporting December 1934	13,380	12,110	4,825	5,084	8,607	4,428	21,878	377,446

[1] Eleven months' average (January to September and November, December). — [2] Nine months' average (January and May to December). — [3] Figure somewhat too high owing to the closing of fabrics at the end of year. — [4] Including general labourers and other occupations.

TABLE II. — UNEMPLOYMENT, BY INDUSTRIES *(continued)*

United States. — *Trade Unions Statistics: Percentages Wholly Unemployed* [1]

Date	C Metal	E Building	G Printing	Y Miscellaneous industries	Z All groups
1928	11	27	5	9	13
1929	7	25	4	8	12
1930	20	40	7	14	21
1931	30	52	13	17	26
1932	42	64	19	20	32
1933	43	67	20	20	31
1934	27	57	18	18	26
1934: Jan.	35	58	19	19	28
Feb.	34	55	19	17	26
March	30	55	18	16	25
April	28	58	18	16	24
May	25	57	17	16	24
June	22	55	17	19	25
July	24	57	17	22	28
Aug.	25	60	18	22	28
Sept.	25	58	17	17	25
Oct.	27	56	17	16	24
Nov.	27	56	17	19	25
Dec.	26	57	16	21	27

[1] Unemployed occupied on public and civil works excluded.

Great Britain and Northern Ireland. — *Compulsory Unemployment Insurance Statistics: Percentages of Wholly Unemployed (including Casuals) and Unemployed owing to Temporary Stoppages*

Date	B Coal mining	C Steel melting and iron puddling, iron and steel rolling and forging	C General engineering, engineers' iron and steel founding	C Motor vehicles, cycles and aircraft (construction and repair)	C Ship building and repairing	C Electric cables, apparatus, lamps, etc.	D Brick, tile, etc., making	E Building	E Public works contracting, ing, etc.
1927	18.2	18.5	10.5	7.4	25.1	6.8	7.3	10.2	17.7
1928	22.2	21.5	9.9	7.6	26.7	5.5	12.1	12.4	20.5
1929	16.2	19.8	9.7	7.0	24.2	5.1	11.3	13.3	22.6
1930	20.5	34.0	17.2	13.1	32.7	8.8	14.1	16.4	27.0
1931	28.2	46.0	27.6	20.4	55.4	14.1	18.4	22.5	31.5
1932	34.0	47.8	29.1	20.5	61.7	12.9	22.7	29.2	39.7
1933	32.9	38.0	25.1	15.6	59.3	13.7	18.2	24.1	44.9
1934	28.2	25.8	16.0	9.8	49.1	9.3	12.9	18.7	45.7
1934: Jan.	25.6	29.7	20.2	11.0	54.7	12.2	15.8	26.2	48.4
Feb.	25.9	29.0	19.3	10.4	54.0	12.6	15.0	23.2	47.0
March	25.5	27.0	18.2	9.5	53.0	12.1	14.3	20.3	45.9
April	26.8	26.4	16.9	8.7	49.7	10.6	13.2	17.2	44.3
May	28.6	26.0	16.2	8.7	47.6	10.3	12.5	15.5	42.8
June	36.5	24.1	15.1	9.6	49.1	8.6	10.7	14.9	43.6
July	33.8	24.9	14.5	10.6	47.7	7.7	10.8	16.3	44.9
Aug.	31.3	26.8	14.6	11.5	46.3	7.1	11.1	15.8	44.7
Sept.	26.4	25.0	14.5	11.3	46.6	7.0	11.5	16.8	45.6
Oct.	28.6	23.6	14.3	9.5	47.5	7.3	12.8	17.8	46.4
Nov.	25.6	23.6	14.1	8.7	46.5	8.0	13.9	19.8	47.4
Dec.	23.2	23.7	13.7	8.1	46.0	8.0	13.7	21.0	47.4
Numbers insured July 1934	981,520	168,040	522,620	271,530	158,790	133,280	95,610	928,250	271,690

TABLE II. — UNEMPLOYMENT, BY INDUSTRIES *(continued)*

Great Britain and Northern Ireland. — *Compulsory Unemployment Insurance Statistics: Percentages of Wholly Unemployed (including Casuals) and Unemployed owing to Temporary Stoppages* (continued)

Date	F	G		H				I	
	Furniture making, upholstering, etc.	Paper, paperboard	Printing, publishing, bookbinding	Cotton trade	Woollen and worsted	Hosiery	Textile bleaching, printing, dyeing, etc.	Tailoring	Dressmaking and millinery
1927	5.4	5.7	4.7	9.0	8.9	6.4	12.9	7.0	4.7
1928	5.4	4.5	4.3	12.0	11.7	5.8	13.7	7.9	4.8
1929	6.1	4.4	4.4	13.2	13.9	6.2	17.4	8.2	4.9
1930	10.8	8.6	6.7	37.1	24.0	15.2	31.2	12.2	6.3
1931	18.0	13.7	10.3	38.4	28.3	18.6	35.7	15.5	9.2
1932	20.2	11.9	10.7	28.7	20.8	12.5	27.9	16.0	9.5
1933	17.9	9.2	9.9	24.2	14.2	11.6	24.3	14.6	8.8
1934	13.6	7.2	8.7	22.7	16.0	11.1	22.1	13.5	7.0
1934: Jan. . .	17.4	7.9	10.2	21.8	11.2	9.3	22.0	16.6	10.9
Feb. . .	16.8	7.4	9.9	21.9	10.9	9.9	21.9	12.9	8.4
March. .	15.3	7.4	9.1	21.1	11.3	10.7	22.2	9.6	5.8
April . .	14.2	7.4	9.0	22.1	14.1	12.1	22.5	8.3	4.8
May . .	13.6	7.3	8.6	21.0	15.8	12.1	21.7	6.8	4.0
June . .	13.1	7.5	8.2	23.1	21.3	11.7	21.9	11.3	4.9
July . .	13.4	7.1	8.2	25.6	24.3	12.4	22.9	16.0	6.8
Aug. . .	13.3	7.5	8.2	26.0	23.6	14.1	22.9	17.3	8.5
Sept. . .	11.9	7.1	8.2	24.3	17.6	11.6	22.6	17.1	6.6
Oct. . .	11.3	6.9	8.6	23.4	14.4	9.5	21.5	14.2	6.0
Nov. . .	11.3	6.9	8.5	21.7	13.2	8.4	21.6	16.1	8.9
Dec. . .	11.7	6.2	8.0	20.5	13.9	11.8	20.9	15.8	8.3
Numbers insured July 1934	135,960	60,930	279,730	467,440	229,590	117,470	109,530	208,900	102,790

Date	J		K	L		M			N
	Boots, shoes, slippers, clogs	Leather tanning, currying, dressing	Chemicals	Bread, biscuits, cakes, etc.	Drink trades	Railway service[1]	Tramways and omnibuses	Other road transport	Dock, harbour, river and canal service
1927	8.5	7.3	6.5	6.7	6.0	5.1	3.5	11.4	23.4
1928	13.1	7.3	6.0	6.8	6.2	6.4	3.1	11.7	30.5
1929	13.1	10.7	6.4	7.2	6.8	5.8	3.2	12.1	30.7
1930	16.5	13.8	12.2	10.1	9.7	8.5	4.2	16.0	35.5
1931	19.3	18.0	18.2	12.7	13.4	12.3	5.4	19.6	39.6
1932	20.9	16.9	16.8	12.0	14.4	16.6	6.2	22.5	35.0
1933	17.3	13.9	14.1	11.7	12.5	16.2	6.2	22.1	33.3
1934	18.5	13.2	10.7	10.8	10.6	11.5	5.5	19.5	31.5
1934: Jan. . .	19.4	14.0	12.3	12.2	11.8	15.5	6.7	21.9	32.5
Feb. . .	16.9	13.8	11.9	12.0	12.0	14.7	6.7	21.5	35.0
March. .	16.7	14.0	11.5	11.8	11.7	13.6	6.5	21.0	33.7
April . .	16.5	14.6	11.0	11.3	10.8	12.2	6.0	20.1	33.2
May . .	16.8	14.8	10.8	10.9	10.6	11.4	5.6	19.3	34.5
June . .	19.4	13.0	10.4	9.9	10.1	9.6	4.6	17.8	30.0
July . .	23.3	13.1	10.3	9.2	9.9	9.1	4.4	18.2	29.7
Aug. . .	25.5	13.5	10.1	9.3	10.1	9.1	4.2	18.1	30.1
Sept. . .	17.7	11.7	10.1	10.2	10.4	9.4	4.5	18.5	29.8
Oct. . .	16.0	10.8	9.9	10.9	10.3	10.8	5.4	19.4	30.9
Nov. . .	15.3	12.0	10.1	11.0	10.3	11.2	5.7	19.6	29.0
Dec. . .	18.2	13.4	10.0	10.4	9.5	10.8	5.6	19.1	29.0
Numbers insured July 1934	139,390	46,520	105,010	166,980	110,200	134,020	182,600	213,830	164,540

[1] Mostly non-permanent staff.

TABLE II. — UNEMPLOYMENT, BY INDUSTRIES *(continued)*

Great Britain and Northern Ireland. — *Compulsory Unemployment Insurance Statistics: Insured and Percentages of Wholly Unemployed (including Casuals) and Unemployed owing to Temporary Stoppages* (concluded)

Date	N	O	R		S		T		U	V	Z
	Shipping service	Gas, water, electricity supply	Local government	National Government service	Commerce, banking, insurance, finance	Distributive trades	Hotels, etc., boarding house, club, services	Laundries, dyeing and dry-cleaning	Entertainments, sports	Professional services	All groups [1]
1927	15.8	5.2	8.0	5.9	2.4	5.3	8.0	3.9	9.0	2.7	9.7
1928	16.2	5.9	8.9	6.1	2.3	5.7	8.1	4.0	9.4	2.7	10.8
1929	17.7	6.0	9.6	6.9	2.7	6.2	9.1	4.3	11.4	3.2	10.4
1930	25.0	7.6	11.8	8.8	3.7	9.0	14.0	7.3	17.2	4.3	16.0
1931	33.4	9.1	14.7	10.7	5.5	12.0	18.8	10.2	22.7	5.9	21.3
1932	34.4	11.0	18.7	12.5	5.8	12.4	17.6	9.3	20.9	6.4	22.1
1933	33.6	10.7	19.6	13.4	5.0	12.1	17.0	8.8	20.8	6.0	19.9
1934	30.9	9.9	20.2	14.2	4.6	11.1	15.8	7.7	20.2	5.2	16.8
1934: Jan.	34.1	10.5	21.8	15.6	4.8	12.4	18.4	9.0	21.7	5.8	18.6
Feb.	32.1	10.4	21.7	15.3	4.9	12.4	18.1	8.9	21.8	5.7	18.1
March	30.9	10.1	21.2	14.9	4.8	11.9	17.1	8.1	20.9	5.6	17.2
April	31.2	9.9	20.0	14.1	4.7	11.2	15.7	7.6	19.7	5.3	16.6
May	31.0	9.4	19.0	13.2	4.6	10.8	14.8	7.2	19.7	5.0	16.2
June	29.6	8.6	17.7	12.8	4.2	10.2	12.6	6.6	19.0	4.7	16.4
July	27.9	9.6	18.7	13.4	4.2	10.1	11.9	6.3	19.1	4.6	16.7
Aug.	27.0	9.8	19.1	13.2	4.2	10.3	11.7	6.7	18.1	4.9	16.5
Sept.	28.1	10.0	20.0	13.8	4.4	10.9	14.3	7.3	19.0	5.0	16.1
Oct.	31.9	9.9	20.7	14.7	4.6	11.3	17.9	7.9	20.8	5.2	16.4
Nov.	33.6	10.2	21.5	15.3	4.8	11.2	19.1	8.7	21.9	5.3	16.4
Dec.	33.1	10.0	21.4	14.6	4.7	10.6	17.8	8.0	21.0	5.2	16.1
Numbers insured July 1934	150,420	194,600	358,110	111,630	256,960	2,005,340	410,040	152,390	113,380	148,120	12,960,000

[1] This column relates to all trades insured; the rest of the table relates to selected trades only.

Italy. — *Social Insurance Fund Statistics: Wholly Unemployed* [1]

Date	A	B	C	E	H, I	K	L	O, Q	R	Z
	Agriculture, etc.	Mining and quarrying	Metals, metal working, mechanical engineering	Building and constructive works	Textiles and clothing	Chemicals	Food	Public utilities	Public services	All groups [2]
1927	75,640	5,456	26,356	68,189	42,294	4,017	25,949	13,652	4,968	278,484
1928	80,338	10,278	30,246	91,921	39,833	4,318	32,622	14,782	5,346	324,422
1929	89,466	8,507	22,756	77,366	40,763	3,887	24,130	16,176	5,449	300,786
1930	103,450	11,556	32,641	110,363	67,782	5,926	39,140	29,462	7,482	425,437
1931	165,782	20,487	65,476	216,609	99,635	11,353	65,599	42,966	14,129	734,454
1932	201,914	30,225	94,639	295,785	145,726	15,245	97,807	52,582	21,945	1,006,442

Date [3]	A	B	C	E	F	G	H, I	K, D
	Agriculture	Mining	Iron and steel, metallurgy, and engineering	Building and construction	Wood	Paper and printing	Textiles and clothing	Chemical products and glass
1933 [4]	200,554	29,332	104,349	275,690	48,483	12,230	119,715	24,922
1934	189,685	30,977	107,937	302,018	51,117	12,018	91,618	22,302
1934: Jan.	333,081	32,799	111,006	349,529	52,191	12,134	94,511	22,385
Feb.	282,130	32,828	111,737	340,382	52,968	12,223	95,386	22,295
March	244,703	32,497	110,857	338,414	52,673	12,221	93,170	21,810
April	210,337	31,339	109,359	315,521	53,340	12,097	91,524	22,369
May	157,949	30,756	108,602	309,607	52,959	12,014	92,590	22,119
June	88,212	30,029	106,508	276,415	51,133	11,465	91,634	21,613
July	144,686	28,719	107,848	275,610	51,269	11,717	93,782	22,996
Aug.	138,649	28,736	107,089	262,883	50,895	12,182	92,300	22,180
Sept.	140,060	29,423	106,946	274,168	49,649	12,533	89,233	23,740
Oct.	139,309	29,820	107,526	287,188	48,879	12,712	88,743	23,447
Nov.	185,781	32,638	108,898	299,285	49,915	12,740	90,260	22,242
Dec.	211,320	32,136	98,869	295,210	47,530	10,177	86,285	20,423.

For footnotes, see p. 18.

TABLE II. — UNEMPLOYMENT, BY INDUSTRIES *(continued)*

Italy. — *Social Insurance Fund Statistics: Wholly Unemployed* [1] (concluded)

Date [3]	L Food	M Private transport undertakings	O Water, gas, electricity	Q Public services	S Commercial undertakings	U Entertainments	Z All groups
1933 [4]	19,814	25,748	9,199	29,166	52,756	13,716	965,673
1934	18,921	26,536	10,050	25,469	56,085	18,795	963,677
1934: Jan.	18,553	28,084	10,226	26,439	51,766	15,714	1,158,418
Feb.	18,521	28,290	10,321	26,488	53,136	16,845	1,103,550
March	18,878	26,151	10,244	24,244	53,628	17,333	1,056,823
April	19,320	25,432	10,240	23,745	53,358	17,567	995,548
May	19,632	25,899	10,390	24,978	55,339	18,423	941,257
June	18,848	26,764	10,133	24,196	55,077	18,829	830,856
July	17,947	25,859	10,313	21,127	55,140	19,985	886,998
Aug.	17,592	25,302	10,185	20,839	57,885	19,853	866,570
Sept.	18,581	26,031	10,072	27,162	56,892	21,055	887,345
Oct.	19,430	26,678	9,896	30,116	60,915	20,455	905,114
Nov.	20,289	27,555	10,010	30,186	60,044	20,101	969,944
Dec.	19,464	26,391	8,573	26,102	59,842	19,380	961,705

[1] Since July 1933 employment exchange statistics. — [2] Including non-manual and unspecified workers. — [3] By order of the Ministry of Corporations, from April 1933 onwards, the unemployed have been classified in 14 branches of activity corresponding to their organisation in trade unions, in accordance with the rules of the various Confederations of workers. — [4] Nine months' average (April-December).

Norway. — *Trade Union Fund Returns: Percentages of Unemployed*

Date	C Iron and metal workers	E Masons	E Building workers	F Chippermen	G Setters	J Shoemakers	L Cake bakers, bakers	Z All groups
1927	25.2	24.7	32.3	35.2	13.1	18.1	20.1	25.4
1928	16.2	21.8	27.4	27.3	11.5	11.6	18.5	19.2
1929	10.3	14.8	23.6	25.2	10.4	10.8	16.5	15.4
1930	13.6	15.4	23.8	25.7	9.9	9.1	16.4	16.6
1931	20.1	—	30.4	32.7	9.6	12.6	17.8	22.3
1932	30.3	25.9	37.4	51.4	12.4	18.0	21.2	30.8
1933	29.7	37.2	45.9	56.8	13.1	11.6	24.4	33.4
1934	28.7	32.6	41.0	50.4	10.8	11.2	25.1	30.7
1934: Jan.	33.9	50.2	60.2	65.4	14.7	12.5	27.6	40.6
Feb.	33.4	48.3	57.4	56.1	13.2	12.4	28.8	38.5
March	31.4	42.8	53.9	54.6	13.0	14.0	28.1	36.6
April	28.1	37.1	48.9	57.0	11.8	11.5	28.2	33.4
May	27.0	25.1	37.8	51.2	10.2	11.2	25.1	28.7
June	25.7	26.3	30.2	38.6	8.2	15.3	21.0	27.2
July	26.1	18.3	27.4	45.6	7.9	13.5	20.4	24.7
Aug.	26.5	19.0	27.4	43.6	9.8	10.4	22.1	24.6
Sept.	25.7	25.7	30.5	41.5	10.3	9.3	23.0	25.6
Oct.	27.4	30.0	34.4	45.5	9.9	8.1	24.8	27.1
Nov.	29.5	29.1	38.9	49.0	8.9	8.6	25.7	29.1
Dec.	29.1	39.1	44.9	56.4	11.9	8.0	26.7	32.8

TABLE II. — UNEMPLOYMENT, BY INDUSTRIES *(continued)*

New Zealand. — *Employment Exchange Statistics: Applicants for Work Registered* [1]

Date	A	C	E	M	S	T	Z
	Farm hands	Engineering	Building	Drivers	Clerks, salesmen and shop assistants	Hotels and restaurants	All groups [2] [3]
1931 . . .	2,086	1,764	4,863	1,776	1,984	736	42,877
1932 . . .	2,766	2,093	6,540	2,300	2,436	803	51,875
1933 . . .	2,975	1,803	6,159	2,468	2,748	885	52,997
1934 . . .	2,473	1,243	4,973	2,119	3,058	896	46,758
1934: March	2,229	1,317	5,053	2,110	2,819	854	44,893
June	2,630	1,230	5,125	2,139	3,042	878	46,675
Sept.	2,730	1,265	5,214	2,218	3,269	947	50,449
Déc.	2,303	1,160	4,498	2,007	3,103	903	45,014

[1] Including persons receiving partial employment under Unemployment Board's schemes for relief. — [2] Including other skilled tradesmen, storemen and packers, labourers and quarrymen, and others; but excluding returns where details as to occupation are missing. — [3] These figures do not correspond to those given in table I owing to the fact that they refer to a different date.

Netherlands. — *Voluntary Unemployment Insurance Statistics: 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 . .	10.2	0.1	7.1	7.5	24.9	17.6	9.1	6.3
1928 . .	8.6	0.2	4.3	7.2	16.2	13.1	6.8	4.8
1929 . .	11.9	0.2	3.7	8.9	25.6	14.7	5.9	3.5
1930 . .	10.3	0.3	8.8	9.1	79.1	14.1	9.2	3.1
1931 . .	33.1 [2]	2.9	25.5	33.0	83.5	21.4	21.1	5.9
1932 . .	37.9 [2]	26.4	39.9	36.2	87.0	40.8	38.2	13.5
1933 . .	36.9 [3]	37.3	38.8	34.0 [5]	75.4	40.2	40.4	16.5
1934 . .	30.7 [4]	52.3	40.0	35.2	68.3	39.3	41.1	16.9
1934: Jan.	63.5	49.4	38.7	54.5	80.8	56.7	46.0	15.7
Feb.	23.1	50.0	38.3	44.1	77.7	46.3	43.4	16.0
March	15.2	50.4	40.1	42.2	61.3	35.1	39.1	15.9
April	10.8	49.8	39.6	29.9	65.8	30.3	35.1	16.6
May	*	56.0	39.8	22.5	68.8	29.1	34.4	16.6
June	*	54.2	39.0	18.1	67.6	30.4	35.7	17.1
July	*	50.6	39.3	19.2	65.5	34.6	39.7	17.3
Aug.	*	61.3	39.9	21.1	63.8	35.3	41.2	18.1
Sept.	*	45.9	40.1	35.6	60.2	36.6	41.5	17.9
Oct.	*	56.4	40.2	37.0	63.2	40.0	42.0	17.9
Nov.	*	52.1	40.9	37.3	68.1	45.6	44.3	16.8
Dec.	41.0	52.0	44.5	60.7	77.2	52.0	51.3	16.3
Membership of funds reporting Dec. 1934	80,480	15,565	74,431	10,032	5,014	84,425	16,388	21,569

[1] Including a certain number of trade union members not insured in the unemployment funds. — [2] Figures relating to five winter months. — [3] Six months' average (January to April, July and December). — [4] Five months' average (January to April and December). — [5] Ten months' average (January to April, July to December).

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TABLE II. — UNEMPLOYMENT, BY INDUSTRIES *(continued)*

Netherlands. — *Voluntary Unemployment Insurance Statistics: Percentages Unemployed* [1] (concluded)

Date	H Textiles	I Clothing	J Leather	L Food, drink, tobacco	M, N Transport	S Commerce	Z All groups [2]
1927	2.8	13.5	6.4	9.8	7.2	5.0	9.0
1928	2.5	12.8	3.5	7.1	6.5	3.9	6.9
1929	3.2	11.3	2.7	5.0	7.5	3.1	7.5
1930	11.5	9.2	4.0	6.1	7.5	3.4	9.7
1931	22.7	12.7	15.3	10.4	17.2	4.8	18.7
1932	33.8	17.0	17.4	18.0	23.8	8.8	30.0
1933	33.1	19.5	20.3	18.4	30.7	10.8	31.4
1934	34.8	23.8	28.5	21.1	33.0	9.8	31.9
1934: Jan. .	33.0	27.9	26.3	17.5	37.7	9.9	40.1
Feb. .	32.2	23.6	22.8	19.2	35.6	9.9	31.8
March .	30.7	16.4	20.7	21.5	33.1	9.7	28.5
April .	32.1	17.3	18.9	22.4	31.8	9.7	26.6
May .	33.7	16.6	19.6	22.9	31.4	9.7	29.1
June .	35.3	20.9	24.8	21.8	29.2	9.5	29.1
July .	41.3	26.9	42.6	21.6	32.1	10.1	30.9
Aug. .	42.0	29.1	43.0	22.2	31.7	9.5	31.7
Sept. .	35.8	27.0	31.3	21.3	32.1	9.7	31.3
Oct. .	31.3	24.5	26.9	20.7	32.4	9.8	32.0
Nov. .	32.4	25.2	28.2	20.5	33.4	9.7	33.3
Dec. .	38.3	29.8	37.1	21.9	35.8	9.8	37.9
Membership of funds reporting December 1934	31,031	8,391	5,858	30,964	62,819	41,126	568,044

[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.

Poland. — *Employment Exchange Statistics: Unemployed Registered*

Date	A Agricultural workers	B Mining	C Metallurgy [1]	C Metals	E Building	H Textiles	T, M Domestic and transport workers [2]	Y Non-manual workers [2]	All groups [3]
1927	2,085	20,674	3,687	10,894	8,929	17,885	3,962	18,403	163,953
1928	2,035	14,508	1,983	6,997	7,938	12,082	2,783	12,283	125,552
1929	1,824	3,419	969	7,385	11,403	17,556	2,276	10,745	129,450
1930	1,326	7,328	2,864	16,643	20,004	25,787	3,517	17,945	226,659
1931	2,553	12,787	4,554	25,107	26,615	27,926	4,109	31,247	299,502
1931	2,170	20,277	8,404	28,140	25,330	21,662	5,030	40,075	255,582
1933	2,972	29,967	8,494	32,081	27,205	15,889	6,433	49,844	249,660
1934	4,344	29,251	7,975	30,101	23,241	17,535	7,928	45,564	342,166
1934: Jan. . .	8,688	30,037	8,680	38,235	37,316	25,586	8,862	53,612	399,660
Feb. .	9,144	31,554	8,637	39,023	38,079	22,127	9,078	52,335	408,792
March. .	8,578	31,308	8,567	36,988	33,748	17,152	8,696	50,244	388,297
April . .	7,221	30,603	8,294	34,685	27,530	16,741	8,390	49,694	358,056
May . .	5,020	29,819	7,970	30,883	21,698	18,111	7,791	46,563	329,035
June . .	3,584	29,078	7,459	26,893	17,315	17,267	7,215	42,904	306,387
July . .	1,259	28,552	7,682	25,638	15,759	18,774	7,200	40,640	295,149
Aug. . .	1,308	28,260	7,653	24,168	14,112	12,914	6,998	40,789	289,388
Sept. . .	1,770	27,930	7,812	24,120	13,997	10,969	7,318	41,596	289,220
Oct. . .	1,364	27,636	7,747	24,167	13,977	12,284	7,605	42,259	294,874
Nov. . .	1,489	27,847	7,580	25,840	18,470	15,601	7,948	42,670	333,425
Dec. . .	2,708	28,392	7,619	30,577	26,885	22,898	8,039	43,465	413,703

[1] Since June 1932 including glass industry. — [2] Since May 1933, not including transport workers. — [3] Including other professional groups, unskilled and juvenile workers.

TABLE II. — UNEMPLOYMENT, BY INDUSTRIES *(continued)*

Rumania. — *Employment Exchange Statistics: Unemployed Registered*

Date[1]	A Forestry	B Mining (including oil wells)	C Metal working mecanical and electrical engineering	D Glass and pottery	E Building and public works	F Wood (including furniture)	G Paper and printing
1928	4,990	216	911	37	732	357	168
1929	1,948	44	531	1	621	318	161
1930	10,002	2,456	2,257	30	1,753	1,196	410
1931	8,775	3,374	3,563	180	3,053	2,217	690
1932	5,305	4,847	4,622	181	2,759	1,905	1,067
1933	3,315	3,235	3,727	117	2,586	1,280	779
1934	2,827	1,272	2,153	104	1,324	696	519
1934: Jan.	1,870	2,378	3,777	289	3,259	1,369	736
Feb.	1,704	1,589	3,544	284	3,368	1,306	1,180
March	5,136	1,438	3,349	221	2,212	1,103	1,058
April	1,351	1,214	2,485	179	1,181	809	571
May	1,767	1,101	1,705	36	826	486	384
June	4,680	1,090	1,530	30	670	405	318
July	3,317	1,034	1,413	41	586	327	311
Aug.	3,483	1,157	1,472	30	527	391	311
Sept.	3,275	970	1,467	20	531	378	247
Oct.	3,571	926	1,446	28	585	400	296
Nov.	3,331	1,042	1,502	33	781	529	372
Dec.	438	1,330	2,145	58	1,362	848	444

Date[1]	H Textiles	I Clothing	J Skin, leather	L Food	R, S Public and private administration and commerce	T Hotels and restaurants, domestic service	Z All groups[2]
1928	110	194	171	147	326	373	10,373
1929	87	309	364	380	286	397	7,288
1930	386	429	621	403	621	641	25,335
1931	630	1,015	1,301	709	1,164	1,258	35,737
1932	500	1,239	1,489	803	1,854	1,393	38,890
1933	290	892	1,280	649	1,873	1,443	29,063
1934	212	423	554	348	1,106	1,124	17,253
1934: Jan.	394	864	1,444	659	1,592	1,671	28,323
Feb.	411	937	1,387	626	1,694	1,896	27,721
March	501	656	73	483	1,765	1,527	26,915
April	325	499	627	377	1,327	1,227	16,462
May	132	276	375	286	912	915	12,527
June	102	234	343	259	818	865	14,482
July	103	202	317	219	726	927	12,758
Aug.	40	219	339	228	758	852	13,069
Sept.	62	211	335	199	715	775	11,795
Oct.	38	233	329	234	875	940	12,570
Nov.	199	277	371	250	887	907	13,887
Dec.	231	458	707	361	1,208	985	16,523

[1] The figures relate to the 1st of the following month. — [2] Including watch industry, education and health, apprentices, miscellaneous and unskilled factory workers.

TABLE II. — UNEMPLOYMENT, BY INDUSTRIES *(continued)*

Sweden. — *Trade Union Returns: Percentages Unemployed*

Date	B	C			D		E		
		Metal workers							
	Mining workers	Iron	Mechanical engineering	Foundry workers	Stone industry workers	Carpenters	Bricklayers	Painters	Construction workers
1927	16.2	11.0	9.4	7.9	10.2	25.9	27.3	23.9	23.5
1928	15.0	8.0	7.1	4.6	7.7	24.6	21.9	23.0	23.8
1929	13.5	5.1	6.3	2.5	4.7	23.2	22.8	24.0	22.7
1930	15.9	11.6	8.8	7.4	11.1	23.0	20.9	25.5	21.2
1931	22.8	18.9	16.6	18.0	41.5	28.8	26.1	29.3	28.7
1932	37.7	24.6	24.5	25.2	38.4	40.3	40.7	38.2	30.7
1933	37.9	15.2	24.8	21.2	53.4	54.7	62.2	48.9	38.8
1934	34.4	6.9	15.0	10.8	50.7	33.5	28.2	35.0	37.7
1934: Jan.	43.6	10.5	24.1	16.4	60.5	68.8	83.1	72.6	49.6
Feb.	43.6	10.7	22.3	18.0	56.0	56.9	63.4	67.1	49.5
March	43.7	10.7	20.3	17.8	58.1	53.8	46.1	63.1	42.9
April	41.3	6.8	17.3	13.5	54.0	40.5	24.9	44.6	35.9
May	34.4	5.4	14.7	11.5	53.2	29.8	16.2	25.4	26.9
June	28.0	5.6	13.0	8.3	47.3	23.0	12.1	18.1	30.3
July	32.9	5.6	11.0	6.9	44.6	16.6	9.1	8.1	27.8
Aug.	33.4	6.5	10.5	5.8	43.2	16.6	11.9	3.2	29.3
Sept.	31.5	5.0	10.5	5.9	43.1	21.4	20.3	2.4	28.9
Oct.	32.3	4.7	11.2	6.5	46.7	28.9	31.8	17.5	33.7
Nov.	26.6	4.6	12.3	9.7	47.9	36.8	36.8	39.3	43.7
Dec.	20.2	7.4	13.2	10.1	51.3	43.4	45.0	51.6	52.0
Membership of unions reporting December 1934	5,023	24,577	81,062	6,495	7,412	19,606	6,408	9,937	6,302

Date	F			G		H	I, J	
	Forestry and floating workers	Sawmill and wood yard workers	Wood workers	Paper workers	Printers	Textile workers	Clothing workers	Shoe and leather workers
1927	*	27.3	10.7	5.6	5.7	3.2	7.3	6.5
1928	*	22.5	9.4	4.9	4.5	2.6	5.8	8.7
1929	47.5	26.9	8.9	5.6	4.7	3.4	6.9	8.9
1930	41.1	31.1	9.9	8.9	4.0	3.6	6.5	4.7
1931	52.7	37.5	14.5	13.6	5.0	3.7	9.5	6.8
1932	58.7	43.6	27.1	14.0	9.2	6.5	15.4	12.3
1933	62.6	45.5	33.9	18.1	11.3	7.8	12.3	13.8
1934	56.3	38.8	22.8	12.8	10.0	4.9	11.8	13.2
1934: Jan.	35.1	50.7	35.8	16.6	11.8	5.5	11.0	17.6
Feb.	38.6	46.9	27.7	15.5	11.4	5.3	6.2	15.8
March	62.0	49.4	29.4	16.2	11.3	5.1	7.8	14.9
April	63.1	40.3	24.1	15.0	10.6	4.9	11.7	13.5
May	50.6	22.6	23.2	10.4	9.9	4.6	7.0	13.4
June	49.9	21.6	21.7	11.0	8.1	4.4	6.1	13.8
July	55.7	18.1	19.9	10.8	8.1	5.7	11.1	14.1
Aug.	56.5	27.0	17.8	13.4	9.5	4.5	11.6	11.4
Sept.	57.2	31.7	15.5	11.3	10.1	4.1	8.1	9.9
Oct.	59.5	36.0	16.3	10.2	10.1	4.5	9.1	9.0
Nov.	59.1	42.7	18.7	12.1	9.3	4.8	9.2	9.9
Dec.	76.0	78.7	27.1	11.6	9.6	5.6	42.6	15.1
Membership of unions reporting December 1934	11,471	17,778	12,361	25,776	9,679	27,586	16,641	9,882

TABLE II. — UNEMPLOYMENT, BY INDUSTRIES *(continued)*

Sweden — *Trade Union Returns: Percentages Unemployed* (concluded)

Date	L			M, N	O, Q, R	S	Z
	Food workers	Tobacco workers	Brewery workers	Transport workers	Municipal workers	Workers employed in commerce	All groups [1]
1927	11.6	4.3	4.2	12.9	4.9	7.1	12.0
1928	12.0	7.1	5.0	13.1	4.5	6.8	10.6
1929	10.7	3.5	4.9	11.8	4.1	6.8	10.7 [2]
1930	10.0	0.5	4.2	11.8	4.5	6.9	12.2
1931	10.5	1.7	4.9	11.4	4.4	8.0	17.2
1932	13.8	2.3	5.7	22.2	6.9	10.6	22.8
1933	17.3	3.9	8.5	29.9	9.0	12.7	23.7
1934	16.5	8.3	8.7	25.1	7.9	11.5	19.0 [3]
1934: Jan.	20.5	7.2	11.5	33.5	13.8	12.2	24.6
Feb.	18.6	9.3	12.0	33.9	13.6	13.3	24.7
March	19.6	8.2	13.2	31.8	11.8	12.3	24.7
April	17.8	8.9	8.6	26.8	8.8	11.8	20.6
May	15.7	8.8	6.2	24.0	4.8	12.4	16.2
June	13.9	8.8	6.0	22.1	4.5	11.3	15.0
July	12.9	8.0	5.6	20.3	5.1	10.5	14.1
Aug.	13.5	8.0	6.1	21.9	4.6	11.4	14.4
Sept.	13.3	9.0	8.0	18.4	4.7	9.6	14.2
Oct.	14.5	7.5	9.0	20.8	6.3	9.8	16.0
Nov.	14.7	8.4	9.4	23.7	7.6	10.8	18.2
Dec.	23.4	8.2	8.8	25.0	9.0	12.3	25.0
Membership of unions reporting December 1934	21,125	2,409	6,349	14,091	29,862	24,378	459,629

[1] Including unions of bookbinders, electricians, furriers, lithographers, other metal workers, etc. — [2] Since 1929, including forestry and timber floating workers. — [3] Revised figures.

Switzerland. — *Voluntary and Compulsory Unemployment Insurance Statistics: Percentages of Wholly (Wh.) and Partially (Ptl.) Unemployed* [1]

Date [1]	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	1.6 [2]	2.1 [2]	*	*	5.7	0.6	3.4	0.1
1928	0.8	0.2	0.6	1.8	4.7	0.1	2.3	0.0
1929	0.9	0.2	0.8	5.5	4.0	0.1	2.1	0.0
1930	2.2	5.7	7.1	38.3	5.6	0.6	2.2	0.1
1931	4.0	16.9	18.7	56.5	8.6	1.1	3.2	0.7
1932	9.7	22.5	27.8	49.1	13.2	2.0	7.6	1.2
1933	10.9	14.8	27.6	34.1	17.7	2.1	7.9	1.7
1934	8.5	9.6	26.8	25.8	16.6	1.6	7.4	1.2
1934: March	10.5	10.5	30.8	30.1	16.1	2.1	7.4	1.7
June	5.5	7.3	24.0	28.1	7.9	1.4	7.6	1.0
Sept.	5.9	9.0	23.5	23.5	10.3	1.1	7.2	1.2
Dec.	11.9	11.4	28.8	21.6	32.1	1.9	7.5	0.8
Number of persons insured December 1934	*		*		*		*	

[1] Yearly averages calculated on the base of four monthly figures (March, June, September, December). — [2] Including watch, etc., makers for March, June and September 1927.

TABLE II. — UNEMPLOYMENT, BY INDUSTRIES *(continued)*

Switzerland. — *Voluntary and Compulsory Unemployment Insurance Statistics: Percentage of Wholly (Wh.) and Partially (Ptl.) Unemployed* (concluded)

Date[1]	H		I, J		S		Z	
	Textile workers		Clothing and leather workers		Commercial employees		All groups[2]	
	Wh.	Ptl.	Wh.	Ptl.	Wh.	Ptl.	Wh.	Ptl.
1927	4.0	5.2	0.2	0.3	1.1	0.0	2.7	2.0
1928	3.7	2.5	0.6	0.8	0.9	0.0	2.1	1.1
1929	3.1	5.0	0.6	2.7	0.7	0.0	1.8	1.7
1930	3.9	12.2	0.3	1.4	1.4	0.1	3.4	7.2
1931	5.2	16.4	1.4	14.4	3.0	0.4	5.9	12.1
1932	9.1	16.6	5.4	8.9	4.4	0.7	9.3	12.0
1933	10.9	11.6	2.8	2.3	5.0	0.7	10.8	8.1
1934	8.8	10.4	2.8	5.4	4.5	0.5	9.4	5.9
1934: March	8.7	9.5	2.8	3.1	5.9	0.7	10.6	6.4
June	7.3	9.0	2.2	3.1	4.5	0.5	6.6	5.3
Sept.	8.9	10.9	1.9	10.6	3.5	0.5	7.0	5.7
Dec.	10.2	12.0	4.2	4.9	4.0	0.4	13.3	6.0
Number of persons insured December 1934	*		*		*		544.302	

[1] Yearly averages calculated on the base of four monthly figures (March, June, September, December). — [2] Including " other trades ".

Czechoslovakia. — *Employment Exchange Statistics: Unemployed Registered*

Date	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H
	Agriculture, etc.	Mining	Metals, metal working, mechanical engineering	Brick, pottery and glass	Building	Wood (including furniture)	Paper, printing, etc.	Textiles
1927	2,820	773	6,927	1,877	4,082	1,885	1,520	4,231
1928	2,192	359	3,038	987	3,300	1,134	952	5,340
1929	2,334	257	3,367	1,140	4,467	1,376	1,156	5,454
1930	4,067	890	14,622	4,823	12,654	3,805	2,643	15,543
1931	10,488	4,313	37,059	19,663	33,831	10,416	4,909	42,679
1932	29,499	15,675	67,522	43,235	54,173	20,121	8,903	76,342
1933	39,806	17,471	84,545	50,205	77,455	29,289	11,407	87,138
1934	39,164	16,335	74,724	42,562	73,772	27,435	10,916	75,744
1934: Jan.	50,850	20,751	91,786	53,045	100,400	32,432	10,432	88,610
Feb.	55,325	20,203	90.546	53,152	102,192	32,837	10,509	86,861
March	51,153	20,048	85,298	49,635	94,030	30,808	11,815	81,161
April	42,949	19,488	80,096	42,813	76,349	28,653	11,659	76,049
May	34,858	15,335	71,021	39,369	60,940	25,756	11,404	70,643
June	30,613	15,080	65,771	36.785	55,906	24,322	9,867	68,836
July	27,387	14,229	66,156	36,426	53,459	24,008	11,316	69,388
Aug.	30,351	14,019	64,537	36,388	54,369	23,516	11,147	70,735
Sept.	30,444	14,063	64,686	36,280	56,154	23,481	11,180	69,849
Oct.	30,656	13,993	66,822	37,908	63,013	24,867	11,102	72,459
Nov.	39,473	14,060	71,698	41,055	77,599	27,048	10,470	74,376
Dec.	45,903	14,753	78,268	47,885	90,849	31,486	10,094	79,964

TABLE II. — UNEMPLOYMENT, BY INDUSTRIES *(concluded)*

Czechoslovakia. — *Employment Exchange Statistics: Unemployed Registered* (concluded)

Date	I	J	K	L	M	T	V	Z
	Clothing	Rubber, hair and leather	Chemicals	Food, drink and tobacco	Transport	Hotels, domestic service	Professional services	All groups [1]
1927	1,979	283	333	2,635	620	4,874	451	52,869
1928	1,362	197	363	2,014	369	3,854	964	38,636
1929	1,217	370	373	2,101	370	3,437	879	41,630
1930	2,727	616	702	3,310	833	5,421	1,042	105,442
1931	7,624	1,364	2,236	5,363	1,334	9,058	2,396	291,332
1932	15,564	2,960	4,882	7,863	2,707	13,783	3,772	554,059
1933	22,704	3,361	10,109	10,411	3,913	19,556	5,265	738,267
1934	20,010	2.742	6,293	10,674	3,498	19,657	4,353	676,994
1934: Jan.	24,417	3,471	11,166	11,453	4,631	23,166	4,355	838,982
Feb.	24,112	3,373	10,107	13,061	4,610	22,654	4,332	844,284
March	21,745	3,174	8,731	11,307	4,278	21,260	4,215	789,789
April	19,317	2,866	7,176	11,094	3,678	18,979	4,027	704,338
May	17,566	2,532	5,470	10,037	3,249	17,714	4,162	624,850
June	18,119	2,168	4,428	9,314	2,933	16,477	4,237	582,810
July	18,294	2,194	4,505	9,520	2,749	15,746	4,249	569,450
Aug.	17,943	2,225	3,706	9,666	2,791	17,192	4,316	572,428
Sept.	17,605	2,290	4,412	9,618	2,985	19,436	4,402	576,267
Oct.	18,499	2,549	4,536	9,966	3,106	20,252	4,647	599,464
Nov.	20,390	2,846	5,112	10,957	3,354	21,563	4,567	668,937
Dec.	22,118	3,212	6,165	12,099	3,609	21,440	4,727	752,328

[1] Including commercial employees, miscellaneous industries, day labourers and apprentices.

TABLE III. — GENERAL LEVEL OF EMPLOYMENT [1]

Date	Germany			Austria	Belgium	Bulgaria [4]		Canada [4]
	Sickness insurance statistics	Employers' returns		Sickness insurance statistics	Voluntary unempl. insurance statistics	Employers' returns		Employers' returns
	Number employed	Employment as percentage of possible number of: Workers	Hours of work	Number employed	Index (1929)	Number employed	Index (1929)	Index (1926)
1927 . . .	*	*	*	1,376,049	100.0	*	*	88.1
1928 . . .	17,436,100	74.5 [2]	70.5 [2]	1,446,027	100.2	*	*	94.2
1929 . . .	17,595,347	70.4	67.4	1,448,845	**100.0**	68,032	**100.0**	**100.0**
1930 . . .	16,408,528	61.2	56.2	1,378,330	96.6	67,823	99.7	94.5
1931 . . .	14,336,418	50.7	44.5	1,255,353	87.4	66,485	97.7	85.3
1932 . . .	12,517,882	41.9	35.7	1,107,256	78.2	68,525	100.7	72.5
1933 . . .	13,015,614	46.3	41.0	1,022,942	81.1	57,960	85.2	70.6
1934 . . .	15,040,864	58.5	53.7	1,010,993	78.3	61,111	88.4	80.9
1934: Jan.	13,517,998	49.8	44.4	959,162	77.0	48,579	71.4	76.7
Feb.	13,967,253	51.6	46.5	955,302	76.0	46,986	69.1	77.8
March	14,686,865	54.4	50.0	982,301	78.3	48,938	71.9	76.6
April	15,322,237	57.1	53.1	1,021,792	78.0	54,388	79.9	77.2
May	15,560,487	58.7	55.4	1,042,415	80.1	58,991	86.7	81.0
June	15,529,683	59.6	54.9	1,027,689	80.2	60,668	89.2	84.7
July	15,532,793	60.2	54.3	1,033,976	80.7	66,144	97.2	83.8
Aug.	15,558,981	61.0	55.0	1,037,850	78.0	71,239	104.7	82.9
Sept.	15,621,095	62.1	56.6	1,043,174	78.5	72,243	106.2	83.9
Oct.	15,636,436	62.6	57.7	1,048,643	81.3	72,122	106.0	84.1
Nov.	15,476,144	62.8	59.0	1,019,740	76.5	66,439	97.7	83.0
Dec.	14,873,276	61.8	57.0	959,870	74.9	54,590	80.2	79.2
Base number	*	*	*	*	955,464 [3]	*	*	883,185

Date	Denmark		Estonia [4]	United States [5]				
	Employers' returns		Employers' returns	Employers' returns (Manufacturing industries)				
	Total number of hours worked per day		Index (1 January 1927)	Index (1923-1925)			Estimates of:	
				Employed		Payrolls	Number of wage earners	Weekly payrolls ($1,000's)
	Number (thous.)	Index (1931)		Unadjusted	Adjusted			
1927 . . .	*	*	93.0	94.4	*	93.3	8,288,400	206,980
1928 . . .	*	*	98.2	94.4	*	93.9	8,285,800	208,334
1929 . . .	*	*	**100.0**	**100.0**	*	**100.0**	8,785,600	221,937
1930 . . .	*	*	95.8	87.3	*	81.3	7,668,400	180,507
1931 . . .	962	**100.0**	88.1	73.9	*	61.9	6,484,300	137,256
1932 . . .	881	91.6	82.7	61.2	*	42.3	5,374,200	93,757
1933 . . .	985	102.4	84.3	65.8	*	44.5	5,778,400	98,623
1934 . . .	1,061	110.3	97.5	75.2	*	56.7	6,600,100	126,012
1934: Jan.	907	94.3	87.3	69.9	71.7	49.5	6,146,000	109,806
Feb.	959	99.7	91.3	74.1	74.8	55.5	6,514,200	123,395
March	989	102.8	94.6	77.1	77.3	59.4	6,770,100	131,852
April	1,027	106.8	98.1	78.6	78.4	61.7	6,906,100	136,962
May	1,117	116.1	105.7	78.7	78.6	61.5	6,912,600	136,575
June	1,101	114.4	105.3	77.4	77.7	59.5	6,799,900	132,040
July	1,104	114.8	101.8	75.1	75.8	55.5	6,593,500	123,011
Aug.	1,106	115.0	98.8	75.9	75.7	57.0	6,666,200	126,603
Sept.	1,123	116.7	97.8	72.3	70.5	53.2	6,351,900	118,089
Oct.	1,115	115.9	97.3	74.8	73.2	55.9	6,569,500	124,138
Nov.	1,105	114.9	96.6	73.3	73.2	54.5	6,435,000	121,085
Dec.	1,075	111.7	95.3	74.4	75.4	57.9	6,536,100	128,593
Base number	*	*	35,727	3,642,799			*	*

[1] The figures in brackets after the word " Index " denote the original base year of the series. When they are in heavy type this base has been retained (= 100); in all other cases the series have been recalculated on the base 1929 = 100. — [2] Figure for July. — [3] Workers covered by the statistics, including unemployed. — [4] The figures relate to the 1st of the following month. — [5] The figures relate to the 15th of the month.

TABLE III. — GENERAL LEVEL OF EMPLOYMENT [1] *(continued)*

Date	Finland		France [2]		Great Britain	
	Employers' returns		Returns of labour inspectors		Unemployment insurance statistics	
	Index (1926)		Number employed	Index (number employed in same month of 1930 = 100) [3]	Estimated number employed	Index (1924)
	Number employed	Hours worked				
1927. . . .	*	*	*	*	10,018,000	98.0
1928. . . .	*	*	*	*	10,023,000	98.0
1929. . . .	*	*	*	*	10,223,000	**100.0**
1930. . . .	*	*	2,750,555	100.0	9,809,000	96.0
1931. . . .	78	72	2,541,253	92.5	9,437,000	92.3
1932. . . .	77	72	2,392,321	80.9	9,367,000	91.7
1933. . . .	83	78	2,382,534	79.4	9,684,000	94.5
1934. . . .	93	88	2,319,474	76.9	10,139,000	99.2
1934: Jan.	*	*	2,383,040	78.0	9,879,000	96.6
Feb.	84	79	2,366,207	77.1	9,946,000	97.3
March	*	*	2,364,462	76.9	10,065,000	98.5
April	*	*	2,345,084	76.7	10,147,000	99.3
May	88	84	2,326,764	76.8	10,199,000	99.8
June	*	*	2,337,916	77.3	10,180,000	99.6
July	*	*	2,318,792	78.4	10,151,000	99.3
Aug.	101	96	2,278,142	77.0	10,181,000	99.6
Sept.	*	*	2,285,527	76.8	10,244,000	100.3
Oct.	*	*	2,270,648	76.7	10,209,000	99.9
Nov.	99	94	2,285,345	76.1	10,213,000	99.9
Dec.	*	*	2,271,756	75.2	10,252,000	100.3
Base number	*	*	*	*	*	*

Date	Hungary		Italy			Japan	Latvia	
	Social insurance statistics		Employers' returns			Employers' returns	Sickness insurance statistics	
				Index [5] (1929)				
	Number employed	Index (1927)	Index [4] (Sept. 1926)	Number employed	Number of hours worked [6]	Index (1926)	Number employed	Index (1930)
1927. . . .	1,033,609	98.3	*	*	*	104.1	148,288	87.4
1928. . . .	1,064,599	101.3	*	*	*	99.2	161,483	94.7
1929. . . .	1,051,169	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	171,195	**100.0**
1930. . . .	990,776	94.3	93.0	97.3	94.2	90.0	179,636	105.3
1931. . . .	937,298	89.2	81.2	88.8	83.5	81.7	168,208	98.9
1932. . . .	862,469	82.0	70.5	78.5	72.4	82.0	140,977	82.1
1933. . . .	853,203	81.1	71.4	79.4	75.1	89.9	149,722	87.4
1934. . . .	913,068	86.9	72.1	83.1	78.3	100.2	162,837	95.3
1934: Jan.	849,568	80.8	69.8	75.8	69.1	94.6	152,030	89.5
Feb.	856,758	81.5	70.5	76.2	69.8	95.2	155,226	90.5
March	897,034	85.3	71.1	79.6	76.9	96.4	158,422	92.6
April	929,435	88.4	71.2	81.6	74.0	99.4	161,994	94.7
May	947,451	90.2	71.2	85.1	82.6	99.9	165,823	96.8
June	927,274	88.2	70.1	84.4	81.1	100.1	167,075	97.9
July	921,865	87.7	71.4	85.7	83.4	100.5	164,733	96.8
Aug.	925,936	88.1	71.1	85.7	80.6	101.1	164,074	95.8
Sept.	933,092	88.8	72.7	87.6	84.7	102.6	163,345	95.8
Oct.	949,775	90.4	73.9	85.6	84.8	103.3	167,773	97.9
Nov.	945,210	89.9	74.6	85.2	80.6	104.2	170,226	100.0
Dec.	873,416	83.1	77.5	85.0	72.1	104.8	163,327	95.8
Base number	*	*	731,408	1,065,715		949,350	*	*

[1] The figures in brackets after the word " Index " denote the original base year of the series. When they are in heavy type this base has been retained (= 100); in all other cases the series have been recalculated on the base 1929 = 100. — [2] The figures relate to the first of the month. — [3] Revised series. — [4] Ministry of Corporations. — [5] Fascist General Industrial Confederation. — [6] Figures relating to the middle of each month.

TABLE III. — GENERAL LEVEL OF EMPLOYMENT [1] *(concluded)*

Date	Luxemburg [2]		Netherlands	Poland		Sweden	
	Employers' returns		Unemployment insurance statistics	Employers' returns		Employers' returns	
				Index		Social Board	Federation of Industries
	Number employed	Index (1929)	Index (1929)	Number employed (1928) (all industries)	Hours worked per week (1929) (manufactures)	Index (1926-1930)	Index (1925-1930
1927 . . .	41,129	93.6	98.6	89.5	90.0	*	94.2
1928 . . .	42,927	97.7	100.6	99.7	103.0	*	98.1
1929 . . .	43,944	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	*	**100.0**
1930 . . .	43,122	98.1	98.3	86.8	81.1	*	100.0
1931 . . .	36,942	84.1	90.9 [3]	73.9	66.3	*	91.3
1932 . . .	29,696	67.6	79.6	63.3	53.2	*	85.6
1933 . . .	28,483	64.8	78.0	62.9	54.6	89.1	84.6
1934 . . .	28,803	65.6	76.8	68.0	63.6	97.4	91.6
1934: Jan.	27,557	62.7	72.3	61.4	51.9	*	87.5
Febr.	27,673	63.0	75.6	63.3	57.4	*	88.5
March	27,810	63.3	78.4	65.0	60.8	91.0	89.4
April	28,377	64.6	79.5	66.9	62.7	*	89.4
May	28,829	65.6	79.6	68.5	65.1	*	90.4
June	29,035	66.1	79.7	68.7	63.7	99.1	91.3
July	29,111	66.2	78.1	68.8	60.5	*	92.3
Aug.	29,195	66.4	77.5	69.9	64.5	*	93.3
Sept.	29,619	67.4	77.3	70.7	66.8	100.8	93.3
Oct.	29,662	67.5	76.5	75.8	71.3	*	93.3
Nov.	29,473	67.1	75.1	72.6	75.0	*	94.2
Dec.	29,300	66.7	70.9	64.8	63.8	98.8	96.2
Base number	*	*	487,564 [4]	547,161	14,858 [5]	227,837	*

Date	Switzerland	Czechoslovakia [6]		Union of South Africa		Yugoslavia	
	Employers' returns	Social insurance statistics		Employers' returns		Social insurance statistics	
				Index (July 1925)			
	Index (1925)	Number employed	Index (1928)	Europeans	Total [8]	Number employed	Index (1928)
1927 . . .	91.2	* [7]	*	94.2	95.9	*	*
1928 . . .	97.3	2,488,252	99.3	97.2	98.2	565,916	93.5
1929 . . .	**100.0**	2,505,537	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	605,064	**100.0**
1930 . . .	96.5	2,444,690	97.5	97.4	98.1	629,682	104.1
1931 . . .	88.5	2,314,990	92.4	93.5	93.8	609,260	100.7
1932 . . .	76.1	2,085,244	83.2	87.6	87.2	537,235	88.8
1933 . . .	73.0	1,887,650	75.4	90.3	91.2	520,980	86.2
1934 . . .	73.3	1,879,372	75.0	100.3	102.3	543,566	89.9
1934: Jan.	*	1,588,901	63.5	94.7	96.5	484,232	80.1
Feb.	*	1,620,776	64.6	96.5	98.7	495,051	81.9
March	73.2	1,724,172	68.8	97.6	99.7	523,070	86.4
April	*	1,883,261	75.2	98.0	100.1	535,152	88.5
May	*	2,028,017	80.9	99.0	101.1	562,643	93.0
June	74.4	2,030,229	81.0	100.0	101.8	568,641	94.0
July	*	2,012,018	80.3	100.6	102.3	555,920	91.9
Aug.	*	1,983,812	79.1	101.6	103.5	558,984	92.4
Sept.	74.0	1,956,368	78.1	102.7	104.5	562,202	92.9
Oct.	*	1,993,988	79.5	103.4	105.4	565,461	93.5
Nov.	*	1,944,356	77.6	104.1	106.7	564,274	93.3
Dec.	71.6	1,770,046	70.6	105.1	107.0	547,156	90.5
Base number	193,798	*	*	121.852	520.296	*	*

[1] The figures in brackets after the word " Index " denote the original base year of the series. When they are in heavy type this base has been retained (= 100); in all other cases the series have been recalculated on the base 1929 = 100. — [2] The figures relate to the 1st of the month. — [3] Since 1931, excluding agriculture. — [4] Workers covered by the statistics, including unemployed. — [5] Hours worked (thousands). — [6] Average for the month. — [7] Revised figures. — [8] Including " Natives ".

Germany. — *Employers' Returns*

A. Employment Compared with Possible Number of Workers [1]

Date	B	C					E
	Coal and lignite mines	Iron	Iron and steel, including rolling	Mechanical engineering	Electrical engineering	Construction of vehicles [3]	Building [4]
1927	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
1928 [2]	89.8	87.0	*	77.4	90.6	56.6	69.3
1929	93.1	84.0	76.8	71.4	82.7	56.1	57.4
1930	83.6	72.1	65.0	59.7	67.0	42.6	41.7
1931	67.0	54.4	56.5	45.7	55.8	36.6	27.1
1932	57.2	44.8	47.4	32.7	42.2	29.7	19.5
1933	58.8	50.9	53.5	41.9	46.0	43.5	27.9
1934	62.6	66.5	70.6	59.5	63.4	66.3	50.1
1934: March	61.6	60.9	66.3	53.7	56.4	60.1	41.1
June	62.7	67.4	72.1	60.0	62.4	70.7	53.9
Sept.	63.3	70.1	73.5	63.2	70.3	70.3	60.4
Dec.	63.8	72.7	75.7	66.2	68.9	71.0	54.9

Date	F, X	H	L		Y	Z
	Household requisites and furniture	Textiles	Food	Drink and tobacco	Cultural requisites [5]	All groups
1927	*	*	*	*	*	*
1928 [2]	74.0	83.1	63.5	75.2	66.2	74.5
1929	70.3	77.6	65.2	78.5	62.6	70.4
1930	60.0	73.3	62.0	78.2	54.6	61.2
1931	51.0	66.0	61.9	68.6	46.7	50.7
1932	42.7	59.9	58.2	64.7	35.5	41.9
1933	46.4	63.0	60.3	69.9	34.7	46.3
1934	56.1	71.5	66.1	75.1	38.1	58.5
1934: March	51.2	69.8	62.9	72.0	35.7	54.4
June	55.9	72.5	65.6	75.5	37.3	59.6
Sept.	59.3	72.4	69.7	76.7	40.4	62.1
Dec.	61.0	72.9	69.2	78.3	40.2	61.8

[1] Number of workers employed, expressed as a percentage of the number which might be employed if all the undertakings were working to full capacity. — [2] For 1928: month of July; for the remaining years: average for the year. — [3] Excluding wagons and boats. — [4] Including building materials. — [5] Leather, pianos, photographic and wireless apparatus, precious metals and ornaments, toys, paper articles, cosmetics.

B. Employment Compared with Possible Hours of Work [1]

Date	B	C					E
	Coal and lignite mines [6]	Iron	Iron and steel, including rolling	Mechanical engineering	Electrical engineering	Construction of vehicles [3]	Building [4]
1927	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
1928 [2]	85.8	82.1	*	75.0	83.2	54.0	68.7
1929	92.2	79.8	70.8	67.8	78.1	53.4	55.9
1930	77.6	64.6	59.9	54.2	59.5	37.9	39.5
1931	60.4	44.6	47.1	38.8	46.1	31.3	25.3
1932	50.2	35.0	35.4	27.1	31.5	24.1	17.9
1933	52.0	42.8	41.7	35.7	38.3	38.6	26.1
1934	58.8	61.9	58.0	56.3	58.0	60.2	47.9
1934: March	56.4	55.6	54.1	49.9	49.9	55.5	39.3
June	56.4	62.6	59.4	57.0	56.8	67.3	52.3
Sept.	59.2	64.8	59.1	59.7	64.7	59.9	58.6
Dec.	63.9	69.3	64.4	66.0	65.2	63.0	49.0

Date	F, X	H	L		Y	Z
	Household requisites and furniture	Textiles	Food	Drink and tobacco	Cultural requisites [5]	All industries
1927	*	*	*	*	*	*
1928 [2]	66.9	74.2	60.0	74.4	62.4	70.5
1929	66.2	72.0	63.3	75.0	58.5	67.4
1930	53.8	65.6	58.8	72.9	48.7	56.2
1931	44.6	56.5	57.2	59.6	38.6	44.5
1932	36.2	50.4	52.6	57.0	29.4	35.7
1933	40.7	55.2	53.9	64.1	29.7	41.0
1934	51.4	62.2	60.7	70.1	33.8	53.7
1934: March	45.0	63.7	57.6	65.2	30.5	50.0
June	52.1	65.7	59.7	69.7	32.1	54.9
Sept.	54.9	58.8	64.0	72.0	36.5	56.6
Dec.	56.6	62.6	65.0	75.3	38.1	57.0

[1] Number of hours worked, expressed as a percentage of the number which might be worked if all the undertakings were working to full capacity. — [2] For 1928: month of July; for the remaining years: average for the year. — [3] Excluding wagons and boats. — [4] Including building materials. — [5] Leather, pianos, photographic and wireless apparatus, precious metals and ornaments, toys, paper articles, cosmetics. — [6] Employment compared with possible number of shifts.

TABLE IV. — EMPLOYMENT, BY INDUSTRIES *(continued)*

Canada. — *Employers' Returns: 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: June	106.6	103.0	106.5	114.4	112.2	144.2	115.8	69.9
Dec.	112.6	96.9	109.5	107.9	89.8	78.6	78.1	163.2
1928: June	113.1	116.4	118.4	122.0	116.5	154.3	117.7	69.5
Dec.	116.2	114.9	128.7	121.7	108.3	87.4	84.2	171.0
1929: June	119.5	126.8	142.7	134.8	137.8	164.5	122.7	80.1
Dec.	122.5	107.3	156.3	127.4	116.0	92.7	83.7	200.2
1930: June	113.8	109.5	156.1	127.6	137.1	170.1	105.4	82.1
Dec.	114.4	88.7	143.5	112.7	95.2	110.7	66.8	107.6
1931: June	104.1	85.8	133.3	114.2	112.9	137.1	83.7	38.5
Dec.	105.1	70.7	126.4	93.6	77.1	104.8	55.6	68.7
1932: June	95.0	68.2	109.0	78.2	78.2	93.3	64.8	34.2
Dec.	96.9	56.3	96.4	74.7	50.1	58.5	43.2	74.5
1933: June	93.1	62.4	85.5	87.0	57.0	78.2	63.7	49.5
Dec.	106.8	60.9	95.5	90.5	53.4	88.1	52.9	168.8
1934: March	103.3	73.4	97.8	103.5	57.6	95.8	60.3	104.9
June	107.0	74.2	103.1	111.4	75.6	140.6	74.7	86.3
Sept.	117.9	70.6	108.5	112.7	74.5	117.0	71.8	113.4
Dec.	119.1	71.1	105.0	106.4	60.9	87.9	57.1	181.3
Number of persons employed December 1934	54,412	93,567	11,477	16,795	6,682	103,040	29,910	50,593

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: June	111.5	104.5	109.3	99.1	100.8	103.6	121.4	100.4
Dec.	102.3	107.9	108.8	93.9	102.6	102.8	102.1	87.7
1928: June	117.2	110.0	107.0	99.7	97.6	113.6	121.6	101.3
Dec.	100.1	114.6	106.9	93.0	85.8	110.2	109.8	98.1
1929: June	110.5	116.1	104.1	103.5	92.8	118.7	122.3	112.3
Dec.	105.0	118.7	96.8	95.5	88.1	119.9	103.3	100.0
1930: June	107.3	115.9	97.2	100.3	86.0	116.5	119.9	114.5
Dec.	87.0	114.6	99.0	88.3	73.8	113.8	95.5	95.5
1931: June	87.4	110.3	97.6	94.6	89.4	115.9	112.6	106.8
Dec.	76.1	107.7	97.4	81.4	78.7	110.6	95.1	94.7
1932: June	73.7	104.0	103.6	89.1	86.5	109.9	114.7	100.5
Dec.	67.1	100.5	100.6	75.3	77.6	101.8	92.0	88.4
1933: June	74.5	98.5	103.9	86.4	94.0	111.3	130.2	97.2
Dec.	71.6	100.7	114.1	81.4	79.1	112.1	94.7	85.6
1934: March	75.9	100.5	122.9	95.9	99.5	118.1	95.4	88.9
June	88.9	101.9	122.0	93.3	95.4	121.0	132.7	107.0
Sept.	86.3	102.5	121.4	100.8	100.0	120.4	113.9	135.0
Dec.	81.0	104.4	121.2	87.0	86.8	118.9	105.1	92.4
Number of persons employed December 1934	55,806 [2]		87,174 [3]		17,612	6,682	19,782	26,450

[1] First of the following month. — [2] Including paper products. — [3] Including other textile trades.

TABLE IV. — EMPLOYMENT, BY INDUSTRIES *(continued)*

Canada. — *Employers' Returns: Index Numbers of Employment* (concluded) (1926 = 100)

Date [1]	M Steam railways	N Shipping and stevedoring	O Electric current	P Telegraphs and telephones	S Trade	T Hotels and restaurants	V Professional services	All industries [3]
1927: June	105.3	117.7	111.5	106.0	106.0	116.1	107.4	109.7
Dec.	103.2	72.7	107.8	102.0	120.4	99.0	107.8	100.7
1928: June	110.0	98.0	120.8	108.7	115.3	133.5	119.2	117.7
Dec.	103.5	83.4	114.1	112.6	128.5	114.9	113.6	109.1
1929: June	113.1	126.0	137.0	123.8	127.7	154.8	126.6	124.7
Dec.	99.9	81.5	123.8	128.2	133.8	123.3	115.0	111.2
1930: June	104.1	108.2	133.1	119.7	129.5	150.8	128.9	118.9
Dec.	95.2	73.3	124.7	110.6	132.9	122.2	121.6	101.7
1931: June	91.8	96.1	127.7	104.8	124.0	133.7	125.8	103.8
Dec.	82.5	68.0	118.4	98.1	125.7	107.7	128.2	91.6
1932: June	77.7	90.4	117.4	93.1	115.4	118.2	130.7	88.7
Dec.	71.6	64.7	108.3	87.5	119.6	95.2	116.6	78.5
1933: June	69.8	89.9	110.0	84.0	111.8	109.3	113.1	84.5
Dec.	69.8	63.7	104.8	78.4	122.3	107.8	126.2	88.6
1934: March	70.6	60.0	105.0	76.8	116.1	109.1	121.7	91.3
June	73.1	89.5	109.5	80.1	119.1	121.3	117.7	101.0
Sept.	75.0	92.3	117.6	81.3	120.0	115.0	119.0	100.0
Dec.	69.6	63.4	110.0	78.6	130.6	115.3	121.5	94.4
Number of persons employed December 1934	55,333	10,535	13,839	20,612	102,239	24,642 [2]		883,185

[1] First of the following month. — [2] Including personal services. — [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.

Denmark. — *Employers' Returns: Index Numbers of Total Numbers of Hours Worked per Day* (1931 = 100)

Date	C Iron and metal products	D Stone, clay and glass	F Wood	G Paper and printing	H Textiles
1931	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1932	79.6	70.5	84.3	101.1	110.4
1933	86.2	89.7	98.0	105.6	139.0
1934	101.8	105.8	119.1	108.5	154.8
1934: Jan.	85.5	66.7	103.9	103.4	136.4
Feb.	89.6	69.2	105.9	102.2	154.5
March	93.1	75.6	109.8	105.6	155.8
April	96.5	96.2	115.7	106.7	166.2
May	106.9	130.8	125.5	109.0	166.2
June	106.2	135.9	129.4	109.0	158.4
July	106.9	137.2	135.3	109.0	154.5
Aug.	104.8	134.6	131.4	107.8	155.8
Sept.	108.0	125.6	129.4	110.1	155.8
Oct.	106.6	110.3	121.6	111.2	154.5
Nov.	109.0	96.2	111.8	113.5	150.6
Dec.	109.0	91.0	109.8	114.6	149.4
Number of hours worked (in thousands) per day in December 1934	315	71	56	102	115

TABLE IV. — EMPLOYMENT, BY INDUSTRIES *(continued)*

Denmark — *Employers' Returns: Index Numbers of Total Numbers of Hours Worked per Day* (concluded) (1931 = 100)

Date	I Clothing	J Leather	K Chemicals	L Food	Z All groups
1931	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1932	104.7	103.3	97.8	98.1	91.6
1933	122.1	130.0	113.0	101.4	102.4
1934	113.5	122.8	121.6	100.4	110.3
1934: Jan.	103.5	110.0	108.7	86.1	94.3
Feb.	112.8	126.7	115.2	89.8	99.7
March	119.8	120.0	117.4	91.7	102.8
April	124.4	110.0	119.6	90.7	106.8
May	125.6	123.3	123.9	99.5	116.1
June	110.5	113.3	121.7	100.9	114.4
July	105.8	110.0	119.6	103.7	114.8
Aug.	115.1	130.0	123.9	101.9	115.0
Sept.	119.8	136.7	128.3	104.6	116.7
Oct.	112.8	133.3	128.3	113.4	115.9
Nov.	103.5	130.0	128.3	117.6	114.9
Dec.	108.1	130.0	123.9	105.1	111.7
Number of hours worked (in thousands) per day in Dec. 1934	93	39	57	227	1,075

United States. — *Employers' Returns: Index Numbers of Employment*

A. Manufacturing Industries (Average 1923-1925 = 100)

Date	C Iron and steel products	C Non-ferrous metal products	C Machinery	C Transportation equipment	D Stone, clay and glass products	F Lumber and products	G Paper and pulp	G Printing (book and job)
1927: June	98.6	*	103.3	92.4	105.2	94.4	100.8	105.5
Dec.	92.2	*	98.4	77.5	94.6	91.1	100.7	110.4
1928: June	96.7	*	103.9	99.1	99.6	92.5	100.2	105.4
Dec.	99.4	*	113.5	94.3	93.2	93.8	102.3	110.2
1929: June	104.4	*	130.1	109.2	98.2	97.1	106.1	111.2
Dec.	97.1	*	119.5	79.1	86.8	90.1	108.0	117.9
1930: June	92.3	*	105.9	86.0	85.6	79.1	105.4	110.5
Dec.	77.5	*	91.3	68.1	70.8	64.0	94.7	109.5
1931: June	70.6	74.9	79.3	71.1	69.7	58.9	89.7	99.5
Dec.	61.3	67.4	68.9	62.9	53.0	47.8	85.2	97.6
1932: June	52.4	56.2	55.3	61.0	43.3	39.9	80.6	84.6
Dec.	49.3	55.9	50.6	47.5	40.5	39.1	80.1	81.9
1933: June	55.7	58.4	54.2	51.7	45.9	42.7	84.9	76.0
Dec.	66.6	69.8	71.8	61.1	49.0	49.8	101.1	87.1
1934: March	70.0	75.1	76.8	93.4	52.1	48.5	104.4	83.5
June	76.4	75.9	80.8	95.6	57.1	50.0	106.0	84.8
Sept.	66.0	73.2	78.0	74.2	52.9	49.3	105.4	86.3
Dec.	66.6	76.9	78.5	78.4	50.1	47.8	108.3	89.3

TABLE IV. — EMPLOYMENT, BY INDUSTRIES *(continued)*

United States. — *Employers' Returns: Index Numbers of Employment.*

A. Manufacturing Industries (continued)

(Average 1923-1925 = 100)

Date	H	I		J		K	L		Z
	Textile fabrics	Wearing apparel	Boots and shoes	Leather	Rubber products	Chemicals and products	Food and products	Tobacco manufactures	All groups [2]
1927: June	101.0	102.4	91.8	94.1	110.0	98.5	101.5	93.9	99.1
Dec.	101.1	106.9	89.3	96.4	104.4	102.9	97.5	96.0	96.1
1928: June	93.9	105.4	88.4	93.4	107.9	96.2	102.8	90.3	97.8
Dec.	99.6	108.9	89.6	88.3	112.1	113.4	105.4	90.7	101.2
1929: June	99.6	113.1	91.9	89.0	117.9	109.1	108.3	83.9	105.6
Dec.	96.9	110.9	93.4	91.3	91.7	118.5	109.2	79.4	99.8
1930: June	86.6	103.3	88.4	84.4	91.2	105.4	106.9	79.8	92.9
Dec.	80.9	96.3	77.9	76.2	77.2	104.3	98.6	76.5	82.3
1931: June	81.0	98.5	84.5	77.6	77.2	93.5	95.6	72.5	78.4
Dec.	77.8	90.7	78.2	70.6	70.0	90.9	89.9	65.9	71.0
1932: June	60.7	77.7	76.4	64.1	66.5	77.1	84.9	63.4	61.2
Dec.	76.9	84.4	73.9	71.5	64.2	85.0	82.8	63.3	62.1
1933: June	88.4	89.0	84.0	81.1	69.3	87.9	89.7	61.2	66.9
Dec.	89.7	80.4	75.8	90.8	83.9	107.6	99.2	62.1	74.4
1934: March	98.4	100.0	92.2	95.1	87.1	112.8	96.2	64.4	80.8
June	89.9	89.3	86.8	91.5	85.6	104.5	105.1	62.4	81.1
Sept.	62.0	95.5	85.5	86.8	78.4	108.6	127.1	64.7	75.8
Dec.	94.0	86.0	82.9	92.7	79.0	108.8	103.8	61.9	78.0

[1] The figures relate to the 15th of the month. — [2] Including certain other groups.

B. Non-Manufacturing Industries

(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]	Electricity and gas	Telephone, telegraph	Wholesale trade	Retail trade	Hotels
1929: June	94.7	106.6	—	95.8	100.7	101.5	99.2	99.3	99.3
Dec.	101.3	90.1	—	88.5	102.5	101.8	102.6	111.9	97.7
1930: June	88.4	90.3	90.2	86.3	104.6	99.8	96.2	96.9	98.0
Dec.	92.5	70.2	77.4	74.8	103.2	91.6	91.5	102.5	93.5
1931: June	78.4	72.3	65.0	72.7	97.2	86.9	86.3	90.7	91.6
Dec.	81.2	53.9	58.2	62.5	90.3	83.1	82.6	90.6	83.1
1932: June	60.5	49.5	54.2	57.7	83.2	79.9	75.6	76.3	78.0
Dec.	70.0	42.3	57.2	54.7	78.4	74.8	75.4	80.9	73.2
1933: June	61.3	47.3	58.0	53.6	77.3	69.2	73.9	73.2	73.6
Dec.	75.4	45.3	75.0	54.0	81.8	69.4	81.5	89.1	77.6
1934: March	77.8	42.0	72.8	55.9	81.7	70.0	81.8	81.5	86.4
June	76.7	56.6	80.0	59.0	84.0	70.4	82.3	82.6	86.2
Sept.	78.2	53.3	81.8	57.0	85.8	70.9	83.5	81.7	84.4
Dec.	79.7	42.1	78.7	53.8†	83.6	69.7	85.0	90.9	83.3
Number employed Dec. 15, 1934	254,058	29,252	19,099	948,902†	243,641	257,386	292,786	1,041,488	140,149

[1] Average 1923-1925 = 100.

TABLE IV. — EMPLOYMENT, BY INDUSTRIES *(continued)*

Finland. — *Employers' Returns: Index Numbers* (a) *of Workers Employed, and* (b) *of Total Number of Hours Worked during each Quarter (1926 = 100)*

Date	C Metals		D Glass and Stone		F Sawmills		G Paper		H Textiles	
	a	*b*	*a*	*b*	*a*	*b*	*a*	*b*	*a*	*b*
1931: Feb. . .	76.2	66.5	68.3	63.8	61.9	61.6	79.3	75.5	90.6	78.8
Aug. . .	70.0	60.5	69.3	65.6	76.9	74.9	84.7	78.2	89.1	71.7
1932: Feb. . .	65.1	56.9	72.4	68.0	62.6	58.9	79.1	75.9	88.9	81.1
Aug. . .	75.6	68.6	85.9	84.4	70.8	67.3	85.6	79.1	90.2	75.1
1933: Feb. . .	78.9	71.6	81.7	87.0	60.2	60.5	79.8	75.6	92.3	71.7
Aug. . .	86.1	75.7	91.4	96.8	83.6	81.7	92.9	88.6	97.9	87.9
1934: Feb. . .	89.3	81.5	96.0	105.2	63.8	59.6	85.2	78.4	107.0	91.6
May . .	97.7	92.2	97.1	108.5	67.8	63.4	85.6	80.3	111.4	103.4
Aug. . .	102.5	93.5	105.0	116.9	89.9	88.1	101.2	93.1	118.5	105.5
Nov. . .	105.5	98.7	110.4	130.5	77.9	71.8	97.6	88.8	123.5	112.1

Date	J Leather		K Chemicals		L Food		Y Home-market industries		Y Export industries		Z All groups	
	a	*b*	*a*	*b*	*a*	*b*	*a*	*b*	*a*	*b*	*a*	*b*
1931: Feb. . .	89.3	62.9	91.2	100.5	95.9	86.6	83.5	76.8	64.9	60.6	77.7	73.6
Aug. . .	79.3	50.0	80.9	91.9	88.5	76.8	79.6	70.6	76.0	67.4	81.3	74.9
1932: Feb. . .	84.7	66.7	80.2	92.7	91.6	80.8	78.8	74.8	65.3	58.6	75.4	70.8
Aug. . .	83.2	69.8	67.1	76.3	77.4	66.1	80.5	74.0	72.5	64.2	80.3	73.8
1933: Feb. . .	101.8	97.7	81.9	91.3	77.5	70.2	83.4	75.6	64.2	59.4	76.9	71.7
Aug. . .	81.2	71.0	88.3	106.1	79.4	75.3	88.7	86.1	82.3	74.9	90.1	86.1
1924: Feb. . .	94.3	82.4	90.6	106.3	76.9	73.5	94.1	90.1	67.9	59.7	84.4	78.8
May . .	87.0	78.4	94.6	111.7	74.4	70.8	98.0	98.5	70.3	62.4	87.7	84.4
Aug. . .	92.8	83.3	100.1	107.0	75.5	70.2	103.6	100.3	88.9	80.4	101.2	95.8
Nov. . .	110.2	101.3	108.2	130.1	82.2	78.6	108.7	108.4	80.7	70.4	99.0	94.0

France. — *Returns of Labour Inspectors and Mining Engineers: Index Numbers of Employment*
(Number employed in same month of 1930 = 100)

Date [1]	B Mining, quarrying	C Iron and steel	C Metal working (ordinary metals)	D Pottery, etc.	E Navvying, and stone construction	F Wood	G, J Paper, cardboard, rubber	G, J Books	H Textiles
1931: June . .	95.3	92.6	90.9	91.9	100.9	88.1	92.2	99.5	94.0
Dec. . .	90.0	83.4	82.8	85.3	95.0	83.8	89.4	96.7	87.4
1932: June . .	84.5	77.7	74.7	74.8	101.6	75.9	82.3	93.7	78.6
Dec. . .	81.5	73.6	75.1	75.0	94.0	74.3	85.9	91.1	80.3
1933: June . .	80.7	77.1	71.3	71.1	103.9	71.1	82.7	90.5	78.9
Dec. . .	77.8	75.9	73.2	73.8	83.0	73.2	86.8	90.1	81.7
1934: March . .	76.9	73.3	71.1	69.9	75.6	67.2	81.8	91.5	78.5
June . .	77.4	77.2	71.3	67.9	81.7	68.1	81.0	88.9	77.7
Sept. . .	74.7	72.9	69.9	67.7	76.8	67.8	83.3	93.0	77.5
Dec. . .	72.8	74.2	70.2	69.2	68.9	69.0	83.6	88.1	74.5
Number of persons employed December 1934	273,973	148,494	471,575	86,627	71,618	32,310	85,086	48,101	448,984

TABLE IV. — EMPLOYMENT, BY INDUSTRIES (*continued*)

France. — *Returns of Labour Inspectors and Mining Engineers: Index Numbers of Employment* (concluded)
(Number employed in same month of 1930 = 100)

Date [1]	I	J	K	L	M, N	S		Z
	Clothing, etc.	Leather, skins	Chemicals	Food	Transport	Commerce	Banking, insurance	All groups [2]
1931: June	92.8	91.3	86.7	99.7	97.3	98.4	98.4	93.5
Dec.	87.5	87.5	85.6	95.4	91.2	93.4	96.3	87.4
1932: June	80.6	76.1	80.0	95.6	87.0	92.0	93.5	81.0
Dec.	82.9	78.2	81.6	94.5	82.5	88.2	90.8	80.5
1933: June	80.8	80.3	78.6	94.1	85.4	89.9	90.3	79.1
Dec.	82.7	81.8	80.9	95.2	76.9	87.3	89.3	79.5
1934: March	80.2	75.0	79.1	97.9	93.4	84.6	88.0	77.0
June	79.9	74.2	78.3	95.2	89.5	87.9	88.0	77.1
Sept.	76.1	72.9	81.7	93.4	82.0	86.5	88.8	76.2
Dec.	77.7	71.3	80.0	84.7	97.5	84.4	86.6	75.0
Number of persons employed December 1934	73,406	54,242	109,661	98,005	11,264	132,188	111,434	2,271,756

[1] The figures relate to the first of the month. — [2] Including the working of straw, feathers and horsehair, of fine metals, and of precious stones, stone cutting, and loading and unloading.

Great Britain and Northern Ireland. — *Compulsory Unemployment Insurance: Estimated Numbers of Insured Persons (16-64) in Employment in June of each year (1924 = 100)*

Year (June)	B	C					D
	Coal mining	Iron and steel melting, puddling, forging, rolling	General engineering and founding	Motor vehicles cycles and aircraft	Shipbuilding and repairing	Electric cable	Brick and tile making
1927	79.7	97.1	103.2	126.8	109.1	120.0	147.3
1928	69.4	87.0	104.2	126.3	101.1	126.6	136.7
1929	74.0	89.6	105.8	134.4	108.9	139.3	140.7
1930	69.2	78.3	98.7	125.2	97.5	146.6	139.6
1931	56.8	54.5	81.6	115.5	58.3	144.4	138.4
1932	52.7	54.0	77.3	114.4	46.4	138.5	129.6
1933	54.3	62.7	73.4	127.9	45.3	168.0	143.0
1934	53.0	79.2	87.7	143.2	55.5	189.3	160.2
Number employed June 1934	623,383	127,746	443,381	245,519	80,747	121,805	85,391

TABLE IV. — EMPLOYMENT, BY INDUSTRIES *(continued)*

Great Britain and Northern Ireland. — *Compulsory Unemployment Insurance: Estimated Numbers of Insured Persons (16-64) in Employment in June of each Year (1924 = 100)* (continued)

Year (June)	E		F	G		H	
	Building	Public works contracting	Furniture and upholstery	Paper and paper board	Printing, publishing, bookbinding	Cotton	Wool
1927	126.5	140.8	125.3	99.5	114.0	118.9	89.8
1928	123.5	132.8	130.4	103.5	116.4	109.7	88.7
1929	126.8	136.0	135.2	106.7	119.7	109.0	85.2
1930	121.8	146.7	134.2	102.7	122.2	75.1	75.3
1931	117.9	213.5	130.8	98.4	120.1	74.4	66.4
1932	106.2	188.0	126.9	105.0	122.1	79.8	70.7
1933	118.8	159.6	130.6	112.4	123.0	85.2	82.2
1934	132.8	154.7	140.9	113.5	122.5	81.9	74.9
Number employed June 1934. . . .	789,940	153,175	118,181	56,364	256,860	359,521	180,598

Year (June)	H *(cont.)*		I			J	K
	Hosiery	Textile bleaching, printing, etc.	Tailoring	Dressmaking	Boots and shoes	Leather tanning, etc.	Chemicals
1927	113.2	105.2	110.8	93.0	102.5	106.0	97.3
1928	117.9	105.9	109.9	92.9	91.6	108.1	106.0
1929	121.2	102.8	109.9	91.7	93.1	103.2	111.5
1930	110.7	83.2	107.9	89.0	89.9	98.7	102.5
1931	109.1	76.0	109.5	88.5	87.7	93.2	90.0
1932	118.9	84.5	107.5	87.7	85.6	96.1	92.9
1933	121.3	87.9	110.9	84.3	98.1	107.0	97.5
1934	126.1	87.7	107.0	89.2	89.4	112.2	105.5
Number employed June 1934. . . .	103,763	85,549	185,361	97,760	112,339	40,276	94,079

Year (June)	L		M			N	
	Bread, biscuits, etc.	Drink trades	Railway service	Tramway and omnibus	Other road transport	Shipping service	Docks
1927	96.6	113.0	79.4	124.5	126.6	115.6	95.7
1928	95.9	110.6	76.8	134.7	131.9	112.8	87.8
1929	96.2	111.7	78.1	147.5	136.0	114.3	87.9
1930	97.5	109.3	74.5	153.8	135.3	108.0	83.7
1931	97.4	107.7	72.0	152.2	141.7	108.3	79.1
1932	100.3	101.7	65.6	167.0	138.3	104.2	83.8
1933	104.5	106.8	60.4	169.2	139.7	99.1	82.6
1934	106.7	108.8	69.9	170.2	147.0	100.9	85.7
Number employed June 1934. . . .	150,390	99,093	121,199	174,165	175,828	105,878	115,257

TABLE IV. — EMPLOYMENT, BY INDUSTRIES *(continued)*

Great Britain and Northern Ireland. — *Compulsory Unemployment Insurance: Estimated Numbers of Insured Persons (16-64) in Employment in June of each Year (1924 = 100)* (concluded)

Year (June)	O	R		S		T	
	Gas, water, electricity	Local government	National government	Commerce, banking, insurance	Distributive trades	Hotels, boarding houses, clubs	Laundries
1927	101.8	108.4	80.3	100.5	127.9	126.4	121.0
1928	100.8	112.1	77.3	100.6	132.2	129.4	126.2
1929	100.3	120.1	72.5	103.4	136.9	136.3	131.1
1930	101.1	132.2	67.2	104.2	140.0	136.0	132.7
1931	104.4	138.2	71.6	104.2	144.3	142.2	136.1
1932	101.8	133.9	69.9	107.4	149.0	141.8	136.5
1933	107.6	138.2	64.3	109.5	152.5	149.8	141.0
1934	116.5	139.6	63.5	114.2	155.4	156.7	143.6
Number employed June 1934 . . .	177,789	294,587	97,370	246,227	1,801,121	358,554	142,726

Year (June)	U	V	B-L		B-V		
	Entertainment, sports	Professional service	All manufacturing industries		All industries and services		
			Expanded	Contracted	Expanded	Contracted	All groups
1927	120.2	109.3	115.6	103.1	119.5	94.4	108.6
1928	122.3	111.6	117.4	99.4	121.3	88.9	107.2
1929	130.7	113.6	121.9	100.3	125.8	90.5	110.5
1930	129.1	119.3	118.3	87.9	125.2	81.2	106.1
1931	145.0	123.3	113.5	75.6	126.0	70.1	101.7
1932	155.5	126.2	114.7	75.0	125.6	68.4	100.7
1933	171.1	131.9	121.2	79.7	130.9	71.2	105.0
1934	180.9	138.0	129.0	82.7	137.3	73.3	109.5
Number employed June 1934 . . .	91,883	141,185	2,943,713	2,152,466	7,683,732	3,151,819	10,835,561

TABLE IV. — EMPLOYMENT, BY INDUSTRIES *(continued)*

Italy. — *Employers' Returns: Index Numbers of Employment* (Sept. 1926 = 100)[1]

Date	C					D	G	H	
	Iron 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
Dec.	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
Dec.	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
Dec.	81.6	93.8	86.0	91.9	68.6	79.7	95.5	87.3	107.8
1931: June	74.4	92.4	77.9	91.7	66.1	75.2	90.3	21.8	101.2
Dec.	72.2	84.9	74.7	78.0	61.4	68.3	90.6	59.0	90.6
1932: June	69.8	82.1	67.8	68.3	64.2	70.9	86.9	5.2	72.9
Dec.	70.3	77.3	68.1	51.6	68.6	64.2	85.3	36.2	68.9
1933: June	74.6	78.9	70.5	53.0	68.8	63.5	85.8	13.6	66.4
Dec.	75.4	83.2	74.0	49.3	71.6	62.6	85.7	20.7	67.8
1934: March	76.2	84.4	72.9	48.9	70.9	62.7	87.4	24.1	68.5
June	78.7	85.7	74.7	51.8	72.7	68.6	88.1	15.9	68.9
Sept.	79.4	88.6	77.9	54.0	73.0	71.3	88.0	35.8	71.2
Dec.	85.3	96.0	83.4	61.1	76.8	72.8	94.2	40.2	77.5
Number of persons employed December 1934	55,299	58,319	61,012	17,128	22,231	9,148	22,915	40,730	20,607

Date	H *(cont.)*		I	J		K	L	Z
	Cotton	Wool	Hosiery (stockings)	Tanning	Rubber	Superphosphates	Macaroni	All groups[2]
1928: June	91.0	96.8	108.2	98.2	102.5	68.1	97.7	86.3
Dec.	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
Dec.	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
Dec.	74.2	91.8	102.3	91.7	97.4	60.3	100.8	84.9
1931: June	67.0	88.2	92.3	80.5	94.1	49.0	93.4	73.1
Dec.	66.5	89.4	89.5	83.7	92.9	51.8	94.2	74.2
1932: June	61.0	88.4	82.5	78.9	98.4	45.7	90.1	64.4
Dec.	61.2	93.5	80.1	82.8	101.0	60.9	94.9	66.8
1933: June	62.5	97.1	86.4	86.1	108.6	59.4	91.8	66.0
Dec.	63.1	100.5	85.1	90.8	104.7	65.5	96.2	67.8
1934: March	61.6	98.1	83.4	91.4	108.6	74.4	94.3	67.8
June	59.7	98.2	84.6	92.8	110.8	66.0	93.5	66.9
Sept.	57.9	95.7	84.8	93.0	107.3	79.6	94.0	69.4
Dec.	61.3	100.1	86.9	101.0	110.1	74.5	101.9	73.9
Number of persons employed December 1934	150,091	77,527	18,031	11,544	13,562	6,225	15,691	731,408

[1] Ministry of Corporations.
[2] Including silk weaving, linen, jute, etc., industries, knitted wear, hat manufacture, foundries (second smelting), railway shops, and electrical engineering.

TABLE IV. — EMPLOYMENT, BY INDUSTRIES *(continued)*

Japan. — *Employers' Returns: Index Numbers of Employment* (1926 = 100)

Date	C					D	F
	Mechanical engineering	Shipbuilding	Vehicles	Tools and instruments	Metal working industry	Ceramics, glass, building material	Lumbering and woodworking
1927	101.7	101.8	105.3	92.7	101.6	95.3	90.5
1928	106.7	106.3	108.5	89.1	103.8	91.7	88.8
1929	111.8	113.5	108.7	92.2	107.5	91.7	89.4
1930	107.0	102.2	100.4	90.2	101.1	82.4	83.2
1931	96.5	78.1	85.8	84.8	90.3	69.9	75.7
1932	100.7	73.9	77.2	88.7	89.8	66.1	73.1
1933: June	130.0	80.4	84.4	106.4	100.0	71.3	74.8
Dec.	153.0	87.3	91.6	116.6	107.3	77.0	74.6
1934: March	160.3	94.6	98.8	121.8	112.0	79.0	75.0
June	166.8	102.6	106.0	127.9	115.9	81.2	76.2
Sept.	175.2	105.8	108.9	133.2	120.7	82.1	75.9
Dec.	183.0	111.7	110.3	139.3	124.9	82.5	77.9
Number of persons employed December 1934	85,150	43,030	20,841	40,309	89,854	36,255	14,020

Date	G		H			
	Paper making	Printing and binding	Silk reeling	Spinning	Weaving	Dyeing
1927	97.1	100.7	89.1	91.7	90.6	98.3
1928	93.1	100.0	89.0	82.2	83.6	102.8
1929	90.6	100.5	94.6	82.3	80.7	99.5
1930	82.2	98.1	89.1	69.7	70.0	86.4
1931	76.2	94.3	70.8	62.4	65.2	81.6
1932	71.9	91.3	66.9	63.2	66.4	89.7
1933: June	75.2	93.0	66.0	65.0	72.7	88.7
Dec.	78.8	94.5	52.6	65.6	72.7	95.5
1934: March	79.5	94.5	61.1	66.5	73.7	98.6
June	80.2	95.1	61.2	69.7	76.3	104.2
Sept.	80.8	95.8	61.6	70.8	77.5	109.8
Dec.	82.3	96.8	51.8	72.4	77.6	109.4
Number of persons employed December 1934	20,237	22,582	107,601	205,833	153,048	26,778

Date	I	J	K		L	Z
	Braiding and knitting	Rubber	Artificial manure	Medical products	Food and drink	All groups [1]
1927	96.3	104.5	89.3	102.6	95.7	94.8
1928	80.8	107.5	88.4	100.4	90.0	90.4
1929	79.6	118.5	86.4	102.7	90.7	91.1
1930	75.4	117.1	87.0	98.0	86.6	82.0
1931	74.1	122.0	77.6	91.5	79.8	74.4
1932	72.4	132.4	72.5	91.6	79.3	74.7
1933: June	81.8	142.4	75.5	104.5	79.4	81.6
Dec.	85.3	147.1	78.9	116.2	85.1	85.8
1934: March	86.5	149.4	79.9	120.1	83.0	87.8
June	90.9	147.1	83.5	124.3	83.4	91.2
Sept.	90.2	150.6	84.8	126.9	84.6	93.5
Dec.	88.7	146.3	88.4	130.4	87.1	95.5
Number of persons employed December 1934	10,087	15,754	9,997	13,403	25,918	949,350

[1] Silk reeling excluded.

TABLE IV. — EMPLOYMENT, BY INDUSTRIES *(concluded)*

Sweden. — *Employers' Returns: Index Numbers of Employment*

A. — Social Board (1926-1930 = 100).

Date	B	C			D		E	F	G			H
	Mining	Quarrying, stone cutting	Mechanical engineering	Shipbuilding	Electrical engineering	Brick	Glass	Building	Sawmills	Pulp	Paper	Printing	Cotton
1932: June . .	71.1	49.3	76.3	58.7	82.1	102.0	78.9	81.9	88.3	91.1	96.0	95.7	101.9
Dec. . .	68.7	64.2	78.1	64.5	94.4	57.2	94.7	60.3	72.5	86.5	97.5	97.4	103.3
1933: June . .	68.5	42.3	81.6	81.1	91.9	96.1	99.5	59.2	86.2	90.1	97.9	91.8	99.7
Dec. . .	67.3	40.5	86.2	76.6	89.4	46.0	96.0	56.3	73.1	86.0	98.2	99,5	106.3
1934: June . .	72.3	42.4	100.4	86.3	92.1	116.1	84.8	93.9	93.9	91.5	102.0	95.4	118.5
Dec. . .	70.7	53.0	104.0	87.4	99.7	68.9	84.8	80.9	78.5	89.5	103.0	101.1	112.6

Date	H	I		J		K	L			M-N	O	S	Z
	Wool	Tailoring	Boots and shoes	Leather	Rubber	Chemicals (miscellaneous)	Bakeries	Breweries and distilleries	Tobacco	Transport and navigation	Power station and public utilities	Trade	All groups
1932: June . .	91.8	99.6	97.0	102.1	85.7	77.4	103.4	99.6	95.4	91.5	109.3	101.8	86.6
Dec. . .	98.7	101.9	101.0	103.4	98.5	83.1	103.2	95.4	92.9	97.9	105.5	129.7	88.4
1933: June . .	94.6	102.4	102.8	99.6	98.0	92.8	112.3	95.8	88.5	98.9	108.1	105.2	89.6
Dec. . .	109.3	104.3	107.1	89.9	115.2	95.1	107.9	90.6	85.0	96.6	90.5	106.6	89.7
1934: June . .	118.4	101.7	106.7	101.7	117.2	112.7	110.1	92.1	84.9	98.7	110.0	104.5	99.1
Dec. . .	117.0	102.5	103.2	106.0	109.0	102.2	103.6	88.4	84.2	97.8	100.9	121.6	98.8

B. Federation of Industries (Average 1925-1930 = 100)

Date	Production industries	Consumption industries	Industries working for the home market	Industries working for export	All groups
1927	96	100	98	97	98
1928	103	101	100	106	102
1929	106	100	103	105	104
1930	106	101	105	102	104
1931	93	99	100	89	95
1932	82	97	95	79	89
1933	83	96	94	80	88
1934	90	102	103	83	95
1933: June	82	97	93	79	88
Dec.	87	99	98	83	92
1934: March	87	100	100	82	93
June	89	103	103	81	95
Sept.	93	103	104	85	97
Dec.	96	106	108	86	100

TABLE V *a*. — NATIONAL INDEXES OF THE LEVEL OF UNEMPLOYMENT

(1929 = 100)

Date	Germany		Australia		Austria		Belgium		Canada	
	a	*b*	*a*	*b*	*a*	*b*	*a*	*b*	*a*	*b*
1929	100	—	100	—	100	—	100	—	100	—
1930	164	—	174	—	127	—	277	—	195	—
1931	239 [1]	—	247	—	162	—	838	—	295	—
1932	304	—	261	—	209	—	1,462	—	386	—
1933	260	—	226	—	232	—	1,304	—	391	—
1934	146	—	185	—	210	—	1,458	—	320	—
1933: March . .	307	283	239 [2]	243 [2]	262	233	1,546	1,340	440	404
June . .	261	264	232 [3]	232 [3]	218	232	1,108	1,300	382	394
Sept. . .	212	231	226 [4]	221 [4]	201	228	1,062	1,291	347	374
Dec. . .	228	196	207 [5]	210 [5]	244	223	1,531	1,301	368	351
1934: Jan. . .	212	186	*	*	258	220	1,654	1,331	372	346
Feb. . .	188	177	197	199	257	218	1,562	1,354	351	341
March . .	155	170	*	*	239	216	1,446	1,379	342	336
April . .	142	163	*	*	217	214	1,492	1,403	335	331
May . .	136	156	188	189	200	213	1,346	1,429	325	326
June . .	134	149	*	*	193	211	1,315	1,450	316	322
July . .	132	144	*	*	190	210	1,338	1,464	314	318
Aug. . .	130	140 †	184	181	183	208	1,315	1,481	289	314 †
Sept. . .	124	138 †	*	*	179	208	1,377	1,501	288	311
Oct. . .	123	136 †	*	*	182	207 †	1,385	1,510	284	307
Nov. . .	128	134 †	169	—	199	206 †	1,554	—	307	—
Dec. . .	144	—	*	*	227	—	1,708	—	316	—

a = Unadjusted series. *b* = Series adjusted for seasonal variations. † = Provisional figure.
[1] Modified series. — [2] Figure for February. — [3] Figure for May. — [4] Figure for August. — [5] Figure for November.

Date	Denmark		United States		Great Britain and North Ireland		Italy		Japan	
	a	*b*	*a*	*b*	*a*	*b*	*a*	*b*	*a*	*b*
1929	100	—	100	—	100	—	100	—	100	—
1930	88	—	177	—	154	—	141	—	133	—
1931	115	—	233	—	205	—	244	—	153	—
1932	205	—	290	—	213	—	335	—	170	—
1933	186	—	296	—	191	—	339	—	140	—
1934	143	—	255	—	162	—	320	—	125	—
1933: March . .	228	202	324	304	211	203	360	338	143	150
June . .	141	188	299	297	187	193	294	339 [2]	145	141
Sept. . .	135	174	274	286	177	183	302 [1]	333 [1]	133	137
Dec. . .	242	162	278	270	168	172	376	329	130	132
1934: Jan. . .	222	159	276	266	179	170	385	330	130	130
Feb. . .	202	155	268	263	174	168	367	330	130	129
March . .	183	153	260	261	165	166	351	330	128	128
April . .	139	150	252	259	160	164	331	328	128	127
May . .	108	148	244	257	156	163	313	326	128	126
June . .	100	145	239	256	158	162	276	323	125	125
July . .	99	142	254	255	161	161	295	318	123	—
Aug. . .	100	139	263	253	159	161	288	314	123	—
Sept. . .	106	137	248	251	155	160	295	309	123	—
Oct. . .	117	135 †	245	249	158	159	301	304	120	—
Nov. . .	144	133 †	257	247 †	158	159	322	299	120	—
Dec. . .	195	—	259	—	155	—	320	—	123	—

a = Unadjusted series. *b* = Series adjusted for seasonal variations. † = Provisional figure.
[1] Modified series.

TABLE V *a*. — NATIONAL INDEXES OF THE LEVEL OF UNEMPLOYMENT *(concluded)*

Date	Norway		Netherlands		Poland		Sweden		Switzerland		Czechoslovakia	
	a	*b*	*a*	*b*	*a*	*b*	*a*	*b*	*a*	*b*	*a*	*b*
1929	100	—	100	—	100	—	100	—	100	—	100	—
1930	108	—	121	—	180	—	114	—	292	—	205	—
1931	145	—	229	—	257	—	161	—	500	—	377	—
1932	200	—	374	—	241	—	213	—	592	—	614	—
1933	217	—	393	—	243	—	221	—	536	—	768	—
1934	200	—	398	—	333	—	178	—	442	—	789	—
1933: March . .	250	219	375	388	271	216	271	227	633	576	918	749
June . .	177	218	346	390	218	237	194	222	456	541	718	767
Sept. . .	201	216	358	383	196	268	184	213	403	508	641	763
Dec. . .	255	213	500	384	333	291	259	202	644	474	782	758
1934: Jan. . .	264	213	501	386	388	298	230	197	658	466	882	760
Feb. . .	250	212	398	389	398	304	231	193	619	459	950	763
March . .	238	209	356	392	378	311	231	189	481	455	886	770
April . .	217	207	333	395	347	318	193	185	397	452	809	776
May . .	186	204	364	399	320	324	151	181	358	450	718	780
June . .	177	201	364	399	298	330	140	179	344	446	718	786
July . .	160	198	386	400	286	337	132	177	342	442	718	792
Aug. . .	160	195	396	405	282	345	135	174	356	444	741	795
Sept. . .	166	192	391	412	282	354	133	171	369	449	732	795
Oct. . .	176	—	400	418 †	286	363	150	167†	381	—	705	794
Nov. . .	189	—	416	423 †	324	—	170	—	444	—	745	—
Dec. . .	213	—	474	—	402	—	234	—	558	—	864	—

a = Unadjusted series. *b* = Series adjusted for seasonal variations. † = Provisional figure

TABLE V *b*. — INTERNATIONAL INDEXES OF UNEMPLOYMENT

(Basis: 1929 = 100)

Month	Unadjusted series						Seasonally adjusted series					
	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934
Jan. . . .	134	151	239	297	316	260	94	124	202	266	287	235
Feb. . . .	136	157	242	299	314	248	95	130	207	272	285	231
March . .	109	151	233	291	301	229	95	137	212	277	282	228
April . . .	90	145	219	284	288	217	95	144	218	280	279	225
May . . .	78	142	206	280	277	208	96	151	223	283	275	222
June . . .	74	142	207	280	263	203	98	158	228	285	272	219
July . . .	76	153	213	286	254	206	99	165	233	287	268	217†
Aug. . . .	77	159	221	284	249	206	101	172	238	289	263	215†
Sept. . . .	78	160	227	279	239	201	103	179	243	290	257	213†
Oct.	90	168	236	274	236	201	107	185	248	290	251	212†
Nov. . . .	105	189	251	283	241	210	112	191	254	290	245	—
Dec. . . .	133	214	277	299	259	222	118	196	262	289	240	—
Index . .	100	164	235	291	274	221	—	—	—	—	—	—

† Provisional figure.

II. — HOURS OF WORK

Table VI

Table VI gives *statistics of the general level of actual hours of work* [1] from 1927 to 1934 in 12 countries.

The data available are of two kinds. The data of the first kind (for 8 countries) give the average number of hours worked per worker in a certain period (e.g. a day, a week, a month), and are usually obtained by dividing the total number of hours worked during this period by the total number of workers on the payrolls of the establishments covered during the same period. If a worker works in more than one establishment during the period, a possibility of error thus arises; this, however, can be ignored if the statistics relate to average hours per day or per week. It would be desirable for international comparisons that the date should relate to the same period of time, but it has not been possible to recalculate the series as given in the original sources, for various reasons, such as the varying length of the normal working day (due e.g. to the Saturday half-holiday), the varying number of days in a month, etc. When the published data give hours and minutes the Office has expressed these figures as hours and decimals of an hour.

The data of the second kind (for 6 countries [2]) show the percentage of workers working specified hours, or hours within a certain range. The classification used varies from country to country, but the data have been arranged as far as possible in three groups or four groups as corresponding as possible.

Both kinds of figures cover only a sample (of varying size) of undertakings, and should not be taken as necessarily representing the average hours per worker, or the distribution of hours, for the whole of the workers in a country. For these and other reasons, the figures are better suited to comparing changes within the different countries during the years than to comparing the actual averages or the distribution of hours between different countries.

Table VII

Table VII gives the *statistics of actual hours of work in different industries;* they are the same statistics as Table VI but in detail by industries: the order of the industries is that given in the list on p. v above. When the list of industries in the national statistics is very detailed, a selection of the principal industrial groups has been made. As the scope of the industries differs, even when described by the same word, comparisons are subject to caution.

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[1] Figures of *normal* working hours as fixed by collective agreements or by other means are reserved for table VIII.

[2] Two countries give data of both kinds.

TABLE VIII

Table VIII gives *normal hours of work* (as fixed by law at collective agreement) *for 30 occupations in 27 towns* covering 19 countries in October 1934. These data are a summary of those collected by the Office as a result of a special enquiry on wages and hours of work [1]; they correspond to the data on rates of wages given in Table XI.

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[1] The complete data are given in the *International Labour Review*, Vol. XXXI, No. 4, April 1935: " Wages and Hours of Work in Certain Occupations in Different Towns in October 1934. "

TABLE VI. — GENERAL LEVEL OF ACTUAL HOURS OF WORK

Date	Germany				Austria			
	Returns of the German Labour Front			Employers' returns	Employers' returns			
	Percentage of workers working weekly:			Average hours of work per day	Percentage of workers working weekly [2]:			
	Under 40 hours	40 to under 48 hours	48 hours and more		Up to 40 hours	Over 40 to under 48 hours	48 hours and more	Hours unknown
1927	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
1928	*	*	*	7.67 [1]	*	*	*	*
1929	*	*	*	7.67	2.5	0.5	95.0	2.0
1930	*	*	*	7.37	3.0	0.5	95.4	1.1
1931	*	*	*	7.08	16.5	2.2	78.7	2.6
1932	*	*	*	6.91	12.9	3.0	79.4	4.7
1933	*	*	*	7.15	15.8	4.2	76.7	3.3
1934	—	—	—	7.42	—	—	—	—
1934: Jan.	14.7	40.3	45.0	7.15	*	*	*	*
Feb.	12.5	39.3	48.2	7.28	*	*	*	*
March	11.8	38.1	50.1	7.44	*	*	*	*
April	11.1	38.8	50.1	7.50	*	*	*	*
May	10.7	38.7	50.6	7.64	*	*	*	*
June	9.7	39.5	50.8	7.46	*	*	*	*
July	9.9	37.7	52.4	7.31	*	*	*	*
Aug.	11.8	36.9	51.3	7.31	*	*	*	*
Sept.	11.9	36.6	51.5	7.38	*	*	*	*
Oct.	*	*	*	7.47	*	*	*	*
Nov.	*	*	*	7.60	*	*	*	*
Dec	*	*	*	7.44	*	*	*	*

[1] Average for the months July to December. — [2] 1929-1931: first week of January; from 1932: average of the first week of January and July.

Date	Estonia	United States		France			Hungary
	Employers' returns [1]	Employers' returns		Returns of labour inspectors [2]			Employers' returns
	Average hours of work per day (males)	N.I.C.B.	B.L.S.	Percentage of workers working weekly:			Average hours of work per day
		Average hours of work per week		Under 40 hours	40 to under 48 hours	48 hours and more	
1927	7.70	47.7	*	*	*	*	8.86
1928	7.78	48.0	*	*	*	*	8.98
1929	7.80	47.4	*	*	*	*	8.97
1930	7.77	43.9	*	0.5	4.5	95.0	8.82
1931	7.79	40.4	*	8.3	25.1	66.6	8.64
1932	7.80	34.9	*	20.6	27.1	52.4	8.53
1933	—	36.1 †	37.9	11.6	26.3	62.1	8.59
1934	—	34.7	34.7	14.4	29.6	56.0	—
1934: Jan.	*	34.0	33.7	10.3	30.0	59.7	*
Feb.	*	35.6	35.8	9.6	31.2	59.2	*
March	*	36.4	36.3	13.9	27.2	58.9	*
April	*	35.9	36.2	13.1	29.3	57.6	*
May	*	35.5	35.4	13.7	27.9	58.4	*
June	*	35.4	34.9	15.8	28.3	55.9	*
July	*	34.0	33.4	15.5	29.4	55.1	*
Aug.	*	33.5	33.9	18.2	27.6	54.2	*
Sept.	*	33.3	33.3	16.2	30.5	53.3	*
Oct.	*	33.9	34.5	17.1	29.5	53.4	*
Nov.	*	34.0	34.1	14.4	31.7	53.9	*
Dec.	*	35.0	35.2	15.0	33.1	51.9	*

[1] The annual figures are averages of two half-yearly figures. — [2] The monthly figures relate to the first of the following month.

TABLE VI. — GENERAL LEVEL OF ACTUAL HOURS OF WORK *(concluded)*

Date	Italy				Japan	Latvia		
	Employers' returns				Employers' returns	Employers' returns		
	Min. of Corp.			F.G.C.I.				
	Percentage of workers working weekly [1]:			Average hours of work per month	Average hours of work per day	Percentage of workers working weekly:		
	Under 48 hours	48 hours	Over 48 hours			Under 46 hours	46 hours	Over 46 hours
1927	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
1928	9.0 [1]	78.3 [1]	12.7 [1]	180 [1]	*	*	*	*
1929	8.9	75.5	15.6	182	*	*	*	*
1930	20.8	66.7	12.5	175	*	*	*	*
1931	24.2	64.6	11.2	171	*	*	*	*
1932	28.4	63.6	8.0	169	9.63	24.9 [1]	73.0 [1]	2.1 [1]
1933	20.8	70.7	8.5	174	9.75	13.6	84.6	1.8
1934	30.5	61.9	7.6	172	9.83	11.3	80.5	8.2
1934: Jan. .	23.4	68.6	8.0	169	9.65	10.9	87.2	1.9
Feb. .	23.9	67.9	8.2	169	9.77	10.2	88.8	1.0
March .	24.0	68.3	7.7	178	9.83	12.2	82.9	4.9
April .	24.8	67.5	7.7	166	9.85	11.1	84.8	4.1
May .	24.8	67.1	8.1	177	9.83	10.5	86,5	3.0
June .	28.7	62.8	8.5	175	9.82	9.5	85.7	4.8
July .	28.7	62.3	9.0	177	9.82	10.2	88.8	1.0
Aug. .	28.4	63.1	8.5	167	9.80	11.0	87.5	1.5
Sept. .	27.8	63.5	8.7	176	9.85	6.6	91.9	1.5
Oct. .	30.3	61.9	7.8	181	9.87	10.7	65.4	23.9
Nov. .	31.7	62.2	6.1	172	9.88	17.7	58.2	24.1
Dec. .	69.9	26.8	3.3	154	9.95	14.6	59.0	26.4

[1] Average for the months February to December.

Date	Poland	Sweden	Switzerland			
	Employers' returns	Employers' returns	Employers' returns			
	Average hours of work per week	Average hours of work (adult males)	Percentage of workers working weekly:			
			Under 36 hours	36 to under 48 hours	48 hours	Over 48 hours
1927	45.9	*	*	*	*	*
1928	45.4	*	*	*	*	*
1929	44.6	*	*	*	*	*
1930	43.7	*	*	*	*	*
1931	43.0	*	*	*	*	*
1932	40.6	*	*	*	*	*
1933	40.9	45.2 [1]	7.2 [2]	20.8 [2]	59.5 [2]	12.5 [2]
1934	41.8	46.7 [1]	4.2 [2]	21.2 [2]	65.3 [2]	9.3 [2]
1934: Jan. .	40.7	*	*	*	*	*
Feb. .	42.2	*	*	*	*	*
March .	42.7	*	6.3	22.4	62.0	9.3
April .	42.0	*	*	*	*	*
May .	42.1	*	*	*	*	*
June .	41.5	*	4.3	19.5	66.4	9.8
July .	41.5	*	*	*	*	*
Aug. .	41.7	*	*	*	*	*
Sept. .	41.8	*	4.1	22.9	64.1	8 9
Oct. .	41.7	*	*	*	*	*
Nov. .	42.0	46.7 [1]	*	*	*	*
Dec. .	41.2	*	—	—	—	—

[1] Figures for November. — [2] Average of the 2nd and the 3rd quarters of the year.

TABLE VII. — ACTUAL HOURS OF WORK, BY INDUSTRIES

Germany. — *A. Returns of the German Labour Front: Percentage of workers working weekly:* a = *under 40 hours;* b = *40 to under 48 hours;* c = *48 hours and more*

Date	A			B								
	Agriculture, forestry, stock raising			Coal mines			Lignite mines			Ores		
	a	*b*	*c*	*a*	*b*	*c*	*a*	*b*	*c*	*a*	*b*	*c*
1934: March	2.0	15.8	82.2	24.9	55.3	19.8	31.4	55.6	13.0	3.0	54.0	43.0
June	1.5	9.6	88.9	22.0	63.1	14.9	19.9	65.9	14.2	1.6	44.6	53.8
Sept.	1.2	7.1	91.7	22.1	62.1	15.8	13.0	74.5	12.5	3.4	54.1	42.5

Date	C			D			E			F		
	Metallurgy and mechanical engineering			Stone and earth (and glass)			Building			Wood (including furnishing, musical instruments, carriage bodies, etc.)		
	a	*b*	*c*	*a*	*b*	*c*	*a*	*b*	*c*	*a*	*b*	*c*
1934: March	16.7	29.6	53.7	9.2	78.6	12.2	2.4	59.5	38.1	11.6	35.8	52.6
June	13.2	38.6	48.2	9.0	78.5	12.5	1.9	47.8	50.3	7.1	33.7	59.2
Sept.	11.6	39.8	48.6	9.5	77.0	13.5	2.2	42.4	55.4	6.0	34.0	60.0

Date	G						H			I		
	Paper (and book binding)			Printing			Textiles			Clothing (and boots)		
	a	*b*	*c*	*a*	*b*	*c*	*a*	*b*	*c*	*a*	*b*	*c*
1934: March	16.2	66.2	17.6	14.6	32.0	53.4	22.7	43.4	33.9	32.4	40.1	27.5
June	12.9	70.9	16.2	12.7	32.1	55.2	19.8	43.9	36.3	28.0	43.0	29.0
Sept.	14.9	67.3	17.8	15.1	31.5	53.4	53.5	29.6	16.9	28.7	46.1	25.2

Date	J						K			L		
	Leather (skins) and linoleum			Rubber			Chemical industry			Food, drink (and tobacco)		
	a	*b*	*c*	*a*	*b*	*c*	*a*	*b*	*c*	*a*	*b*	*c*
1934: March	35.3	48.9	15.8	17.9	20.7	61.4	12.1	80.6	7.3	13.9	34.7	51.4
June	23.8	53.7	22.5	15.4	22.0	62.6	6.2	91.2	2.6	8.6	36.2	55.2
Sept.	21.4	59.9	18.7	6.6	28.6	64.8	4.4	85.9	9.7	6.5	35.3	58.2

Date	M, N			Q			T			Z		
	Land and air transport and shipping			Municipal services			Hotels and restaurants			All groups [1]		
	a	*b*	*c*	*a*	*b*	*c*	*a*	*b*	*c*	*a*	*b*	*c*
1934: March	3.4	20.0	76.6	5.9	25.6	68.5	2.1	7.7	90.2	11.8	38.1	50.1
June	3.3	20.0	76.7	4.6	25.4	70.0	3.5	8.7	87.0	9.7	39.5	50.8
Sept.	3.3	18.6	78.1	4.4	24.6	71.0	3.8	7.0	89.2	11.9	36.6	51.5

[1] Including also the group " miscellaneous " not given in the table.

TABLE VII. — ACTUAL HOURS OF WORK, BY INDUSTRIES *(continued)*

Germany. — *B. Employers' returns: Average hours of work per worker per day*

Date	C					D, E	H	L		Z
	Metals									
	Heavy industries (iron)	Blast furnaces and rolling mills (not iron)	Mechanical engineering	Electrical engineering	Construction of vehicles [1]	Building and building materials	Textiles	Food	Drink and tobacco	All groups [2]
1928: June [3]	8.25	*	8.23	7.26	7.71	7.95	7.17	7.78	8.04	7.61
Dec.	7.72	7.87	8.08	7.25	7.38	7.36	7.38	8.04	7.65	7.52
1929: June	8.30	7.88	8.10	7.56	7.86	7.94	7.53	7.98	7.78	7.78
Dec.	7.99	7.81	7.78	7.21	7.11	7.24	7.58	8.21	8.03	7.57
1930: June	7.53	7.56	7.62	7.19	7.22	7.78	6.71	7.83	7.44	7.36
Dec.	7.40	7.85	6.87	6.99	6.98	7.03	6.95	7.90	8.08	7.16
1931: June	7.57	6.84	7.07	6.52	7.28	7.77	7.13	7.51	7.36	7.28
Dec.	6.11	6.97	6.40	6.07	6.44	6.80	7.09	7.96	6.81	6.83
1932: June	6.71	6.81	6.68	5.73	6.82	7.60	6.67	7.41	6.95	6.94
Dec.	6.41	7.00	6.75	6.26	6.51	6.90	7.08	7.58	7.12	6.93
1933: June	7.23	7.11	6.97	6.43	7.49	7.73	6.94	7.54	7.13	7.26
Dec.	7.31	7.58	7.25	7.33	7.23	7.11	7.31	7.75	7.27	7.33
1934: March	7.49	7.43	7.58	7.08	7.58	7.73	7.48	7.62	7.17	7.44
June	7.66	7.53	7.80	7.30	7.60	7.80	7.43	7.60	7.27	7.46
Sept.	7.61	7.40	7.80	7.38	6.88	7.77	6.74	7.66	7.43	7.38
Dec.	7.83	7.86	7.90	7.61	7.42	7.22	7.08	7.82	7.71	7.44

[1] Not including construction of railway wagons and shipbuilding. — [2] Including a certain number of industries not given in the table. — [3] July.

Austria. — *Employers' returns: Percentage of workers working weekly:* a = *up to 40 hours;* b = *over 40 to under 48 hours;* c = *48 hours and over;* d = *hours unknown*

Date [1]	B, C				C				D, E			
	Mines, blast furnaces and rolling mills				Iron and other metals				Building and building materials			
	a	*b*	*c*	*d*	*a*	*b*	*c*	*d*	*a*	*b*	*c*	*d*
1929: Jan.	0.5	0	99.5	0	1.6	0	97.7	0.7	1.8	5.2	88.9	4.1
1930: „	0	0	100.0	0	2.3	0.8	95.6	1.3	1.1	2.0	96.6	0.3
1931: „	0	0	98.6	1.4	25.4	2.4	69.0	3.2	9.5	5.8	83.6	1.1
1932: Jan.	9.8	0	90.2	0	26.3	5.2	60.1	8.4	6.5	11.7	79.8	2.0
July	28.4	0	66.3	5.3	28.9	3.4	59.0	8.7	1.6	0	97.8	0.6
1933: Jan.	2.7	0	97.3	0	35.3	2.8	53.8	8.1	6.5	3.4	89.3	0.8
July	0	0	100.0	0	22.8	8.0	63.5	5.7	3.0	0.5	96.4	0.1

Date [1]	F				G				H, I			
	Wood and wood products				Paper and printing				Textiles and clothing			
	a	*b*	*c*	*d*	*a*	*b*	*c*	*d*	*a*	*b*	*c*	*d*
1929: Jan.	0	0	84.8	15.2	0.6	0	99.2	0.2	8.5	0.2	87.0	4.3
1930: „	4.3	0	95.5	0.2	1.8	0	97.4	0.8	9.5	0.1	88.1	2.3
1931: „	5.5	17.8	76.6	0.1	1.5	0	95.1	3.4	32.4	1.8	61.7	4.1
1932: Jan.	2.2	21.6	76.2	0	1.9	0	96.9	1.2	12.2	3.2	81.8	2.8
July	8.6	11.9	79.4	0.1	3.4	3.0	91.4	2.2	6.5	3.7	75.9	13.9
1933: Jan.	54.6	15.8	29.3	0.3	8.0	5.0	86.1	0.9	23.6	9.4	60.7	6.3
July	5.4	6.6	87.3	0.7	3.3	2.1	92.2	2.4	9.7	0.8	87.1	2.4

[1] First week of the month.

TABLE VII. — ACTUAL HOURS OF WORK, BY INDUSTRIES *(continued)*

Austria. — *Employers' returns: Percentage of workers working weekly:* a = *up to 40 hours;* b = *over 40 to under 48 hours;* c = *48 hours and over;* d = *hours unknown* (concluded)

Date [1]	I, J Leather industry and boot manufacture				J, K Chemical products and rubber industry			
	a	*b*	*c*	*d*	*a*	*b*	*c*	*d*
1929: Jan.	0	0	97.0	3.0	0	0	100.0	0
1930: ,,	0	0	100.0	0	0	0.4	99.6	0
1931: ,,	5.3	0	88.2	6.5	14.0	1.4	84.6	0
1932: Jan.	3.8	0	96.2	0	18.4	0	81.5	0.1
July	21.1	0.9	77.7	0.3	4.6	3.0	91.7	0.7
1933: Jan.	36.4	4.9	53.0	5.7	26.0	7.2	66.8	0
July	24.2	6.5	69.3	0	22.9	5.9	70.8	0.4

Date [1]	L Food, drink, and tobacco				Z All groups			
	a	*b*	*c*	*d*	*a*	*b*	*c*	*d*
1929: Jan.	0	0	99.7	0.3	2.5	0.5	95.0	2.0
1930: ,,	0	0	99.7	0.3	3.0	0.5	95.4	1.1
1931: ,,	0	0	99.9	0.1	16.5	2.2	78.7	2.6
1932: Jan.	0	0	99.8	0.2	13.0	3.6	79.8	3.6
July	1.7	0	97.5	0.8	12.8	2.4	78.9	5.9
1933: Jan.	4.2	0.2	95.1	0.5	20.2	4.2	71.6	4.0
July	3.5	6.7	88.7	1.1	11.4	4.3	81.7	2.6

[1] First week of the month.

Estonia. — *Employers' returns: Average hours of work per male worker per day:* a = *undertakings employing 20 workers and over;* b = *undertakings employing from 5 to 19 workers*

Date	B Mining and quarrying		C Metals		D Stone and earth works		E Building		F Wood	
	a	*b*	*a*	*b*	*a*	*b*	*a*	*b*	*a*	*b*
1927: 1st half-year	7.78	*	7.80	7.90	7.67	7.97	7.90	7.69	7.66	7.75
2nd ,, ,,	7.81	*	7.80	7.80	7.75	7.89	7.76	7.83	7.69	7.81
1928: 1st ,, ,,	7.97	*	7.75	7.83	7.77	7.89	7.89	7.98	7.72	7.81
2nd ,, ,,	7.93	*	7.84	7.78	7.79	7.75	7.85	7.82	7.75	7.78
1929: 1st ,, ,,	7.90	*	7.79	7.82	7.84	7.90	7.50	7.88	7.72	7.89
2nd ,, ,,	7.86	*	7.82	7.72	7.87	7.98	7.88	7.88	7.74	7.85
1930: 1st ,, ,,	7.89	8.00	7.75	7.71	7.69	7.89	7.58	7.90	7.80	7.96
2nd ,, ,,	7.91	7.97	7.69	7.75	7.71	7.85	7.51	7.84	7.80	7.74
1931: 1st ,, ,,	7.89	6.32	7.71	7.73	7.80	7.82	7.39	7.91	7.85	7.81
2nd ,, ,,	7.92	7.78	7.79	7.76	7.85	7.89	7.83	7.91	7.88	7.66
1932: 1st ,, ,,	7.76	6.75	7.75	7.58	7.87	7.94	7.75	7.84	7.82	7.78
2nd ,, ,,	7.83	7.93	7.76	7.56	7.81	7.91	7.60	7.68	7.87	7.79

TABLE VII. — ACTUAL HOURS OF WORK, BY INDUSTRIES *(continued)*

Estonia. — *Employers' returns: Average hours of work per male worker per day:* a = *undertakings employing 20 workers and over;* b = *undertakings employing from 5 to 19 workers* (concluded)

Date	G				H		I		J	
	Paper		Printing		Textiles		Clothing and haberdashery		Leather and skins	
	a	*b*	*a*	*b*	*a*	*b*	*a*	*b*	*a*	*b*
1927: 1st half-year	7.54	7.89	7.61	7.75	7.65	7.94	7.95	7.99	7.95	7.85
2nd " "	7.25	7.65	7.76	7.75	7.56	7.87	7.93	7.93	7.85	7.89
1928: 1st " "	7.42	7.66	7.82	7.77	7.72	7.87	7.97	7.85	7.88	7.88
2nd " "	7.75	7.57	7.85	7.79	7.74	7.91	7.95	7.89	7.85	7.88
1929: 1st " "	7.94	7.90	7.78	7.79	7.68	7.73	7.79	8.92	7.86	7.83
2nd " "	7.87	7.97	7.73	7.75	7.67	7.88	7.75	7.92	7.82	7.93
1930: 1st " "	7.69	8.00	7.75	7.78	7.67	7.82	7.78	7.83	7.80	7.89
2nd " "	7.96	7.89	7.74	7.71	7.66	7.75	7.81	7.67	7.82	7.76
1931: 1st " "	7.73	7.84	7.68	7.75	7.69	7.83	7.86	7.73	7.76	7.89
2nd " "	7.96	7.88	7.74	7.74	7.77	7.87	7.79	7.77	7.77	7.89
1932: 1st " "	7.90	7.75	7.70	7.64	7.83	7.87	7.70	7.73	7.75	7.92
2nd	7.86	7.93	7.76	7.76	7.86	7.90	7.83	7.83	7.82	7.89

Date	K		L		O		T		Z	
	Chemical industry		Food and drink		Water, gas, and electricity supply		Cleaning		All groups	
	a	*b*	*a*	*b*	*a*	*b*	*a*	*b*	*a*	*b*
1927: 1st half-year	7.90	7.14	7.81	7.88	7.76	7.63	7.86	7.91	7.71	7.71
2nd " "	7.80	7.73	7.84	7.79	7.70	7.80	7.89	7.96	7.67	7.79
1928: 1st " "	7.77	7.82	7.85	7.85	7.60	7.65	7.46	7.34	7.74	7.83
2nd " "	7.88	7.73	7.89	7.83	7.85	7.77	7.88	7.97	7.81	7.80
1929: 1st " "	7.84	7.82	7.78	7.82	7.66	7.88	7.87	7.83	7.78	7.84
2nd " "	7.90	7.81	7.83	7.98	7.46	7.92	7.86	8.00	7.80	7.86
1930: 1st " "	7.85	7.64	7.77	7.88	7.68	7.96	7.14	7.95	7.75	7.84
2nd " "	7.91	7.81	7.85	7.86	7.85	7.91	6.68	7.91	7.77	7.78
1931: 1st " "	7.84	7.85	7.82	7.75	7.68	7.58	7.74	7.84	7.75	7.76
2nd " "	7.91	7.83	7.83	7.78	7.84	7.74	7.80	7.89	7.84	7.78
1932: 1st " "	7.93	7.81	7.84	7.83	7.60	7.58	7.77	8.34	7.80	7.77
2nd " "	7.83	7.84	7.89	7.79	7.53	7.82	7.80	7.98	7.80	7.78

United States. — *A. Employers' returns (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics): Average hours of work per worker per week*

Date	B				C				
	Anthracite coal mining	Bituminous coal mining	Metalliferous mining	Crude-petroleum producing	Blast furnaces, steel-works, rolling mills	Foundry and machine shop products	Electrical machinery, apparatus and supplies	Engines, turbines, tractors, etc.	Structural and ornamental metal work
1932: Dec.	32.0	30.5	39.3	45.0	24.9	29.3	31.1	32.6	30.7
1933: June	30.7	28.5	39.9	50.4	37.8	35.7	37.9	37.3	35.2
Dec.	29.8	29.9	38.8	35.1	30.0	33.1	31.8	37.1	32.6
1934: March	43.7	34.0	38.7	35.1	34.2	36.0	33.7	36.9	32.4
June	31.7	26.2	37.4	34.0	37.2	35.6	35.0	38.2	34.7
Sept.	29.2	23.6	34.6	34.4	24.1	32.5	32.2	36.2	32.9
Dec.	30.5	26.5	36.4	34.4	29.1	34.7	35.4	37.8	32.3

TABLE VII. — ACTUAL HOURS OF WORK, BY INDUSTRIES *(continued)*

United States. — *A. Employers' returns (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics): Average hours of work per worker per week* (concluded)

Date	C		D			F			G
	Ship-building	Auto-mobiles	Ce-ment	Brick, tile, and terra cotta	Glass	Lumber (saw-mills)	Lumber (mill-work)	Fur-niture	Paper and pulp
1932: Dec.	33.4	34.3	35.0	29.3	35.3	34.3	34.8	34.7	38.7
1933: June	31.2	40.7	38.7	36.7	40.9	43.5	43.1	39.7	45.6
Dec.	31.2	30.4	28.5	30.1	34.0	33.1	34.5	33.0	35.3
1934: March	31.0	39.5	31.9	30.7	34.9	34.8	35.5	34.5	36.9
June	31.3	32.3	35.6	33.1	33.5	34.1	34.2	34.6	35.9
Sept.	30.5	25.7	32.9	31.5	32.4	33.8	33.6	35.5	36.1
Dec.	30.5	35.3	30.3	31.4	34.4	32.9	35.6	36.3	37.1

Date	G		H			I			J		K
	Printing and publishing (book and job)	Printing and publishing (news-papers and period-icals)	Cot-ton goods	Silk and rayon goods	Wool-len and worsted goods	Knit goods	Men's cloth-ing	Boots and shoes	Lea-ther	Rubber tyres and inner tubes	Rayon and allied pro-ducts
1932: Dec.	37.2	41.4	45.6	41.2	45.3	46.0	*	*	42.8	29.7	46.1
1933: June	37.1	40.9	49.2	42.2	48.3	46.7	*	*	47.1	42.1	44.9
Dec.	36.6	36.9	33.5	31.7	34.3	33.9	*	*	38.2	29.5	37.9
1934: March	36.4	36.8	35.6	34.6	34.6	35.7	32.2	37.8	37.4	33.5	37.5
June	35.6	37.0	28.8	32.9	32.2	33.6	29.3	35.8	37.6	30.3	37.4
Sept.	35.7	37.1	33.9	28.7	30.8	32.5	26.7	33.5	35.1	28.8	36.4
Dec.	37.3	37.7	35.5	34.5	36.9	35.2	25.1	33.0	37.3	33.4	38.1

Date	K				L				
	Chemi-cals	Petro-leum refining	Fertilisers	Paints and varnishes	Slaughtering and meat packing	Flour	Baking	Bever-ages	Tobacco (cigars and cigarettes)
1932: Dec.	40.9	38.8	44.0	39.9	46.0	47.3	45.7	39.0	39.9
1933: June	44.5	39.7	43.7	47.6	48.2	47.6	47.0	47.7	42.3
Dec.	39.7	35.8	33.1	38.2	40.2	38.1	40.8	38.2	36.9
1934: March	38.7	34.9	33.0	39.0	38.6	38.7	40.9	38.8	33.7
June	38.6	34.7	31.8	39.4	40.3	38.8	41.7	40.0	35.3
Sept.	37.8	34.0	34.7	37.2	43.0	39.3	40.5	38.2	35.5
Dec.	38.7	34.6	34.3	37.9	40.1	38.0	39.7	35.8	36.5

Date	M	O	P	S		T	C to L	Z
	Electric railroads and motorbus	Electric light and power and manuf. of gas	Tele-phone and telegraph	Trade (whole-sale)	Trade (retail)	Laun-dries	All manufac-turing in-dustries [1]	All groups
1932: Dec.	46.4	44.1	38.7	46.9	44.4	42.2	38.4	41.5
1933: June	46.5	46.0	37.5	47.2	44.8	42.8	42.6	43.3
Dec.	45.3	43.0	37.4	41.9	41.9	37.9	34.2	37.7
1934: March	46.1	40.1	37.9	42.3	39.0	39.0	36.3	37.9
June	45.8	38.8	38.3	41.2	39.7	39.9	34.9	37.0
Sept.	44.5	37.2	38.4	40.6	40.1	39.4	33.3	36.2
Dec.	45.6	38.7	38.2	41.0	41.6	39.2	35.2	37.8

[1] Including a certain number of industries not given in the table.

TABLE VII. — ACTUAL HOURS OF WORK, BY INDUSTRIES *(continued)*

United States. — *B. Employers' returns (National Industrial Conference Board): Average hours of work per worker per week*

Date	C					F	
	Iron and steel	Foundries and machine shops	Automobiles	Agricultural implements	Electrical manufacturing	Lumber and millwork	Furniture
1927: 2nd qr.	53.3	48.2	48.2	49.2	45.5	47.5	46.8
4th „	51.7	47.0	43.6	49.4	44.5	48.1	48.4
1928: 2nd „	54.3	47.9	49.6	49.7	46.8	48.0	44.8
4th „	54.4	48.9	43.4	50.3	45.7	46.4	47.9
1929: 2nd „	55.5	49.6	48.2	49.7	48.5	45.4	46.1
4th „	53.5	48.8	43.0	49.1	46.2	44.0	47.1
1930: 2nd „	51.0	44.7	42.2	47.3	45.2	45.4	41.8
4th „	44.7	38.9	38.0	38.1	38.7	42.2	41.6
1931: 2nd „	43.2	37.7	41.9	33.6	36.0	43.4	39.1
4th „	42.4	33.6	33.6	35.7	33.7	36.5	40.2
1932: 2nd „	27.1	29.6	29.6	31.3	28.0	37.4	30.6
4th „	27.0	30.4	34.2	33.6	30.6	37.0	35.7
1933: 2nd „	34.4	32.7	37.6	34.2	34.0	36.9	34.2
4th „	33.6	33.7	31.9	37.3	33.0	34.3	35.4
1934: March	36.4	36.3	39.4	39.2	33.7	34.9	34.3
June	35.7	36.0	31.9	38.1	34.9	36.2	32.4
Sept.	22.6	33.9	28.5	38.4	32.8	36.5	36.5
Dec.	27.5	35.2	34.5	39.4	34.4	34.3	34.0

Date	G				H		
	Paper and pulp	Paper products (manufacturing)	Printing (book and job)	Printing (news and magazines)	Cotton (North)	Silk	Wool
1927: 2nd qr.	51.4	47.3	46.3	46.0	47.6	45.6	44.8
4th „	51.8	48.3	46.7	46.0	47.4	47.2	45.1
1928: 2nd „	50.6	47.4	46.2	45.0	46.2	44.9	42.0
4th „	50.9	48.5	46.5	45.5	46.8	47.7	46.9
1929: 2nd „	52.1	49.8	46.1	45.8	49.2	47.2	46.3
4th „	52.3	50.7	45.6	45.8	46.4	48.1	45.4
1930: 2nd „	50.7	49.0	44.6	44.9	45.3	43.4	41.4
4th „	46.3	44.7	43.7	45.5	44.7	45.1	41.3
1931: 2nd „	44.8	45.5	42.2	44.0	47.3	43.4	43.9
4th „	42.2	45.0	40.9	43.7	41.8	42.6	37.2
1932: 2nd „	41.3	40.4	38.4	42.4	38.2	31.8	34.8
4th „	40.5	42.2	39.4	42.1	45.8	41.2	43.1
1933: 2nd „	42.0	42.5	38.3	40.3	47.0	40.0	41.8
4th „	38.2	36.8	37.1	37.1	35.1	34.2	34.9
1934: March	37.5	37.0	36.0	38.2	36.7	32.1	35.2
June	37.7	37.2	36.4	36.0	34.4	30.3	33.4
Sept.	37.4	35.2	36.9	35.9	35.0	29.3	29.2
Dec.	38.4	37.2	38.9	36.9	36.6	34.6	34.9

TABLE VII. — ACTUAL HOURS OF WORK, BY INDUSTRIES *(continued)*

United States. — *B. Employers' returns (National Industrial Conference Board): Average hours of work per worker per week* (concluded)

Date	I		J		K		L	Z
	Hosiery and knit goods	Boot and shoe	Leather (tanning and finishing)	Rubber	Paint and varnish	Chemical	Meat packing	All groups
1927: 2nd qr.	47.2	45.3	44.9	46.1	51.1	49.7	49.9	47.9
4th „	47.4	44.1	46.7	44.2	50.9	50.2	50.5	47.2
1928: 2nd „	46.7	43.2	44.7	45.6	50.0	50.0	50.3	47.7
4th „	47.7	44.3	45.2	45.7	51.1	50.5	51.0	47.9
1929: 2nd „	48.1	42.3	46.9	47.3	52.7	50.0	51.0	48.6
4th „	48.1	44.5	48.9	41.0	51.0	50.2	50.7	47.4
1930: 2nd „	41.9	40.5	45.6	43.5	50.7	48.1	50.6	45.1
4th „	44.4	39.3	42.3	36.6	44.7	47.4	49.8	41.7
1931: 2nd „	42.7	45.6	46.9	43.3	46.8	45.8	48.7	42.0
4th „	42.4	41.7	43.2	32.3	41.5	41.7	50.0	38.1
1932: 2nd „	33.9	38.5	37.8	34.2	42.5	40.5	48.2	33.6
4th „	44.1	41.7	43.9	30.9	41.1	41.8	48.6	36.1
1933: 2nd „	40.4	41.5	43.8	34.8	43.1	39.2	48.9	37.5
4th „	37.5	35.6	38.8	32.2	39.0	37.7	40.5	34.7
1934: March	34.8	39.4	36.3	35.8	39.2	37.7	38.7	36.4
June	34.8	37.9	37.5	31.6	40.3	37.6	41.7	35.4
Sept.	35.6	36.5	35.6	29.8	37.6	38.4	43.3	33.3
Dec.	37.9	35.5	37.2	32.6	39.0	39.3	39.9	35.0

France. — *Returns of labour inspectors: Percentage of workers working weekly:* a = *under 40 hours;* b = *40 to under 48 hours;* c = *48 hours and more*

Date [1]	B			C					
	Mining, quarrying			Iron and steel			Metal working (ordinary metals)		
	a	*b*	*c*	*a*	*b*	*c*	*a*	*b*	*c*
1929: Dec.	*	*	*	0.1	0.4	99.5	— [2]	— [2]	— [2]
1930: June	0.1	5.2	94.7	0	0	100.0	0	2.1	97.9
Dec.	2.0	25.4	72.6	0	1.8	98.2	0.8	28.1	71.1
1931: June	16.3	54.3	29.4	1.0	21.0	78.0	3.1	23.4	73.5
Dec.	27.8	58.4	13.8	15.8	40.3	43.9	17.6	36.6	45.8
1932: June	62.8	23.3	13.9	21.3	44.1	34.6	17.2	37.0	45.8
Dec.	34.2	53.8	12.0	14.1	45.7	40.2	14.7	33.8	51.5
1933: June	41.5	40.5	18.0	8.9	37.1	54.0	10.8	31.4	57.8
Dec.	9.8	71.8	17.4	7.4	42.2	50.4	11.2	36.5	52.3
1934: March	40.9	46.5	12.6	9.9	41.1	49.0	11.0	35.8	53.2
June	49.9	36.7	13.4	13.4	38.5	48.1	8.9	32.9	58.2
Sept.	31.1	55.7	13.2	10.6	42.8	46.6	9.4	35.7	54.9
Dec.	10.2	70.8	19.0	8.9	47.8	43.3	13.7	38.6	47.7

Date [1]	C			D						E		
	Metal working (precious metals)			Pottery, etc.			Stone-cutting, moulding			Navvying, and stone construction		
	a	*b*	*c*	*a*	*b*	*c*	*a*	*b*	*c*	*a*	*b*	*c*
1929: Dec.	0	0	100.0	0.6	0.8	98.6	*	*	*	0	1.9	98.1
1930: June	1.4	2.7	95.9	1.6	1.1	97.3	0	0	100.0	0.2	0	99.8
Dec.	7.7	31.0	61.3	3.8	6.8	89.4	0	0	100.0	0.4	2.8	96.8
1931: June	18.5	35.7	45.8	7.7	12.1	80.2	0	11.1	88.9	0.1	0.6	99.3
Dec.	39.3	37.4	23.3	14.3	25.6	60.1	16.3	1.1	82.6	0.8	9.0	90.2
1932: June	31.2	48.0	20.8	21.8	25.4	52.8	16.9	15.6	67.5	0.2	2.5	97.3
Dec.	26.7	55.6	17.7	18.2	25.3	56.5	15.7	13.9	70.4	0.4	9.6	90.0
1933: June	24.0	51.8	24.2	15.2	24.0	60.8	0	15.7	84.3	0.1	2.8	97.1
Dec.	24.9	51.8	23.3	12.5	23.5	64.0	15.5	15.8	68.7	1.0	6.7	92.3
1934: March	19.1	66.9	14.0	19.1	22.3	58.6	10.1	17.8	72.1	0.6	4.8	94.6
June	10.4	66.9	22.7	18.1	23.3	58.6	21.1	32.1	46.8	0	3.9	96.1
Sept.	8.2	62.7	29.1	16.8	28.4	54.8	21.9	41.7	36.4	0.2	3.1	96.7
Dec.	11.6	49.0	39.4	22.7	25.7	51.6	26.1	51.0	22.9	0.8	5.0	94.2

[1] Beginning of the following month. — [2] Percentage included under iron and steel.

TABLE VII. — ACTUAL HOURS OF WORK, BY INDUSTRIES *(continued)*

France. — *Returns of labour inspectors: Percentage of workers working weekly:* a = *under 40 hours;* b = *40 to under 48 hours;* c = *48 hours and more* (concluded)

Date [1]	F			G, J			G			H		
	Wood			Paper, cardboard, rubber			Books			Textiles		
	a	*b*	*c*	*a*	*b*	*c*	*a*	*b*	*c*	*a*	*b*	*c*
1929: Dec. . .	0.2	2.3	97.5	0.1	1.5	98.4	0	0	100.0	0.3	2.3	97.4
1930: June . .	0.1	2.1	97.8	0	0.1	99.9	0	1.6	98.4	0.3	2.7	97.0
Dec. . .	4.5	7.0	88.5	1.2	12.3	86.5	0	3.9	96.1	5.4	11.3	83.3
1931: June . .	7.4	15.7	76.9	1.9	14.9	83.2	0.2	7.6	92.2	16.6	29.1	54.3
Dec. . .	12.7	31.3	56.0	5.2	31.6	63.2	8.7	18.3	73.0	44.9	27.3	27.8
1932: June . .	12.0	25.6	62.4	11.4	26.0	62.6	2.6	14.9	82.5	35.0	28.9	36.1
Dec. . .	9.2	28.1	62.7	4.7	25.1	70.2	1.9	17.6	80.5	13.7	24.1	62.2
1933: June . .	5.6	22.7	71.7	3.8	21.2	75.0	1.0	15.1	83.9	9.9	27.7	62.4
Dec. . .	8.5	23.4	68.1	3.1	31.5	65.4	3.0	13.0	84.0	11.5	25.2	63.3
1934: March .	9.3	32.0	58.7	6.5	34.4	59.1	1.6	15.5	82.9	18.1	25.1	56.8
June . .	8.4	26.2	65.4	6.9	23.3	69.8	3.1	18.9	78.0	23.6	38.4	38.0
Sept. . .	9.8	26.3	63.9	6.7	26.7	66.6	2.5	15.4	82.1	37.5	32.9	29.6
Dec. . .	10.5	29.4	60.1	6.1	27.4	66.5	1.7	16.3	82.0	39.7	31.1	29.2

Date [1]	I			J			K			L		
	Clothing, etc.			Leather skins			Chemicals			Food		
	a	*b*	*c*	*a*	*b*	*c*	*a*	*b*	*c*	*a*	*b*	*c*
1929: Dec. . .	0.9	11.3	87.8	1.3	2.5	96.2	0.3	3.6	96.1	0	2.7	97.3
1930: June . .	0	4.1	95.9	4.9	2.3	92.8	1.8	1.9	96.3	0	3.3	96.7
Dec. . .	3.4	19.7	76.9	3.4	8.0	88.6	0.2	11.7	88.1	1.2	6.7	92.1
1931: June . .	2.7	18.0	79.3	13.0	17.8	69.2	3.8	14.7	81.5	1.0	9.2	89.8
Dec. . .	11.7	28.3	60.0	24.7	19.9	55.4	7.3	18.1	74.6	5.0	16.8	78.2
1932: June . .	5.1	26.1	68.8	15.7	30.5	53.8	5.0	19.6	75.4	1.9	19.9	78.2
Dec. . .	4.4	25.4	70.2	8.5	27.1	64.4	1.7	21.2	77.1	2.6	19.7	77.7
1933: June . .	1.4	24.6	74.0	7.7	27.6	64.7	3.5	18.6	77.9	4.3	22.3	73.4
Dec. . .	6.9	20.6	72.5	10.9	23.9	65.2	3.8	19.5	76.7	2.1	20.6	77.3
1934: March .	7.9	14.9	77.2	12.0	23.5	64.5	5.0	21.3	73.7	6.1	20.8	73.1
June . .	7.7	26.0	66.3	18.3	26.3	55.4	1.6	25.3	73.1	5.7	19.9	74.4
Sept. . .	10.4	17.6	72.0	13.0	37.3	49.7	3.3	22.6	74.1	3.5	18.9	77.6
Dec. . .	10.5	28.8	60.7	13.8	33.8	52.4	3.7	23.6	72.7	4.3	20.5	75.2

Date [1]	M, N			S						Z		
	Transport			Commerce			Banking, insurance			All groups [2]		
	a	*b*	*c*	*a*	*b*	*c*	*a*	*b*	*c*	*a*	*b*	*c*
1929: Dec. . .	0	0	100.0	0.5	15.8	83.7	*	*	*	0.3	3.1	96.6
1930: June . .	0	0	100.0	0	2.0	98.0	0	0.9	99.1	0.3	2.4	97.3
Dec. . .	0	0	100.0	0	4.1	95.9	0	1.7	98.3	2.1	14.9	83.0
1931: June . .	0	0	100.0	0.1	5.4	94.5	0	0.5	99.5	7.3	23.2	69.5
Dec. . .	0	0	100.0	0.1	2.8	97.1	0	0.6	99.4	20.3	29.9	49.8
1932: June . .	0.9	0.2	98.9	0.6	6.8	92.6	0	0.8	99.2	22.5	25.7	51.8
Dec. . .	0	5.1	94.9	0.3	5.7	94.0	0	1.2	98.8	12.7	28.2	59.1
1933: June . .	0	0.2	99.8	0.5	5.5	94.0	0	0.7	99.3	11.4	25.4	63.2
Dec. . .	0	3.5	96.5	0.1	4.7	95.2	0	1.5	98.5	8.1	30.6	61.3
1934: March .	0	0	100.0	0.1	3.7	96.2	0	0.9	99.1	13.9	27.2	58.9
June . .	0	3.2	96.8	0.2	5.9	93.9	0	1.2	98.8	15.8	28.3	55.9
Sept. . .	0	3.6	96.4	0.1	5.2	94.7	0	1.0	99.0	16.2	30.5	53.3
Dec. . .	0	1.4	98.6	0.2	4.2	95.6	0	1.3	98.7	15.0	33.1	51.9

[1] Beginning of the following month. — [2] Including a certain number of industries not given in the table.

TABLE VII. — ACTUAL HOURS OF WORK, BY INDUSTRIES *(continued)*

Hungary. — *Employers' returns: Average hours of work per worker per day*

Date	C		D	F	G		H
	Iron and other metallurgy	Mechanical engineering	Stone, pottery and glass	Wood and bones	Paper	Printing	Textiles
1927	8:86	8.22	9.46	8.73	8.34	7.82	9.11
1928	8.72	8.44	9.30	8.76	8.47	7.96	9.38
1929	8.75	8.69	9.39	8.68	8.48	7.98	9.38
1930	8.85	8.34	8.96	8.54	8.70	7.96	9.25
1931	8.25	7.86	9.04	8.39	8.66	7.87	9.17
1932	8.09	7.62	8.92	8.39	8.60	6.51	9.38
1933	8.17	8.11	8.80	8.46	8.70	6.54	9.21

Date	I	J	K	L	O	Z
	Clothing	Leather, hair, feathers	Chemicals	Food	Electricity (public utility)	All groups
1927	8.17	8.25	8.85	9.28	8.70	8.86
1928	8.26	8.49	9.29	9.55	8.85	8.98
1929	8.18	8.45	9.35	9.22	8.80	8.97
1930	8.27	8.37	9.22	8.98	8.80	8.82
1931	8.15	8.68	8.96	8.83	8.65	8.64
1932	8.06	8.39	8.75	8.57	8.70	8.53
1933	8.33	8.39	8.87	8.62	8.64	8.59

Italy. — *A. Employers' returns (Ministry of Corporations): Percentage of workers working weekly:* a = *under 48 hours;* b = *48 hours;* c = *over 48 hours*

Date	C											
	Iron metallurgy			Foundries (second smelting)			Engineering shops (specialised)			Engineering shops (miscellaneous)		
	a	*b*	*c*	*a*	*b*	*c*	*a*	*b*	*c*	*a*	*b*	*c*
1928: June	4.3	76.2	19.5	12.4	58.3	29.3	5.3	76.7	18.0	8.3	74.1	17.6
Dec.	5.6	77.8	16.6	8.2	66.1	25.7	3.4	74.5	22.1	5.8	73.8	20.4
1929: June	5.7	75.6	18.7	7.7	64.9	27.4	6.1	70.2	23.7	5.4	72.4	22.2
Dec.	9.0	77.9	13.1	10.4	69.8	19.8	9.1	71.3	19.6	8.0	73.7	18.3
1930: June	9.3	76.1	14.6	18.6	63.7	17.7	12.7	65.4	21.9	14.5	68.1	17.4
Dec.	18.4	70.6	11.0	30.1	55.7	14.2	16.8	65.7	17.5	19.6	65.5	14.9
1931: June	21.8	68.9	9.3	32.6	54.5	12.9	19.7	60.4	19.9	19.8	64.3	15.9
Dec.	29.3	65.1	5.6	36.6	52.6	10.8	25.1	60.6	14.3	26.2	62.6	11.2
1932: June	29.2	64.7	6.1	37.5	51.7	10.8	27.3	59.6	13.1	27.0	61.5	11.5
Dec.	32.7	61.0	6.3	30.5	59.5	10.0	30.3	57.4	12.3	23.1	67.1	9.8
1933: June	16.7	75.3	8.0	24.3	65.4	10.3	17.3	67.8	14.9	17.1	70.1	12.8
Dec.	17.6	74.2	8.2	16.5	72.8	10.7	18.3	69.4	12.3	18.7	68.4	12.9
1934: March	16.6	74.4	9.0	27.3	61.1	11.6	18.9	69.5	11.6	18.6	70.7	10.7
June	16.9	72.8	10.3	16.0	69.6	14.4	17.6	68.4	14.0	18.2	68.7	13.1
Sept.	14.6	76.3	9.1	23.3	64.2	12.5	13.6	71.9	14.5	14.8	71.2	14.0
Dec.	54.5	41.1	4.4	72.2	23.8	4.0	56.9	35.2	7.9	66.5	27.2	6.3

TABLE VII. — ACTUAL HOURS OF WORK, BY INDUSTRIES *(continued)*

Italy. — *A. Employers' returns (Ministry of Corporations): Percentage of workers working weekly:* a = *under 48 hours;* b = *48 hours;* c = *over 48 hours* (continued)

Date	C											
	Automobiles			Railway material			Electrical material			Shipbuilding		
	a	*b*	*c*	*a*	*b*	*c*	*a*	*b*	*c*	*a*	*b*	*c*
1928: June	3.7	56.9	39.4	4.1	80.6	15.3	8.1	61.6	30.3	2.0	54.8	43.2
Dec.	10.4	81.1	8.5	3.6	74.6	21.8	2.9	62.3	34.8	1.9	48.2	49.9
1929: June	0.4	89.1	10.5	3.4	75.6	21.0	4.1	64.7	31.2	6.0	46.6	47.4
Dec.	26.1	65.4	8.5	7.2	74.9	17.9	2.9	64.7	32.4	2.0	55.0	43.0
1930: June	7.7	84.4	7.9	5.1	71.4	23.5	8.2	67.8	24.0	2.3	42.6	55.1
Dec.	55.3	40.1	4.6	5.9	70.2	23.9	12.0	66.1	21.9	4.4	47.9	47.7
1931: June	34.6	58.3	7.1	5.5	71.7	22.8	14.9	65.7	19.4	3.1	45.0	51.9
Dec.	40.2	56.6	3.2	14.3	77.8	7.9	14.1	69.7	16.2	7.3	63.5	29.2
1932: June	7.8	79.6	12.6	14.8	76.7	8.5	28.2	60.9	10.9	4.5	63.8	31.7
Dec.	31.4	61.4	7.2	14.8	75.2	10.0	22.2	62.1	15.7	7.0	75.0	18.0
1933: June	12.8	80.8	6.4	7.1	81.6	11.3	23.5	60.8	15.7	8.0	65.9	26.1
Dec.	30.4	64.2	5.4	13.2	73.6	13.2	14.5	67.6	17.9	11.3	61.8	26.9
1934: March	23.0	72.0	5.0	11.7	76.2	12.1	17.7	68.7	13.6	9.6	67.8	22.6
June	11.8	81.0	7.2	7.9	79.1	13.0	13.4	68.3	18.3	9.0	61.9	29.1
Sept.	7.5	87.4	5.1	10.1	75.4	14.5	11.4	64.4	24.2	9.0	65.0	26.0
Dec.	45.8	52.8	1.4	56.2	39.2	4.6	51.6	36.0	12.4	62.7	27.9	9.4

Date	G			H								
	Paper			Silk reeling and spinning			Artificial silk			Cotton		
	a	*b*	*c*	*a*	*b*	*c*	*a*	*b*	*c*	*a*	*b*	*c*
1928: June	11.2	82.3	6.5	11.0	67.9	21.1	8.8	90.4	0.8	15.8	80.3	3.9
Dec.	5.0	89.4	5.6	9.7	75.2	15.1	5.6	86.0	8.4	4.7	85.3	10.0
1929: June	5.1	86.7	8.2	8.8	69.4	21.8	3.9	87.0	9.1	7.7	84.4	7.9
Dec.	6.5	83.0	10.5	4.0	77.0	19.0	7.6	83.5	8.9	9.1	82.7	8.2
1930: June	9.7	80.4	9.9	4.5	76.9	18.6	21.1	73.1	5.8	46.3	51.0	2.7
Dec.	13.9	79.1	7.0	0.7	86.3	13.0	20.3	74.9	4.8	28.7	66.5	4.8
1931: June	14.5	78.8	6.7	7.0	75.5	17.5	15.7	75.8	8.5	34.7	60.5	4.8
Dec.	22.4	71.0	6.6	9.0	84.6	6.4	16.4	80.8	2.8	23.8	69.4	6.8
1932: June	28.6	67.2	4.2	4.0	85.4	10.6	53.0	46.8	0.2	35.4	61.5	3.1
Dec.	25.4	69.1	5.5	27.2	69.6	3.2	44.9	54.2	0.9	22.3	73.2	4.5
1933: June	24.5	71.8	3.7	17.8	74.9	7.3	38.0	59.3	2.7	22.4	74.5	3.1
Dec.	19.0	77.3	3.7	23.6	76.0	0.4	23.7	72.6	3.7	19.7	77.0	3.3
1934: March	19.2	76.7	4.1	20.2	78.9	0.9	23.9	73.0	3.1	26.3	70.2	3.5
June	15.8	79.3	4.9	16.0	83.1	0.9	21.0	73.7	5.3	56.1	42.9	1.0
Sept.	16.5	78.9	4.6	2.9	94.2	2.9	27.7	68.3	4.0	54.8	43.7	1.5
Dec.	76.9	21.9	1.2	50.1	49.3	0.6	69.8	27.6	2.6	85.9	13.5	0.6

Date	H			I			J					
	Wool			Clothing			Tanning			Rubber		
	a	*b*	*c*	*a*	*b*	*c*	*a*	*b*	*c*	*a*	*b*	*c*
1928: June	14.6	73.9	11.5	2.6	79.2	18.2	9.4	78.4	12.2	21.7	55.3	23.0
Dec.	13.2	70.3	16.5	1.7	70.6	27.7	7.5	80.5	12.0	2.2	67.3	30.5
1929: June	12.4	73.1	14.5	4.9	78.1	17.0	13.1	76.6	10.3	0.6	76.0	23.4
Dec.	13.9	71.1	15.0	8.6	74.8	16.6	14.6	77.3	8.1	20.0	59.6	20.4
1930: June	15.4	69.9	14.7	24.4	63.2	12.4	13.3	74.4	12.3	12.6	65.0	22.4
Dec.	30.4	56.7	12.9	15.4	69.7	14.9	16.0	70.4	13.6	8.9	72.9	18.2
1931: June	21.6	67.1	11.3	20.3	64.2	15.5	25.7	63.5	10.8	15.3	65.4	19.3
Dec.	25.7	61.6	12.7	18.8	66.7	14.5	18.5	68.3	13.2	19.1	63.8	17.1
1932: June	28.1	63.3	8.6	18.3	67.0	14.7	24.4	68.4	7.2	12.6	72.4	15.0
Dec.	27.1	63.3	9.6	17.7	72.5	9.8	15.2	73.7	11.1	7.0	79.3	13.7
1933: June	15.8	71.5	12.7	15.0	74.0	11.0	13.8	73.4	12.8	4.2	79.0	16.8
Dec.	20.7	67.8	11.5	32.7	58.9	8.4	14.2	72.1	13.7	17.9	67.7	14.4
1934: March	37.6	56.1	6.3	26.4	64.9	8.7	20.5	67.5	12.0	22.9	68.2	8.9
June	36.9	56.2	6.9	22.9	69.6	7.5	18.9	70.1	11.0	7.3	80.7	12.0
Sept.	45.6	47.9	6.5	26.2	65.1	8.7	15.4	74.4	10.2	9.8	80.0	10.2
Dec.	79.7	18.4	1.9	59.7	36.3	4.0	79.9	18.9	1.2	52.6	43.1	4.3

TABLE VII. — ACTUAL HOURS OF WORK, BY INDUSTRIES *(continued)*

Italy. — *A. Employers' returns (Ministry of Corporations): Percentage of workers working weekly:* a = *under 48 hours;* b = *48 hours;* c = *over 48 hours* (concluded)

Date	K			L			Z		
	Superphosphates			Macaroni			All groups [1]		
	a	*b*	*c*	*a*	*b*	*c*	*a*	*b*	*c*
1928: June	5.7	87.1	7.2	12.6	76.6	10.8	11.7	74.6	13.7
Dec.	7.8	81.3	10.9	8.0	80.1	11.9	7.0	76.7	16.3
1929: June	5.7	85.7	8.6	13.8	74.4	11.8	7.8	76.2	16.0
Dec.	5.9	83.0	11.1	16.6	72.2	11.2	10.6	75.3	14.1
1930: June	8.9	78.6	12.5	16.5	73.3	10.2	22.1	65.0	12.9
Dec.	10.5	83.0	6.5	18.4	71.4	10.2	21.3	66.8	11.9
1931: June	13.3	79.6	7.1	22.1	66.2	11.7	23.5	64.1	12.4
Dec.	11.9	82.7	5.4	16.4	72.8	10.8	24.0	66.7	9.3
1932: June	11.9	80.4	7.7	27.7	64.5	7.8	29.8	62.1	8.1
Dec.	8.3	85.2	6.5	18.2	69.8	12.0	26.6	65.8	7.6
1933: June	6.3	88.7	5.0	22.5	66.9	10.6	20.0	70.6	9.4
Dec.	7.9	84.4	7.7	20.8	67.8	11.4	21.1	70.3	8.6
1934: March	6.0	87.6	6.4	23.4	69.1	7.5	24.0	68.3	7.7
June	5.4	90.2	4.4	24.1	67.2	8.7	28.7	62.8	8.5
Sept.	5.3	86.7	8.0	22.6	64.8	12.6	27.8	63.5	8.7
Dec.	84.7	11.4	3.9	76.8	19.2	4.0	69.9	26.8	3.3

[1] Including a certain number of industries not given in the table.

B. Employers' returns (Fascist General Confederation of Industries): Average hours of work per worker per month

Dates	B, D		C	D				E	F
	Mining, quarrying		Machinery and metal working	Building materials				Construction and public works	Wood
	Mining	Marble and stone		Bricks and building materials	Cement, lime and plaster	Ceramic	Glass		
1928: June	173		199	184				107	171
Dec.	166		193	173				153	166
1929: June	181		198	179				173	175
Dec.	173		202	170				154	171
1930: June	175		194	179				170	171
Dec.	170		184	169				150	157
1931: June	179		194	172				160	173
Dec.	164		170	165				140	163
1932: June	171		180	172				169	175
Dec.	162		183	172				146	168
1933: June	159		188	174				159	162
Dec.	153		179	166				133	156
1934: March	191	142	192	149	185	182	182	150	172
June	178	147	188	172	196	186	182	163	176
Sept.	177	165	189	166	186	182	182	166	177
Dec.	167	133	167	133	159	169	179	130	149

TABLE VII. — ACTUAL HOURS OF WORK, BY INDUSTRIES *(continued)*

Italy. — *B. Employers' returns (Fascist General Confederation of Industries) : Average hours of work per worker per month* (concluded)

Date	G		H, I, J						
	Paper and printing		Textile and clothing (including leather and skins)						
	Paper	Printing	Cotton	Wool	Silk-worm culture	Silkreeling, spinning, etc.	Silk weaving	Linen, hemp, jute	Various textiles
1928: June	185					172			
Dec.	194					165			
1929: June	186					177			
Dec.	182					169			
1930: June	180					156			
Dec.	187					151			
1931: June	184					161			
Dec.	180					155			
1932: June	181					164			
Dec.	188					170			
1933: June	184					167			
Dec.	187					164			
1934: March	188	203	176	172	101	165	185	181	178
June	187	193	164	165	153	152	173	169	177
Sept.	185	193	158	159	152	167	160	177	171
Dec.	171	182	152	143	118	141	141	161	155

Date	H, I, J *(cont.)*					K			L
	Textile and clothing (including leather and skins) *(cont.)*					Chemicals and allied products			Agricultural and food products[3]
	Clothing	Hats	Tanning	Boots and leather working	Rubber[1]	Artificial textiles	Chemical and allied products	Chemical products for agriculture	Preserved food
1928: June	[2]					189			[4]
Dec.						205			
1929: June						192			
Dec.						185			
1930: June						183			
Dec.						179			
1931: June						186			
Dec.						184			
1932: June						184			
Dec.						189			
1933: June						183			
Dec.						184			
1934: March	198	149	184	176	185	189	197	207	179
June	174	140	181	154	206	184	193	203	196
Sept.	166	172	186	186	179	179	193	199	181
Dec.	150	119	156	132	178	170	168	176	166

[1] From 1928 to 1933, sub-group included in the averages for the group " various ".
[2] From 1928 to 1933, averages for the whole group, given in the second part of the table.
[3] From 1928 to 1933, averages including the sub-group " fishing ", not given in the table.
[4] From 1928 to 1933, averages for the whole group, given on the fourth part of the table.
[5] Including the sub-groups " gloves " and " buttons ", not given in the table, and the sub-group " rubber ", given under J (third part of the table).
[6] Including the sub-groups " fishing ", " gloves " and " buttons ", not given in the table since 1934.

TABLE VII. — ACTUAL HOURS OF WORK, BY INDUSTRIES *(continued)*

Italy.— *B. Employers' returns (Fascist General Confederation of Industries): Average hours of work per worker per month* (concluded)

Date	L *(cont.)*						O	W	Z
	Agricultural and food products [3]						Water and gas supply	Various [5]	All groups [6]
	Beer, aerated water,	Sweets	Milk and its products	Macaroni	Wines and liquors	Sugar			
	[4]								
1928: June	174						168	181	181
Dec.	178						169	167	174
1929: June	189						205	200	183
Dec.	189						204	188	177
1930: June	197						204	199	173
Dec.	179						194	193	164
1931: June	170						217	192	173
Dec.	175						216	174	162
1932: June	187						204	170	172
Dec.	184						208	179	172
1933: June	182						209	179	173
Dec.	180						210	163	166
1934: March	185	192	210	181	205	204	218	178	178
June	191	177	200	186	190	204	211	171	175
Sept.	174	187	188	184	169	209	209	175	176
Dec.	156	180	196	159	165	171	204	160	154

See notes, p. 58.

Japan. — *Employers' returns (Bank of Japan): Average hours of work per worker per day*

Date	B				C				
	Metal mining	Coal mining	Petroleum production	Total	Metal working	Mechanical engineering	Tools and instruments	Vehicles	Shipbuilding
1932: Dec.	8.62	8.90	9.95	8.88	10.08	10.50	9.70	10.22	10.02
1933: June	8.63	8.92	10.22	8.92	9.97	10.38	9.52	9.43	10.00
Dec.	8.55	9.00	9.72	8.90	10.15	10.60	9.73	9.92	10.27
1934: March	8.52	9.00	9.68	8.87	10.08	10.57	9.65	9.87	10.42
June	8.53	8.98	10.10	8.92	10.08	10.60	9.52	9.87	10.33
Sept.	8.63	8.98	10.07	8.95	10.10	10.48	9.58	9.73	10.12
Dec.	8.57	8.97	9.58	8.88	10.40	10.85	9.92	10.18	10.70

Date	D	F	G			H			
	Ceramic, glass, building materials	Wood	Paper making	Paper products	Printing and bookbinding	Silk reeling	Cotton spinning	Weaving	Dyeing, finishing
1932: Dec.	9.48	9.43	10.62	10.18	9.98	10.03	8.77	9.90	10.57
1933: June	9.47	9.55	10.63	9.72	9.60	10.02	8.87	9.90	10.48
Dec.	9.50	9.47	10.58	10.12	10.27	10.03	8.77	9.87	10.45
1934: March	9.53	9.52	10.58	10.15	10.00	10.02	8.78	9.92	10.48
June	9.58	9.72	10.62	10.03	9.67	10.02	8.83	9.95	10.60
Sept.	9.55	9.73	10.62	9.88	9.75	10.02	8.88	9.98	10.60
Dec.	9.57	9.67	10.58	10.50	10.55	10.00	8.77	9.93	10.57

TABLE VII. — ACTUAL HOURS OF WORK, BY INDUSTRIES *(continued)*

Japan. — *Employers' returns (Bank of Japan): Average hours of work per worker per day* (concluded)

Date	I			J	K			L	Z
	Braiding, knitting	Clothing	Leather goods	Rubber	Medical products	Dyestuffs, paints	Artificial manure	Food, drink	All groups [1]
1932: Dec.	9.98	9.67	9.52	10.08	9.18	9.40	10.37	9.42	9.82
1933: June	9.85	9.40	9.05	9.53	9.37	9.45	10.38	9.45	9.77
Dec.	9.93	9.30	9.15	9.70	9.25	9.50	10.42	9.40	9.83
1934: March	9.83	9.22	9.95	9.80	9.28	9.70	10.45	9.42	9.83
June	9.90	9.40	8.93	9.52	9.37	9.68	10.43	9.52	9.82
Sept.	9.88	9.67	9.27	9.80	9.33	9.68	10.32	9.57	9.85
Dec.	9.88	9.48	9.68	9.88	9.28	9.78	10.43	9.58	9.95

[1] Including a certain number of industries not given in the table.

Poland. — *Employers' returns: Average hours of work per worker per week*

Date	C	D	E	F	G	
	Metals	Minerals	Building	Wood	Paper	Printing
1927: June	45.4	46.0	46.2	45.1	45.8	45.7
Dec.	45.4	47.7	43.9	45.7	46.6	46.0
1928: June	45.2	46.7	47.1	46.1	46.3	45.8
Dec.	45.1	46.6	44.6	45.1	46.9	45.7
1929: June	45.0	47.1	47.0	45.6	45.9	45.8
Dec.	44.6	46.6	46.2	44.9	46.1	45.9
1930: June	42.8	46.9	46.3	45.1	45.6	45.0
Dec.	42.5	44.8	45.3	43.8	45.1	45.1
1931: June	42.1	45.8	46.0	44.0	44.6	45.0
Dec.	40.3	44.5	42.6	42.7	43.7	43.2
1932: June	40.3	44.1	43.2	42.5	42.6	43.2
Dec.	39.0	42.8	40.9	41.1	40.7	43.1
1933: June	40.4	43.1	41.6	42.6	42.6	43.2
Dec.	41.8	43.0	40.9	40.4	43.8	44.1
1934: March	42.3	44.7	42.4	43.0	44.5	44.0
June	42.8	44.6	42.9	43.3	44.0	44.6
Sept.	42.9	44.2	43.6	42.1	43.9	44.2
Dec.	43.4	43.4	41.7	42.9	44.7	45.2

Date	H	I	J	K	L	Z
	Textiles	Clothing	Leather and skins	Chemical industry	Food	All groups
1927: June	44.8	45.3	45.4	49.9	44.5	45.5
Dec.	44.0	45.3	44.6	50.1	49.8	46.1
1928: June	43.0	45.6	45.9	48.3	46.0	45.3
Dec.	44.6	44.6	44.3	48.1	50.9	46.0
1929: June	38.7	45.1	43.9	48.0	45.7	44.0
Dec.	39.5	44.1	44.9	48.5	50.9	44.8
1930: June	40.3	43.9	43.7	48.4	45.2	43.9
Dec.	40.3	42.3	44.7	48.1	49.8	44.1
1931: June	43.0	41.2	42.8	47.6	43.6	43.9
Dec.	38.2	43.8	42.8	44.7	45.5	41.7
1932: June	40.1	42.3	42.2	45.4	39.6	41.5
Dec.	36.1	38.1	42.0	44.0	41.0	39.4
1933: June	41.9	37.6	41.9	43.8	38.1	41.6
Dec.	39.5	42.0	42.4	44.5	40.1	41.1
1934: March	42.5	41.4	42.7	45.4	39.4	42.7
June	38.2	41.8	43.5	45.3	38.7	41.5
Sept.	39.7	41.0	43.2	45.0	39.4	41.8
Dec.	38.5	37.4	43.3	45.1	39.8	41.2

TABLE VII. — ACTUAL HOURS OF WORK, BY INDUSTRIES *(cont.)*

Sweden. — *Employers' returns: Average hours of work per worker per week.*

Date	B	C					D	D, E	F	G
	Iron mining	Iron, steel and copper works	Iron and steel manufacture	Metal manufacture	Mechanical engineering	Electrical engineering	Glass	Building materials	Wood	Paper pulp
1933: Nov.	33.8	45.9	45.8	43.8	44.5	45.6	45.3	43.1	43.9	46.5
1934: ,,	38.3	48.0	47.6	47.7	47.4	48.0	46.6	46.1	45.9	47.2

Date	G			H	I		J (and I)	K	L	Z
	Paper and cardboard	Other dep. of paper ind.	Printing	Textiles	Clothing	Hats and caps	Leather, skins, rubber, shoes	Chemicals	Food, drink, tobacco	All groups[1]
1933: Nov.	45.8	46.7	47.5	47.7	44.4	46.2	44.9	39.9	48.0	45.2
1934: ,,	47.2	49.3	48.5	47.0	45.3	45.1	46.3	42.9	49.8	46.7

[1] Including certain industries not given in the table.

Switzerland. — *Employers' returns: Percentage of workers working weekly:* a = *under 48 hours;* b = *48 hours;* c = *over 48 hours*

Date	C						D			E		
	Metallurgy			Watch making, jewellery			Stone and pottery			Building		
	a	*b*	*c*	*a*	*b*	*c*	*a*	*b*	*c*	*a*	*b*	*c*
1933: 2nd qr.	43.1	54.8	2.1	86.4	13.6	0	33.0	53.8	13.2	3.7	0.8	95.5
3rd ,,	33.1	64.6	2.3	79.3	20.7	0	36.4	50.6	13.0	2.6	1.2	96.2
1934: 1st ,,	34.6	63.7	1.7	59.4	40.6	0	50.2	45.8	4.0	24.7	5.6	69.7
2nd ,,	23.9	73.2	2.9	68.6	31.4	0	29.3	61.1	9.6	1.2	1.4	97.4
3rd ,,	22.7	74.7	2.6	64.9	35.1	0	41.5	54.5	4.0	6.6	1.8	91.6

TABLE VII. — ACTUAL HOURS OF WORK, BY INDUSTRIES *(concluded)*

Switzerland. — *Employers' returns: Percentage of workers working weekly:* a = *under 48 hours;* b = *48 hours;* c = *over 48 hours* (concluded)

Date	F			G, J			G			H		
	Wood			Paper, leather, rubber			Printing			Cotton		
	a	*b*	*c*	*a*	*b*	*c*	*a*	*b*	*c*	*a*	*b*	*c*
1933: 2nd qr.	21.7	61.5	16.8	28.8	71.2	0	11.8	87.1	1.1	18.4	55.0	26.6
3rd "	22.2	61.0	16.8	30.8	69.2	0	13.3	85.6	1.1	22.5	48.9	28.6
1934: 1st "	33.3	59.3	7.4	33.2	66.8	0	12.6	86.5	0.9	20.2	56.8	23.0
2nd "	21.4	64.7	13.9	29.0	71.0	0	8.8	90.3	0.9	21.7	67.5	10.8
3rd "	22.8	65.8	11.4	31.3	68.7	0	7.5	91.5	1.0	27.4	59.8	12.8

Date	H											
	Wool			Silk, natural and artificial			Linen			Embroidery		
	a	*b*	*c*	*a*	*b*	*c*	*a*	*b*	*c*	*a*	*b*	*c*
1933: 2nd qr.	7.0	79.8	13.2	30.0	65.6	4.4	28.5	71.5	0	13.5	16.6	69.9
3rd "	4.4	76.1	19.5	22.1	73.1	4.8	23.7	76.3	0	4.9	19.2	75.9
1934: 1st "	9.0	64.3	26.7	24.8	70.5	4.7	25.6	74.4	0	10.3	20.1	69.6
2nd "	7.2	72.2	20.6	25.0	72.1	2.9	12.6	87.4	0	8.1	35.4	56.5
3rd "	11.7	67.2	21.1	29.8	65.7	4.5	10.8	89.2	0	18.9	27.2	53.9

Date	J			K			L			Z		
	Clothing (including boot and shoe)			Chemicals			Food, drink and tobacco			All groups [1]		
	a	*b*	*c*	*a*	*b*	*c*	*a*	*b*	*c*	*a*	*b*	*c*
1933: 2nd qr.	13.0	71.6	15.4	36.5	62.3	1.2	27.3	69.1	3.6	30.5	56.6	12.9
3rd "	6.8	83.6	9.6	24.4	75.0	0.6	22.4	73.5	4.1	25.5	62.4	12.1
1934: 1st "	17.7	72.3	10.0	24.0	74.0	2.0	29.0	69.6	1.4	28.7	62.0	9.3
2nd "	25.1	71.9	3.0	21.8	77.0	1.2	28.6	66.7	4.7	23.8	66.4	9.8
3rd "	43.4	53.7	2.9	25.9	73.5	0.6	17.0	79.0	4.0	27.0	64.1	8.9

[1] Including the sub-group " other textiles " not given in the table.

TABLE VIII. — NUMBER OF NORMAL HOURS OF WORK PER WEEK OF ADULT MALE WORKERS, IN VARIOUS OCCUPATIONS IN OCTOBER 1934 (*a*)

Industry and occupation (with code letter)	AUSTRALIA	AUSTRIA	BELGIUM	CANADA		DENMARK	SPAIN		ESTONIA
	Sydney	Vienna	Brussels	Montreal	Toronto	Copenhagen	Barcelona	Madrid	Tallinn
C. *Mechanical engineering:*									
Fitters and turners	44	48	48	44-50*b*	44-50*b*	48	48	44	48
Ironmoulders (sand)	44	48	48	44-50	44-50	48	48	44	48
Patternmakers	44	48	*	44-50	44-50	48	48	44	48
Unskilled labourers	44	48	48	44-50	44-50	48	48	44	48
E. *Building:*									
Bricklayers and masons.	44 [1]	48	48 *b*	44	40	48 [2]	44	44	48
Structural iron workers.	44	*	*	44	44	*	48	44	48
Concrete workers	44	48	48	44	44-54	*	44	44	48
Carpenters and joiners	44 *b*	48	48	44	40	48 [2]	44	44	48
Painters (general)	44	48	48	44	44	48 [2]	48	44	48
Plumbers	44	48	48	44	40	48	48	44	48
Electrical fitters.	44	48	*	44	40	48	48	44	48
Labourers (general)	44	48	48	44	44-54	48 [2]	44	44	48
F. *Furniture-making:*									
Cabinet makers	44	48	48	44	*	48	44	48	48
Upholsterers	44	48	48 *b*	44	*	48	44	48	48
French polishers	44	48	48	44	*	*	44	48	48
G. *Printing and bookbinding:*									
Hand compositors (book and job)	44	48	48	44-48	44	48	48	48	48
Machine compositors (book and job)	44 *b*	48	*	44-48	44	48	36	36	48
Machine minders	44 *b*	48 *b*	48 *b*	44-48*b*	44 *b*	48	48	48	48
Bookbinders	44	48	48	44-48	44	48	48	48	48
Unskilled labourers	44	48	48	*	*	48	48	48	48
L. *Food industry:*									
Bakers	44 *b*	48	48	54	48	48	48	48	48
M. *Transport:*									
Tram and bus drivers	44	48	*	54 *b*	44 *b*	*	48	48	48
Tram and bus conductors	44	48	*	54 *b*	44 *b*	*	48	48	48
Motor drivers (van and lorry)	44	48	48	48-60	48-54	48	60	48	48
Horse drivers (one horse)	44	48	48	48-60	48-54	54-57	60	*	48
Railway goods porters	44	*	*	48 *b*	48 *b*	*	48	52	48
Railway permanent way labourers	44	48 *b*	*	48	48	*	48	52	48
O. *Electric power distribution:*									
Electrical fitters.	44	48	*	44	49.5	*	48	48	48
Unskilled labourers	44	48	*	48	49.5	*	48	48	48
Q. *Local authorities:*									
Unskilled labourers	44	*	*	48	48	48	48	48	48

(*a*) Except in Tallinn, figures of July. — (*b*) Complementary definition of certain occupations: *Fitters and turners:* in Canada, machinists. *Bricklayers and masons:* in Brussels, masons only. *Carpenters and joiners:* in Sydney, carpenters only. *Upholsterers:* in Brussels, paper-hangers. *Machine compositors:* in Sydney, linotype operators. *Machine minders (printing):* in Sydney, machinists; in Vienna, printers; in Brussels, " conducteurs-typographes "; in Canada, pressmen. *Bakers:* in Sydney, ovenmen. *Tram and bus drivers and conductors:* in Canada, tram employees only. *Railway goods porters:* in Canada, freight truckers. *Permanent way labourers:* in Vienna, supernumerary workers.

[1] Bricklayers only; masons, 40 hours.

[2] 42 hours in certain winter months.

TABLE VIII. — NUMBER OF NORMAL HOURS OF WORK PER WEEK OF ADULT MALE WORKERS, IN VARIOUS OCCUPATIONS IN OCTOBER 1934 (*a*) *(continued)*

Industry and occupation (with code letter)	France			Great Britain			Hungary	Irish Free State
	Lyons	Marseilles	Paris	Glasgow	London	Manchester	Budapest	Dublin
C. *Mechanical engineering:*								
Fitters and turners	48 *b*	48	48 *b*	47	47	47	48	47
Ironmoulders (sand)	*	48	48 *b*	47	47	47	47	47
Patternmakers	*	48	48	47	47	47	52	47
Unskilled labourers	48 *b*	48	48	47	47	47	51	47
E. *Building:*								
Bricklayers and masons.	48	48	48	44 [1]	44	46.5 [5]	52 *b*	44
Structural iron workers.	*	48	*	47	47	47	49	44
Concrete workers	48 *b*	48	*	48 *b* [2]	48 *b* [2]	48 *b* [2]	48	44
Carpenters and joiners	48	48	48	44 [1]	44	46.5 [5]	49	44
Painters (general)	48	48	48	44 [3]	44	46.5 [5]	46	44
Plumbers	48 *b*	48	48	44 [1]	44	46.5 [5]	46	44
Electrical fitters	48	48	48	47	47	47	49	44
Labourers (general)	48	48	*	44 [1]	44	46.5 [5]	57	44
F. *Furniture-making:*								
Cabinet makers	*	48	48	47	47	46.5 [6]	52	44
Upholsterers	*	48	*	47	47	46.5 [6]	48	47
French polishers	*	48	*	47	47	46.5 [6]	48	44
G. *Printing and bookbinding:*								
Hand compositors (book and job)	48	48	*	48	48	48	39	48
Machine compositors (book and job)	48	48	48	48	48	48	38	48
Machine minders	48	48	*	*	48	48	39	48
Bookbinders	*	48	48	48	48	48	51	48
Unskilled labourers	*	48	*	48	48	48	41	48
L. *Food industry:*								
Bakers	48 *b*	*	*	*	48	48	52	46
M. *Transport:*								
Tram and bus drivers.	48	48	*	48	48	48	48	48
Tram and bus conductors	48	48	*	48	48	48	48	48
Motor drivers (van and lorry)	*	48	*	48	48 *b*	*	52	48
Horse drivers (one horse)	*	48	*	48	48	*	61	48.5
Railway goods porters	*	*	*	48	48	48	26	48
Railway permanent way labourers	*	*	*	48	48	48	46	48
O. *Electric power distribution:*								
Electrical fitters	*	48	*	48	47	47	49	44
Unskilled labourers	*	48	*	48	47	47	49	44
Q. *Local authorities:*								
Unskilled labourers	48	48	*	48	47 [4]	47	49	44

(*a*) Except in Dublin, figures of November. — (*b*) Complementary definition of certain occupations: *Fitters and turners:* in Lyons, skilled fitters in the heating industry; in Paris, fitters only. *Iron moulders:* in Paris, " mouleurs à la main ". *Labourers, unskilled (mechanical engineering):* in Lyons, fitters' helpers in the heating industry. *Bricklayers and masons*: in Budapest, masons only. *Concrete workers:* in Lyons, cement workers; in Great Britain, levellers. *Plumbers:* in Lyons, plumbers and zinc workers. *Bakers:* in Lyons, foremen bakers. *Motor drivers:* in London, drivers of petrol vehicles with a carrying capacity of over two tons, up to and including five tons.

[1] 41½ hours in December and January.
[2] 44½ hours in winter; 49½ hours in summer (average: 48 hours).
[3] 39 hours in winter.
[4] In the case of one of the local authorities on the County of London: 48 hours.
[5] 44 hours in winter.
[6] 46¼ hours in 5-day workshops.

TABLE VIII. — NUMBER OF NORMAL HOURS OF WORK PER WEEK OF ADULT MALE WORKERS, IN VARIOUS OCCUPATIONS IN OCTOBER 1934 (*a*) *(concluded)*

Industry and occupation (with code letter)	Italy			Latvia	Norway	Netherlands	Poland	Sweden	Switzerland	Yugoslavia
	Genoa	Milan *b*	Rome	Riga	Oslo	Amsterdam	Warsaw	Stockholm	Zurich	Belgrade
C. *Mechanical engineering:*										
Fitters and turners	48	48	48	46	48 *b*	48	46	48	48 *b*	48
Ironmoulders (sand)	48	48	48	46	48 *b*	48	46	48	*	48
Patternmakers	*	*	*	46	48 *b*	48	46	48	*	48
Unskilled labourers	48	48	48	46	48	48	46	48	48 *b*	48
E. *Building:*										
Bricklayers and masons	48	54	48	46	48	48	46	48	50 [5]	60
Structural iron workers	48	54	48	*	*	*	46	48	*	60
Concrete workers	48 *b*	54 *b*	48 *b*	*	48	48	46	48	*	60
Carpenters and joiners	48	54	48	46	48	48	46	48	48 *b* [5]	60
Painters (general)	48	54	48	46	48	48	46	48	47.5	60
Plumbers	48	54	48	46	48	48	46	48	48	*
Electrical fitters	48	48	48	46	48	48	46	48	48	60
Labourers (general)	48	54	48	46	48	48	46	48	50 [5]	60
F. *Furniture-making:*										
Cabinet makers	48	48	48	46	48	48	46	48	48	54
Upholsterers	*	48	48	46	48	48	46	48	48	54
French polishers	48	48	48	46	48	48	46	48	*	60
G. *Printing and bookbinding:*										
Hand compositors (book and job)	48	48	48	46	48 *b* [2]	48	46	48	48	48
Machine compositors (book and job)	48 *b*	48 *b*	48	46	45 *b* [3]	48	46	48	44	48
Machine minders	48	48	48	46	48 *b* [2]	48	46	48	48	48
Bookbinders	48	48	48	46	48 *b*	48	46	48	48	48
Unskilled labourers	48	48 *b*	48	46	48 *b*	48	46	48	48	48
L. *Food industry:*										
Bakers	48 *b*	48 *b*	48 *b*	48	48	48	46	48	58	60
M. *Transport:*										
Tram and bus drivers	52 [1]	49.5	48	48	48 *b*	48	46	48 [4]	48	48
Tram and bus conductors	52 [1]	49.5	48	48	48 *b*	48	46	48 [4]	48	48
Motor drivers (van and lorry)	60	60	48	48	48	*	*	50 [4]	51	48
Horse drivers (one horse)	60	60	*	48	48	*	46	50 [4]	51	48
Railway goods porters	48	60	*	*	*	62.5	*	48 [4]	48	*
Railway permanent way labourers	52	48	48	46	*	52.5	46	48	48	*
O. *Electric power distribution:*										
Electrical fitters	48	48	48	46	48	48	46	48	48	48
Unskilled labourers	48	48	48	46	48	48	46	48	48	60
Q. *Local authorities:*										
Unskilled labourers	48	48	48	46	48	48	46	48	48	60

(*a*) Except in Italy, figures at 1 July. — (*b*) Complementary definition of certain occupations: in Milan, for *skilled occupations in mechanical engineering, building, furniture, printing and bookbinding:* workers designated as "specialised", "skilled" or "experienced". *Fitters and turners, iron moulders, patternmakers:* in Oslo, skilled workers in mechanical engineering in general. *Fitters and turners, and labourers, unskilled (mechanical engineering):* in Zurich, workers employed in the central heating industry. *Concrete workers:* in Italy, cement workers. *Carpenters and joiners:* in Zurich, carpenters only. *Machine compositors:* in Genoa, linotype operators; in Milan, monotype and linotype operators. *Labourers, unskilled (printing):* in Milan, supernumerary workers in printing; in Oslo, helpers in bookbinding. *Bakers:* in Genoa and Rome, table hands and ovenmen; in Milan, table hands. *Tram and bus drivers and conductors:* in Oslo, vehicles usually operated by one man. — [1] Bus drivers and conductors: 48 hours. — [2] In the case of night work: 39 hours. (36 hours in undertakings which are not affiliated to the employers' trade union). — [3] In the case of night work: 36 hours. — [4] Approximate figure. — [5] Summer hours.

III. — WAGES

TABLE IX

Table IX gives *index numbers of the general level of industrial wages* in 25 countries; the upper half gives index numbers of money wages and the lower half the corresponding real wages. All the index numbers have been calculated by the International Labour Office on a common base, the year 1929 (the annual average as far as possible), from the series published by the competent authorities in the different countries, and expressing the average level of wages in absolute figures; when series showing absolute amounts were not available, recourse has been had to the index numbers published, which have then been shifted to the common base. The index numbers of real wages have been obtained by dividing the index numbers of money wages by the official cost-of-living index number [1] for the country under consideration, this index number itself being shifted where necessary to the year 1929 as base. In certain cases, depending on the methods of computation adopted, slight inaccuracies may result from this shifting of the base of the indexes, but these inaccuracies cannot be more than trifling. For some countries the available series do not go back so far as the year 1929; for these, the nearest year to that date has been taken as base, and the index numbers are shown in the tables in italics. Further, in some cases the cost-of-living indexes available cannot be combined with the existing index numbers of money wages without certain reserves; in particular where the cost-of-living indexes relate to a single town (usually the capital), while the index numbers of wages cover the whole country or definitely limited regions, as in the case of mines. In such cases the index numbers of real wages are given in brackets.

The series given in the tables have been chosen with the object of giving for each country as comprehensive a view as possible of the *general* movement of industrial wages, this term being taken to include wages not only in manufacturing, building, and mining, but also public utility services, and commerce; as a general rule agriculture is excluded [2]. In some cases, as the general series relating to industries do not include certain non-manufacturing branches, supplementary series for mines or certain public services have, when possible, been added.

The various wage series show numerous divergencies in the nature and scope of the data; in the distinctions according to sex, age, and degree

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[1] See below, table XIII.

[2] For some countries, however, the general series given in the present tables cover agriculture, without the possibility of excluding it. For wages in agriculture, see below, table XII.

of skill of the workers; in the time unit in which the data are expressed and in the methods of calculating the averages. Moreover, as the cost-of-living index numbers used for calculating the index numbers of real wages have not been compiled by uniform methods, they do not afford a strictly comparable measure of fluctuations in the cost of living, so that the index numbers of real wages contain an additional element of divergence.

As regards the nature of the data on which the index numbers are based, the essential distinction drawn in the headings is between *rates* and *earnings* (see definitions below). The scope of the wage statistics is indicated in the headings by a statement of the main economic groups covered [1]. The way in which these groups are represented varies widely from country to country; manufacturing industries and mines are as a rule fairly fully covered; public services and commerce, on the contrary, are often represented by only one or two branches, sometimes of very limited scope.

TABLE X

Table X gives *money wages* (or where not available, index numbers) *in different industries or occupations* from 1927 to 1934 and covers 26 countries. These data are selected from the statistical material compiled by the competent national or municipal statistical authorities, with a few exceptions where unofficial sources have been used. As a general rule, the series chosen are those whose general averages have been used by the Office for calculating index numbers of the general level of wages in table IX. In certain countries series limited to a particular branch or for a period not covered by the principal statistics are given [2].

When possible wages of men and women are given separately, those of young persons being omitted. For the unit of time in which wages are expressed, preference has been given in principle to hourly wages; as in this case, the difference between rates and earnings is usually the least. But where such information is lacking, wages per day or per week, even in some cases per month have been given.

In view of the great difference in the nature, scope and methods of compilation of the statistics in this table as well as in their grouping by industry or occupation, the data should be used rather for comparing

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[1] These groups and their relation to the list of industries adopted by the Office for the publication of statistics by industries or occupations (see p. v above) are as follows: (1) agriculture (item A), including forestry and cattle rearing (excluded in principle from the tables); (2) mines (item B), including quarries and oil wells; (3) industries (items C to L), including all manufacturing industries, as well as building and constructional work; (4) public utility services, etc. (items M to R), including transport of every kind; supply of water, light, and power; postal, telegraph, and telephone services; and public administration; (5) commerce (items S and T), including banks, insurance, hotels, and restaurants; (6) various (items U to Y), covering certain occupations which are either ill-defined or too special or limited to be assigned to any particular group.

[2] See also special article on Wages in the Textile Industry, *International Labour Review*, Vol. XXX, No. 3, September 1934: "Wages and Hours of Labour in the Cotton and Wool Textile Industry".

the relative situation of workers in different industries or occupations within a country or during years rather than for making direct international comparisons.

TABLE XI

Table XI gives *hourly wages in October 1934* (or a near date) for *adult males in 30 different occupations in 27 towns* in 19 countries. These data are a summary of those obtained by a special enquiry undertaken by the Office each year with the assistance of the statistical authorities of various countries; the object being to collect data as far as possible comparable among themselves relating to these 30 occupations.

Distinction has been made between rates and earnings (see definitions below); as a general rule, figures of rates refer to time workers and those of earnings to time workers and/or piece workers. For some occupations, information has also been obtained on the basic time rates of piece workers and also of earnings of piece workers; these two kinds of data are given in brackets in the appropriate column. Coresponding data on the normal hours of work in these same occupations and towns are given in Table VIII.

In comparing these figures between the towns of one country and those of another the reader should refer to the text published with the complete results of these enquiries in the *International Labour Review* which indicates the various reservations to be made in using these figures [1].

TABLE XII

Table XII is confined to *agricultural wages*, where the methods of payments and the organisation of labour are generally very different from other industries; it covers 21 countries. The upper half of the table gives money wages in national currencies and the lower half index numbers calculated by the International Labour Office on the basis 1929 = 100 (with the exception of a few series given in italics, where owing to the absence of figures for 1929 another base has been chosen).

These data are a summary of the statistics published by the competent statistical authorities of different countries [2]; they refer either to a group of occupations or, more generally, to certain typical categories of workers carrying out general duties either on the land or in connection with animals; data concerning certain specialised workers (cattle-rearing, horticulture, etc.) are not given, but they are included sometimes in the general averages. Categories of workers are further distinguished by

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[1] See in particular *International Labour Review*, Vol. XXXI, No. 4, April 1935: "Wages and Hours of Work of Workers in Certain Occupations in Different Towns in October 1934"; and also the results for corresponding enquiry for 1932 (*Ibid.*, Vol. XXVII, No. 6, and Vol. XXVIII, Nos. 1 and 2, 1933).

[2] For more complete date giving figures by regions and for a larger number of occupations, see *International Labour Review*, Vol. XXX, Nos. 5 and 6, November and December 1934: "Statistics of Wages of Agricultural Workers in Various Countries 1927-1934".

the duration of engagement and the form of wage payment (in money and in kind); From the point of view of duration of engagement distinction has been made between *permanent* workers (farm servants being considered as such), *seasonal* workers, and *day* workers, in this latter group distinction being made between *regular* day labourers and *casual* day labourers. The nature of the payment in kind is indicated briefly by the terms " with board " and " with lodging " (or " without board and lodging "), but it is evident that the nature and importance of these payments in kind vary considerably from country to country. When the estimated value of these payments in kind has been taken into consideration in the statistics, it has been included in the *total wages*, otherwise the figures relate solely to *money wages*. The estimation of the value of payments in kind is inevitably somewhat approximate.

The data are shown for the different units of time in use in the national statistics (hour, day, week, month, year, etc.) and it is not possible to make the statistics more uniform in this respect. The frequency for which the data are compiled varies also considerably from country to country; sometimes the data refer to the whole year, sometimes to one or more definite dates in the year, and in this case they relate to fixed periods of the calendar (month, quarter, half-year) or the seasons defined either as such (spring, summer, autumn winter) or by the character of the principal operations (ploughing, sowing, hay-making, harvest, vintage, etc.). As a general rule, the series given in the table from 1927-1934 are averages representing the whole year and where necessary have been calculated by the Office from the data referring to different periods of the year. In view of the great difference in the condition of work and systems of remuneration in agriculture, international comparisons are subject to even greater reservations than for industrial wages. Even fluctuations in wages as shown by the index numbers of money wages are very difficult to interpret because of the important part played by payments in kind. If attention is paid only to the movement of money wages, an important part of the remuneration of workers is neglected. If the total wage is considered, fluctuations are partly determined by changes in the value of the payments in kind which may arise either from a change in the kind or quantities of the allowances in kind or in the prices on which these allowances have been evaluated. The calculation of index numbers of real wages is therefore extremely difficult, all the more so as the available index numbers of cost of living refer generally to urban districts, where the movement of prices may be different from that in rural districts. For these reasons no index numbers of real wages are given in this table.

Definitions of Terms used

Rates. Data which may arise from different sources: conditions fixed in collective agreements or individual contracts or even unilaterally by employers; decisions of arbitration courts or other bodies; legislation; rates offered by employers at employment exchanges, etc. The expression " minimum rates " cannot be taken in its strict sense in every case. As a rule, rates express a theoretical standard applicable to, or actually applied to, in a variable degree, workers in the branch covered, so that the figures may be more or less representative. In general, they refer exclusively to normal hours of work, but may also include certain supplements (cost-of-living bonuses, daily allowances, etc.), and to time workers; in certain cases, however, basic times rates for piece workers are available which indicate the standard an average worker working on piece work

may be expected to earn per hour, or a minimum which is guaranteed to him by agreement.

Earnings. Data generally compiled from pay-rolls of a certain number of representative establishments; they give the average actual wages (including generally all bonuses, allowances, etc.) of workers in the particular industrial branch, without usually making a distinction between time workers and piece workers. They refer generally to earnings for hours of work actually worked; in some cases, however, averages are compiled on the basis of wages paid for normal hours of work actually worked only.

Wages. Data of an approximate or indetermined character or based on estimates or compiled according to the general knowledge of local correspondents, factory inspectors, etc., on the conditions of remuneration in the industry in their district. The term is also used for remuneration of workers, which includes the estimated value of payments in kind.

TABLE IX. — INDEX NUMBERS OF THE GENERAL LEVEL OF WAGES

(Base: 1929 = 100)

Date	Germany						Austria
	Mines °, industries, public services °						Mines
	Men (skilled)	Men (semi-skilled)	Men (un-skilled)	Women (sk. and semi-sk.)	Women (un-skilled)	General average	Men and women (skilled and unskilled)
	Hourly rates						Earnings per shift
Money wages							
1927 ...	*	*	*	*	*	87	98
1928 ...	95	95	95	95	95	95	96
1929 ...	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
1930 ...	102	102	102	102	102	102	104
1931 ...	96	97	96	97	97	97	102
1932 ...	81	84	81	84	83	82	101
1933 ...	78	83	78	82	82	79	97
1934 ...	77†	83†	78†	81†	82†	79	—
1932: March	84	85	84	84	84	84	*
June	79	84	80	84	83	81	*
Sept.	78	84	79	83	83	80	*
Dec.	78	84	79	82	83	80	*
1933: March	78	84	79	82	82	79	*
June	78	83	78	81	82	79	*
Sept.	78	83	78	81	82	79	*
Dec.	77	83	78	81	82	79	*
1934: March	77	83	78	81	82	79	*
June	77	*	78	*	*	*	*
Sept.	78	*	78	*	*	*	*
Dec.	78†	83†	78†	81†	82†	*	*
Real wages							
1927 ...	*	*	*	*	*	91	(103)
1928 ...	96	96	96	97	96	96	(99)
1929 ...	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**(100)**
1930 ...	106	106	106	106	106	106	(104)
1931 ...	109	110	109	110	110	109	(106)
1932 ...	103	107	104	107	106	104	(103)
1933 ...	101	109	103	107	108	104	(103)
1934 ...	98†	106†	100†	104†	105†	102	—
1932: March	106	107	106	106	105	106	*
June	101	108	102	108	107	103	*
Sept.	101	108	102	107	107	103	*
Dec.	102	109	103	107	107	104	*
1933: March	103	111	104	108	109	105	*
June	101	109	102	105	107	103	*
Sept.	101	108	102	106	107	103	*
Dec.	99	106	100	104	105	101	*
1934: March	99	107	100	104	106	102	*
June	99	*	100	*	*	*	*
Sept.	98	*	99	*	*	*	*
Dec.	98†	105†	99†	103†	104†	*	*

Germany. Annual figures: averages (for 1934: men (semi-skilled) and women: average of March and December; general average: figure for March); monthly figures: 1st of the following month. Before 1928, old series linked up with the new one.

Austria. Annual figures: averages.

TABLE IX. — INDEX NUMBERS OF THE GENERAL LEVEL OF WAGES *(continued)*
(Base: 1929 = 100)

Date	Australia				Belgium			Canada		
	Mines °, industries, public services °, commerce, various				Mines, industries, public services			Mines, certain ind., pub. ser.	Other industries	Industries
	Men (skilled and unskilled)		Women (skilled and unskilled)		Men and women		General average	Men (chiefly skilled)	Men and women (sk. and unsk.)	Men (unskilled)
	Hourly rates	Weekly rates	Hourly rates	Weekly rates	Skilled	Unskilled		Hourly rates		
	Hourly earnings									
Money wages										
Pre-war ..	52	56	46	50	*	*	*	52	49	53
1927 ...	99	99	97	97	*	*	*	96	99	100
1928 ...	100	100	100	99	*	*	*	97	99	100
1929 ...	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
1930 ...	98	99	99	100	106	107	108	101	100	100
1931 ...	89	90	90	91	99	100	101	100	98	98
1932 ...	84	84	84	84	90	91	92	94	91	92
1933 ...	81	81	81	81	88	88	90	90	87	90
1934 ...	82	82	82	82	84†	84†	86†	89	89	91
1932: March	86	86	86	86	94	94	96	*	*	*
June	86	86	86	86	90	91	92	*	*	*
Sept.	82	82	86	82	88	88	91	*	*	*
Dec.	81	82	81	82	88	89	91	*	*	*
1933: March	81	81	81	81	88	88	91	*	*	*
June	81	82	81	85	88	89	91	*	*	*
Sept.	81	81	81	81	87	87	89	*	*	*
Dec.	81	81	81	81	87	87	89	*	*	*
1934: March	81	81	80	80	87	86	89	*	*	*
June	82	82	82	82	85	85	87	*	*	*
Sept.	82	82	83	83	83†	83†	84†	*	*	*
Dec.	82	82	83	83	82†	83†	83†	*	*	*
Real wages										
1927 ...	101	101	99	99	*	*	*	97	100	102
1928 ...	102	102	102	102	*	*	*	98	101	101
1929 ...	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
1930 ...	103	104	105	105	102	103	104	102	102	102
1931 ...	105	106	106	107	106	108	109	112	110	110
1932 ...	104	104	104	104	108	108	111	116	112	114
1933 ...	104	104	104	103	106	106	109	115†	112†	115†
1934 ...	103	103	103	103	106†	106†	108†	113†	113†	115†
1932: March	105	105	105	105	109	109	111	*	*	*
June	106	106	106	106	110	111	113	*	*	*
Sept.	103	103	108	103	107	108	111	*	*	*
Dec.	103	104	103	104	104	105	107	*	*	*
1933: March	105	104	104	104	104	104	107	*	*	*
June	104	104	104	109	108	108	110	*	*	*
Sept.	104	103	103	103	107	108	110	*	*	*
Dec.	104	103	104	103	104	105	106	*	*	*
1934: March	103	103	102	102	105	105	108	*	*	*
June	103	103	103	103	109	110	112	*	*	*
Sept.	103	103	104	104	107†	107†	109†	*	*	*
Dec.	103	103	103	103	102†	103†	103†	*	*	*

Australia. Annual figures: averages; monthly figures: last day of the month (pre-war: 1914).
Belgium. (New series.) Annual figures: averages; monthly figures: averages for January, April, July and October.
Canada. Annual figures: averages (pre-war: 1913).

TABLE IX. — INDEX NUMBERS OF THE GENERAL LEVEL OF WAGES *(continued)*

(Base: 1929 = 100)

Date	Denmark				Estonia	United States			
	Industries, public services °, commerce °, various				Mines, ind., pub. serv., various	Mines	Industries	Public services (railways)	
						(B.L.S. series)		(N.I.C.B.)	
	Men (skilled)	Men (unskilled)	Women (skilled and unskilled)	General average	Men and women (skilled and unskilled)	Men (skilled and unskilled)	Men and women (sk. and unskilled)	Men (skilled and unskilled)	
	Hourly earnings				Hourly earnings	Weekly earnings		Hourly earnings	Weekly earnings
Money wages									
Pre-war ..	39	37	35	38	*	*	*	40	48
1927 ...	101	100	101	101	91	*	99	97	96
1928 ...	100	99	100	100	97	*	99	98	97
1929 ...	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
1930 ...	102	102	101	102	101	87	93	101	97
1931 ...	101	102	101	102	99	69	84	102	93
1932 ...	100	102	102	102	93	53	69	94	80
1933 ...	100	103	102	102	91	56	68	97	81
1934 ...	100	104	103	103	90	70	75	98	84
1932: March	100	102	101	102	*	62	75	98	85
June	99	102	101	102	94	45	68	92	80
Sept.	99	102	102	102	*	48	65	93	78
Dec.	101	104	102	103	*	54	64	94	79
1933: March	99	102	102	101	*	45	61	98	79
June	99	102	102	102	90	48	68	96	80
Sept.	99	102	102	102	*	61	71	96	82
Dec.	101	104	102	104	92	67	70	97	81
1934: March	100	102	102	102	*	76	77	98	85
June	99	103	104	102	90	72	77	95	83
Sept.	100	104	104	103	*	66	74	98	84
Dec.	102	105	104	104	90	72	78	100	86
Real wages									
1927 ...	99	98	99	99	(102)	*	98	95	95
1928 ...	99	99	99	99	(101)	*	100	97	97
1929 ...	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**(100)**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
1930 ...	107	106	106	107	(114)	91	97	105	101
1931 ...	113	114	113	114	(117)	80	97	118	107
1932 ...	112	114	114	114	(117)	67	88	121	103
1933 ...	109	112	111	110	(121)	72	88	129	108
1934 ...	105	108	108	107	(121)†	87	94	123	106
1932: March	113	114	114	114	*	*	*	121	106
June	111	114	113	114	(116)	57	86	118	102
Sept.	112	114	115	114	*	*	*	121	101
Dec.	112	115	113	114	*	70	83	125	105
1933: March	109	113	113	112	*	*	*	135	109
June	109	112	111	110	(122)	63	90	133	111
Sept.	107	110	110	109	*	*	*	125	107
Dec.	109	112	109	111	(120)	85	89	125	105
1934: March	107	110	109	109	*	*	*	125	108
June	105	108	109	107	(119)†	90	96	122	105
Sept.	103	108	107	107	*	*	*	123	105
Dec.	105	108	106	107	(124)†	88	96	123	106

Denmark. Annual figures: averages (pre-war: 1914); monthly figures: averages for the quarter ending with the month in question.

Estonia. Annual figures: averages; monthly figures: average for the half-year ending with the month in question.

United States. Mines and industries: annual figures: averages; monthly figures: a week nearest to the 15th of the month. Public services: annual figures: averages; monthly figures: averages for the quarter ending with the month in question (pre-war: 1914-1915).

TABLE IX. — INDEX NUMBERS OF THE GENERAL LEVEL OF WAGES
(continued)
(Base: 1929 = 100)

Date	United States *(continued)*								
	Industries (N.I.C.B. series)								Certain ind., pub. serv., various (trade union rates)
	Men (skilled and semi-skilled)		Men (unskilled)		Women (skilled and unskilled)		General average		Men (chiefly skilled)
	Hourly earnings	Weekly earnings	Hourly earnings	Weekly earnings	Hourly earnings	Weekly earnings	Hourly earnings	Weekly earnings	Hourly rates
Money wages									
Pre-war	44	46	42	44	39	44	42	44	*
1927 . .	98	97	97	96	100	99	98	97	96
1928 . .	99	98	98	98	99	97	98	98	95
1929 . .	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
1930 . .	99	89	98	90	99	91	100	91	104
1931 . .	95	77	95	79	93	83	96	79	104
1932 . .	84	60	83	60	81	67	84	60	92
1933 . .	82	62	83	61	85	70	83	62	88
1934 . .	96	69	98	67	107	82	99	71	—
1932: March	88	65	86	64	85	72	88	65	*
June	84	56	82	57	82	61	85	57	*
Sept.	81	57	80	57	78	66	81	57	*
Dec.	79	57	78	56	76	66	79	57	*
1933: March	78	51	77	50	74	56	78	51	*
June	76	65	76	65	75	70	77	65	*
Sept.	88	68	89	65	99	81	90	68	*
Dec.	91	65	93	62	101	77	93	65	*
1934: March	92	70	96	69	105	83	95	72	*
June	97	71	99	70	108	83	99	73	*
Sept.	98	66	99	66	108	80	100	68	*
Dec.	98	71	100	68	107	86	101	73	*
Real wages									
1927	97	95	96	95	98	97	96	95	95
1928 . .	98	98	97	97	99	97	98	97	95
1929 . .	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
1930 . .	103	93	102	93	103	94	104	94	108
1931 . .	109	89	109	91	107	96	111	92	120
1932 . .	108	77	106	77	105	86	108	77	118
1933 . .	110	83	110	82	114	94	111	83	114
1934 . .	121	86	124	85	134	103	124	89	—
1932: March	110	82	109	81	107	91	111	82	*
June	108	73	106	73	106	79	110	74	*
Sept.	106	74	104	75	102	87	106	74	*
Dec.	105	76	104	74	102	87	106	76	*
1933: March	109	71	107	70	103	78	109	71	*
June	105	89	104	89	103	96	105	89	*
Sept.	113	87	114	84	127	103	116	88	*
Dec.	117	84	120	81	130	99	120	84	*
1934: March	117	89	122	88	134	106	121	92	*
June	123	90	125	89	136	105	126	92	*
Sept.	121	82	122	81	133	99	124	85	*
Dec.	122	87	124	84	133	106	125	90	*

United States (continued). Industries: annual figures: averages (pre-war: July 1914); monthly figures: first week of the month. Certain industries, etc.: annual figures: 15 May of each year (pre-war: 1913).

TABLE IX. — INDEX NUMBERS OF THE GENERAL LEVEL OF WAGES
(continued)

(Base: 1929 = 100) [1]

Date	France							Great Britain and Northern Ireland	Hungary
	Mines	Industries, various						Agric., mines, ind., public services	Industries, public services
	Men (chiefly skilled and unskilled)	Paris		Towns other than Paris					
		Men (chiefly skilled)				Women (chiefly skilled)		Men and women (skilled and unskilled)	Men and women (skilled and unskilled)
	Daily earnings	Hourly rates	Daily rates	Hourly rates	Daily rates	Hourly rates	Daily rates	Weekly rates	Daily earnings
Money wages									
Pre-war	16	14	16	12	15	10	13	*	64
1927 . .	91	84	84	86	87	80	81	102	92
1928 . .	90	86	86	90	91	87	88	100	96
1929 . .	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
1930 . .	108	109	109	107	107	107	108	100	96
1931 . .	104	108	109	107	107	107	108	98	91
1932 . .	96	104	102	104	104	104	104	96	84
1933 . .	95	104	102	102	101	100	99	95	78
1934 . .	95	104	102	102	101	101	100	96	—
1932: March	99	*	*	*	*	*	*	96	*
June	94	*	*	*	*	*	*	96	*
Sept.	95	*	*	*	*	*	*	96	*
Dec.	95	*	*	*	*	*	*	96	*
1933: March	95	*	*	*	*	*	*	95	*
June	95	*	*	*	*	*	*	95	*
Sept.	95	*	*	*	*	*	*	95	*
Dec.	95	*	*	*	*	*	*	95	*
1934: March	95	*	*	*	*	*	*	95	*
June	95	*	*	*	*	*	*	96	*
Sept.	95	*	*	*	*	*	*	96	*
Dec.	95	*	*	*	*	*	*	96	*
Real wages									
1927 . .	*	91	91	*	*	*	*	100	(97)
1928 . .	*	92	92	*	*	*	*	99	(96)
1929 . .	*	**100**	**100**	*	*	*	*	**100**	**(100)**
1930 . .	**(100)**	104	104	**(100)**	**(100)**	**(100)**	**(100)**	104	(106)
1931 . .	*(99)*	106	107	*(103)*	*(103)*	*(103)*	*(103)*	109	(106)
1932 . .	*(98)*	110	108	*(108)*	*(107)*	*(107)*	*(106)*	110	(100)
1933 . .	*(101)*	111	109	*(109)*	*(108)*	*(107)*	*(105)*	112	(101)
1934 . .	*(106)*	112	110	*(114)*	*(113)*	*(113)*	*(111)*	111	—
1932: March	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	108	*
June	*(96)*	*	*	*	*	*	*	111	*
Sept.	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	111	*
Dec.	*(98)*	*	*	*	*	*	*	110	*
1933: March	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	112	*
June	*(101)*	*	*	*	*	*	*	114	*
Sept.	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	112	*
Dec.	*(101)*	*	*	*	*	*	*	110	*
1934: March	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	111	*
June	*(104)*	*	*	*	*	*	*	113	*
Sept.	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	110	*
Dec.	*(107)*	*	*	*	*	*	*	109	*

France. Mines: annual figures: averages; monthly figures: averages for the quarter ending with the month in question (pre-war: 1913). Industries, various: annual figures: October of each year (pre-war: 1911).

Great Britain (including Northern Ireland). General series: annual figures: averages; monthly figures: averages for the quarter ending with the month in question.

Hungary. Annual figures: averages (pre-war: 1910).

[1] Except for series in italics: base: nearest possible year to 1929.

TABLE IX. — INDEX NUMBERS OF THE GENERAL LEVEL OF WAGES
(continued)

(Base: 1929 = 100) [1]

Date	Italy	Japan						
	Mines, ind., pub. serv., various	Mines | Industries						
		Imperial Cabinet series				Bank of Japan series		
	Men and women (skilled and unskilled)	Men and women (sk. and unsk.)	Men (skilled and unskilled)	Women (skilled and unskilled)	General average	Men (skilled and unskilled)	Women (skilled and unskilled)	General average
	Hourly earnings	Daily earnings						
Money wages								
1927 ..	*	98	96	100	95	99	103	98
1928 ..	98	99	98	101	99	101	104	101
1929 ..	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
1930 ..	99	94	96	92	97	95	91	95
1931 ..	90	84	92	83	91	90	80	87
1932 ..	86	80	95	77	92	90	74	85
1933 ..	84	85	96	74	91	93	71	86
1934 ..	82	91	94	73	92	94	70	88
1932: March	85	81	97	79	95	92	76	87
June	87	80	93	78	92	89	73	84
Sept.	86	89	93	75	90	89	72	83
Dec.	85	81	101	78	98	96	73	89
1933: March	83	84	100	76	95	95	72	88
June	85	84	95	75	91	92	70	85
Sept.	84	87	94	73	89	91	70	85
Dec.	84	90	99	75	95	95	71	88
1934: March	83	90	98	74	94	96	70	91
June	82	89	92	73	91	93	69	87
Sept.	81	90	91	73	90	92	70	87
Dec.	82	92	96	75	94	98	71	91
Real wages								
1927 ..	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
1928 ..	99	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
1929 ..	**100**	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
1930 ..	103	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
1931 ..	103	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
1932 ..	104	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
1933 ..	106	*104*	*99*	*94*	*96*	*100*	*94*	*99*
1934 ..	109	*107*	*93*	*89*	*93*	*98*	*89*	*97*
1932: March	100	*100*	*101*	*101*	*102*	*101*	*101*	*101*
June	104	*102*	*100*	*109*	*101*	*100*	*100*	*100*
Sept.	106	*99*	*98*	*98*	*98*	*99*	*98*	*98*
Dec.	104	*98*	*104*	*105*	*103*	*104*	*97*	*102*
1933: March	104	*102*	*103*	*96*	*100*	*103*	*96*	*102*
June	107	*102*	*98*	*94*	*96*	*100*	*94*	*98*
Sept.	107	*106*	*97*	*92*	*95*	*99*	*94*	*98*
Dec.	106	*109*	*102*	*93*	*100*	*102*	*94*	*101*
1934: March	105	*108*	*99*	*92*	*98*	*102*	*92*	*103*
June	111	*106*	*93*	*91*	*94*	*99*	*91*	*99*
Sept.	110	*105*	*89*	*88*	*90*	*95*	*88*	*95*
Dec.	110	*105*	*93*	*89*	*93*	*99*	*88*	*99*

Italy. Annual and monthly figures: averages.
Japan. Mines: annual and monthly figures: averages. Industries: annual and monthly figures: averages.
[1] Except for series in italics: base: nearest possible year to 1929.

TABLE IX. — INDEX NUMBERS OF THE GENERAL LEVEL OF WAGES
(continued)

(Base: 1929 = 100) [1]

Date	Latvia				Norway	New Zealand	
	Industries, public services [0], commerce (Riga)				Mines, industries	Agric.[0], mines [0], ind., public services [0], commerce, various	
	Men (skilled)	Men (unskilled)	Women (skilled)	Women (unskilled)	Men (skilled and unskilled)	Men (skilled and unskilled)	Women (skilled and unskilled)
	Hourly earnings				Daily earnings	Weekly rates (minimum)	
Money wages							
Pre-war	*	*	*	*	*	60	63
1927 ...	*	*	*	*	105	97	99
1928 ...	102	95	96	97	100	100	100
1929 ...	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
1930 ...	104	104	98	100	100	100	100
1931 ...	101	100	98	100	95	93	94
1932 ...	89	88	87	94	96	86	90
1933 ...	80	82	84	91	95	82	87
1934 ...	78	82	84	91	95	83	87
1932: March	93	89	87	94	*	87	*
June	81	88	87	94	*	86	*
Sept.	86	88	84	94	*	84	*
Dec.	85	86	82	94	*	83	*
1933: March	81	89	82	91	*	83	*
June	81	84	84	94	*	82	*
Sept.	79	82	87	94	*	82	*
Dec.	81	82	84	94	*	82	*
1934: March	79	81	87	88	*	82	*
June	78	82	84	91	*	82	*
Sept.	77	81	87	91	*	82	*
Dec.	79	84	84	91	*	84	*
Real wages							
1927 ...	*	*	*	*	94	97	100
1928 ...	*	*	*	*	96	100	100
1929 ...	*	*	*	*	**100**	**100**	**100**
1930 ...	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	103	103	102
1931 ...	*107*	*106*	*110*	*111*	103	103	104
1932 ...	*108*	*107*	*112*	*118*	107	102	107
1933 ...	*102*	*105*	*114*	*120*	108	104	110
1934 ...	*104*	*111*	*120*	*126*	107	103	108
1932: March	*114*	*111*	*114*	*120*	*	99	*
June	*110*	*106*	*111*	*117*	*	103	*
Sept.	*109*	*110*	*112*	*122*	*	103	*
Dec.	*109*	*111*	*112*	*125*	*	103	*
1933: March	*108*	*118*	*121*	*125*	*	104	*
June	*101*	*104*	*116*	*120*	*	104	*
Sept.	*100*	*105*	*117*	*124*	*	104	*
Dec.	*109*	*111*	*120*	*130*	*	103	*
1934: March	*109*	*111*	*127*	*126*	*	102	*
June	*97*	*104*	*112*	*118*	*	101	*
Sept.	*105*	*111*	*127*	*130*	*	102	*
Dec.	*110*	*118*	*125*	*132*	*	104	*

Latvia. Annual and monthly figures: averages.
Norway. Annual figures: third quarter of each year, except for 1931 (fourth quarter).
New Zealand. Annual figures: averages: monthly figures: averages for the quarter ending with the month in question (pre-war: 1914).
[1] Except for series in italics: base: nearest possible year to 1929.

TABLE IX. — INDEX NUMBERS OF THE GENERAL LEVEL OF WAGES
(continued)

(Base: 1929 = 100)

Date	Netherlands	Poland	Rumania	Saar [1] Territory	Sweden			
	Mines, industries	Mines, industries	Agric., mines, ind., pub. serv., com., var.	Mines	Mines [o], industries, public services, commerce, various			
	Men (skilled and unskilled)	Men and women (skilled and unskilled)	Men and women (skilled and unskilled)	Men (skilled and unskilled)	Men (skilled and unskilled)		Women (skilled and unskilled)	
	Hourly earnings	Hourly earnings	Monthly earnings	Daily earnings	Hourly earnings	Daily earnings	Hourly earnings	Daily earnings
Money wages								
Pre-war	*	*	4	*	36	43	32	40
1927 ...	96	*	98	93	96	96	97	97
1928 ...	96	92	99	93	98	97	99	98
1929 ...	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
1930 ...	102	99	96	107	103	104	101	103
1931 ...	100	93	85	102	103	103	101	101
1932 ...	93	85	69	101	102	101	100	101
1933 ...	89	78	63	101	98	98	99	99
1934 ...	—	74	62	—	97	98	99	99
1932: March	*	89	73	102	*	*	*	*
June	95	89	69	101	*	*	*	*
Sept.	*	85	68	101	*	*	*	*
Dec.	91	84	65	101	*	*	*	*
1933: March	*	79	64	102	*	*	*	*
June	89	79	64	101	*	*	*	*
Sept.	*	77	62	101	*	*	*	*
Dec.	88	78	62	101	*	*	*	*
1934: March	*	74	62	101	*	*	*	*
June	87	74	61	100	*	*	*	*
Sept.	*	73	62	—	*	*	*	*
Dec.	—	75	62	—	*	*	*	*
Real wages								
1927 ...	(96)	*	109	97	95	95	96	96
1928 ...	(95)	(94)	102	96	96	96	98	97
1929 ...	**(100)**	**(100)**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
1930 ...	(106)	(106)	97	108	107	107	105	105
1931 ...	(111)	(110)	120	109	110	109	108	107
1932 ...	(111)	(111)	116	117	110	109	108	109
1933 ...	(107)	(112)	116	122	108	108	109	110
1934 ...	—	(113)	117	—	106	107	108	109
1932: March	*	(114)	113	116	*	*	*	*
June	(113)	(111)	113	116	*	*	*	*
Sept.	*	(114)	120	119	*	*	*	*
Dec.	(109)	(118)	116	119	*	*	*	*
1933: March	*	(110)	112	121	*	*	*	*
June	(109)	(112)	114	123	*	*	*	*
Sept.	*	(111)	116	122	*	*	*	*
Dec.	(105)	(112)	118	121	*	*	*	*
1934: March	*	(109)	117	120	*	*	*	*
June	(104)	(113)	117	121	*	*	*	*
Sept.	*	(112)	118	—	*	*	*	*
Dec.	—	(119)	117	—	*	*	*	*

Netherlands. Annual figures: averages; monthly figures: averages for the half-year ending with the month in question.

Poland. Annual and monthly figures: averages (from 1928 to 1931, indexes calculated on the basis of the movement of rates).

Rumania. Annual figures: averages; monthly figures: averages for January, April, July, and October (pre-war: 1914).

Saar Territory. Annual figures: averages; monthly figures: averages for the quarter ending with the month in question.

Sweden. Annual figures: averages (pre-war: 1913).

[1] Territory incorporated to Germany since 1 March 1935.

TABLE IX. — INDEX NUMBERS OF THE GENERAL LEVEL OF WAGES *(continued)*

(Base: 1929 = 100)

Date	Sweden *(cont.)*		Switzerland					
	Mines°, ind., etc.		Mines °, industries, public services °, commerce					
	General average (including young persons)		Men (skilled and semi-skilled)		Men (unskilled)		Women (skilled and unskilled)	
	Hourly earnings	Daily earnings	Hourly earnings	Daily earnings	Hourly earnings	Daily earnings	Hourly earnings	Daily earnings
Money wages								
Pre-war	36	43	44	49	42	49	39	50
1927 ...	96	96	*	98	*	98	*	98
1928 ...	97	97	*	98	*	98	*	98
1929 ...	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
1930 ...	104	104	101	101	102	101	99	99
1931 ...	104	103	102	101	102	101	101	99
1932 ...	102	102	98	104	97	105	96	101
1933 ...	98	98	97	102	96	102	94	98
1934 ...	97	98	94	102	94	102	92	100
1933: March	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
June	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Sept.	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Dec.	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
1934: March	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
June	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Sept.	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Dec.	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Real wages								
1927 ...	95	95	*	99	*	99	*	99
1928 ...	96	96	*	98	*	98	*	98
1929 ...	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
1930 ...	107	107	103	103	104	102	101	101
1931 ...	110	110	109	109	109	109	109	106
1932 ...	110	110	114	121	114	123	112	118
1933 ...	108	109	119	126	117	126	115	120
1934 ...	107	108	117	128	117	127	115	125
1933: March	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
June	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Sept.	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Dec.	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
1934: March	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
June	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Sept.	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Dec.	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*

Sweden (continued). Annual figures: averages (pre-war: 1913).
Switzerland. Annual figures: averages. From 1932 onwards the index numbers of daily earnings are no longer strictly comparable with those for previous years owing to a change in method (pre-war: 1913).

TABLE IX. — INDEX NUMBERS OF THE GENERAL LEVEL OF WAGES *(concluded)*

(Base: 1929 = 100) [1]

Date	Czechoslovakia			Union of South Africa	U.S.S.R.	Yugoslavia
	Mines	Industries (Prague)		Mines, ind., pub. serv., commerce	Mines, industries	Mines, ind., pub. serv., commerce
	Men and women (skilled and unskilled)	Men and women (skilled and unskilled)		Men (skilled and unskilled)	Men and women (skilled and unskilled)	Men and women (skilled and unskilled)
	Earnings per shift	Hourly rates (minimum)	Weekly rates (minimum)	Weekly rates	Monthly wages	Monthly earnings
Money wages						
Pre-war	*	10	11	74	*	*8*
1927 ...	95	93	93	99	83	*
1928 ...	99	97	97	99	91	*
1929 ...	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	*
1930 ...	101	102	102	100	107	**100**
1931 ...	104	103	103	97	125	*99*
1932 ...	103	103	103	93	150	*91*
1933 ...	102	102	102	94	165	*86*
1934 ...	—	100	100	95 †	—	—
1932: March	*	103	103	*	140	*
June	*	103	103	*	145	*96*
Sept.	*	103	103	*	157	*
Dec.	*	103	103	*	173	*91*
1933: March	*	102	102	*	162	*90*
June	*	102	102	*	160	*88*
Sept.	*	102	102	*	170	*87*
Dec.	*	102	102	*	179	*86*
1934: March	*	102	101	*	181	*83*
June	*	100	99	*	193	*84*
Sept.	*	99	99	*	—	*80*
Dec.	*	99	99	*	—	—
Real wages						
1927 ...	(94)	93	92	99	*	*
1928 ...	(98)	98	97	98	*	*
1929 ...	**(100)**	**100**	**100**	**100**	*	*
1930 ...	(101)	102	102	102	*	**100**
1931 ...	(108)	107	107	103	*	*100*
1932 ...	(110)	109	109	104	*	*99*
1933 ...	(110)	110	110	108	*	*106*
1934 ...	—	108	108	107 †	*	—
1932: March	*	108	108	*	*	*
June	*	108	108	*	*	*104*
Sept.	*	111	110	*	*	*
Dec.	*	108	108	*	*	*99*
1933: March	*	111	110	*	*	*106*
June	*	109	108	*	*	*105*
Sept.	*	111	111	*	*	*110*
Dec.	*	112	112	*	*	*106*
1934: March	*	111	111	*	*	*104*
June	*	107	106	*	*	*110*
Sept.	*	108	108	*	*	*104*
Dec.	*	109	109	*	*	—

Czechoslovakia. Annual and monthly figures: averages (pre-wars 1914).
Union of South Africa. Annual figures: 30 September of each year (pre-war: 1914).
U.S.S.R. Annual and monthly figures: averages.
Yugoslavia. Annual figures: December of each year: monthly figures: averages (pre-wars July 1914).

[1] Except for series in italics: base: nearest possible year to 1929.

TABLE X. — WAGES BY INDUSTRY OR OCCUPATION

Germany. — *Hourly Wage Rates (in Reichspfennige): Adult Males*

Date	B					C		
	Coal mining		Lignite mining			Metals		
	a	*c*	*a*	*b*	*c*	*a*	*b*	*c*
1928: 1 July . .	118.0	73.8	83.5	75.7	71.7	88.3	79.1	71.6
1929: „ . . .	120.7	75.7	87.5	79.6	75.6	95.0	86.7	76.2
1930: „ . . .	120.8	75.7	90.7	82.6	78.9	95.4	87.1	76.5
1931: „ . . .	113.4	71.2	87.9	80.3	77.0	90.6	82.2	72.6
1932: „ . . .	95.5	59.9	75.2	68.7	66.0	78.1	71.2	61.9
1933: 1 January .	95.5	59.9	75.2	68.7	66.0	78.0	71.1	61.9
1934: 1 January .	95.5	59.9	75.2	68.7	66.0	77.9	71.0	61.8
1 Dec. . .	95.5†	59.9 †	75.2 †	68.7 †	66.0 †	78.0 †	71.1 †	61.9 †

Date	D		E		F		
	Fine ceramic		Building		Wood		
	a	*c*	*a*	*c*	*a*	*b*	*c*
1928: 1 July . .	82.3	68.1	116.5	91.4	108.3	98.3	88.8
1929: „ . . .	85.5	70.9	124.8	98.2	114.8	102.6	94.2
1930: „ . . .	87.4	72.5	125.2	98.5	117.3	104.9	96.1
1931: „ . . .	82.1	68.2	113.2	88.8	111.1	99.7	91.1
1932: „ . . .	70.9	58.9	85.6	67.7	80.1	68.3	62.6
1933: 1 January .	70.9	58.9	85.5	67.6	*	*	*
1934: 1 January .	70.9	58.9	81.1	64.9	79.5	68.2	62.1
1 Dec. . .	70.9 †	58.9 †	81.1 †	64.9 †	79.5 †	68.2 †	62.2 †

Date	G						
	Paper manufacture		Paper transformation (including bookbinding)			Printing	
	a	*c*	*a*	*b*	*c*	*a*	*c*
1928: 1 July . .	92.3	69.0	110.3	99.2	82.2	112.5	98.5
1929: „ . . .	97.2	72.8	115.5	103.9	86.7	117.3	103.3
1930: „ . . .	97.5	73.2	115.5	103.9	86.7	117.3	103.3
1931: „ . . .	91.4	68.8	108.2	97.1	80.8	110.3	96.7
1932: „ . . .	76.1	57.8	92.9	83.8	69.0	96.1	84.8
1933: 1 January .	75.9	57.4	92.9	83.8	69.0	96.1	79.7
1934: 1 January .	75.9	57.4	92.9	83.8	69.0	96.1	79.7
1 Dec. . .	75.9 †	57.4 †	92.9 †	83.8 †	69.0 †	96.1 †	79.7 †

Date	H		I		K	
	Textiles		Clothing	Boots and shoes	Chemicals	
	a and *b*	*c*	*a*	*a* and *b*	*a*	*b*
1928: 1 July . .	72.9	60.9	92.4	90.1	102.3	82.2
1929: „ . . .	75.3	62.8	96.2	90.1	107.5	86.4
1930: „ . . .	76.1	63.5	97.8	98.3	107.5	86.4
1931: „ . . .	71.8	60.2	92.2	93.2	102.1	82.2
1932: „ . . .	65.2	54.4	83.5	79.2	87.4	70.3
1933: 1 January .	63.9	53.4	74.4	79.2	87.1	70.1
1934: 1 January .	63.6	53.1	74.1	79.2	87.1	70.1
1 Dec. . .	63.6 †	53.1 †	74.1 †	79.2 †	87.1 †	70.1 †

a = Skilled workers. *b* = Semi-skilled workers. *c* = Unskilled workers.

TABLE X. — WAGES BY INDUSTRY OR OCCUPATION *(continued)*

Germany. — *Hourly Wage Rates (in Reichspfennige):*
Adult Males (concluded)

Date	L				M		
	Baking and pastry		Brewery		State railways		
	a	*c*	*a*	*c*	*a*	*b*	*c*
1928: 1 July . .	92.1	78.8	115.0	101.7	92.2	76.2	73.8
1929: „ . . .	96.9	82.7	121.8	107.6	96.3	80.0	77.6
1930: „ . . .	101.0	86.2	124.1	110.0	96.3	80.0	77.6
1931: „ . . .	96.0	81.9	122.0	107.7	90.4	75.5	74.2
1932: „ . . .	83.2	71.2	106.5	94.3	78.3	65.3	63.7
1933: 1 January .	80.2	68.5	105.4	93.3	78.3	65.3	63.7
1934: 1 January .	80.2	68.5	105.2	93.2	78.3	65.3	63.7
1 Dec. . .	80.2 †	68.5 †	105.2 †	93.2 †	78.7 †	67.5 †	64.4 †

Date	P			Z		
	Post			All groups		
	a	*b*	*c*	*a*	*b*	*c*
1928: 1 July . .	86.2	74.0	72.0	96.7	77.9	76.0
1929: „ . . .	89.9	77.5	75.6	101.9	82.5	80.0
1930: „ . . .	89.9	77.5	75.6	102.9	83.4	80.8
1931: „ . . .	85.1	73.9	73.0	96.5	78.8	75.8
1932: „ . . .	73.0	64 1	62.8	80.2	68.8	63.3
1933: 1 January .	73.0	64.1	62.8	79.2	68.3	62.8
1934: 1 January .	73.0	64.1	62.8	78.3	68.1	62.1
1 Dec. . .	73.4 †	66.9 †	62.8 †	78.4 †	68.3 †	62.2 †

a = Skilled workers. *b* = Semi-skilled workers. *c* = Unskilled workers.

Adult Females

Date	C	D		G				H	
	Metals	Fine ceramic		Paper manufacture	Paper transformation (including bookbinding)		Printing	Textiles	
	b	*a*	*b*	*b*	*a*	*b*	*b*	*a*	*b*
1928: 1 July . .	51.6	50.0	42.2	46.9	64.7	51.5	61.4	55.9	45.4
1929: „ . . .	55.7	52.6	43.5	49.5	68.0	54.7	64.2	58.1	46.9
1930: „ . . .	56.0	54.0	44.5	49.6	68.0	54.7	64.2	58.8	47.5
1931: „ . . .	52.7	50.4	42.0	46.4	63.7	50.8	60.4	55.6	45.0
1932: „ . . .	45.2	43.4	36.1	38.7	54.5	43.0	52.8	51.1	40.4
1933: 1 January .	45.2	43.4	36.1	38.6	53.7	43.0	48.8	50.2	39.8
1934: 1 January .	45.0	43.4	36.1	38.6	52.7	43.0	48.8	50.0	39.5
1 Dec. . .	45.1†	43.4†	36.1†	38.6†	52.7†	43.0†	48.8†	50.0†	39.5†

Date	I		K	L		Z	
	Clothing	Boots and shoes	Chemicals	Baking and pastry	Brewery	All groups	
	a	*a*	*b*	*b*	*b*	*a*	*b*
1928: 1 July . .	56.8	68.2	55.2	52.7	64.3	61.4	50.1
1929: „ . . .	58.6	68.2	57.9	55.5	68.2	64.0	53.0
1930: „ . . .	60.0	74.4	57.9	57.8	70.4	64.7	53.7
1931: „ . . .	58.3	70.5	55.1	54.9	69.2	61.1	50.7
1932: „ . . .	51.0	59.9	47.1	47.7	60.0	53.3	43.9
1933: 1 January .	48.6	59.9	46.9	46.0	59.6	52.2	43.5
1934: 1 January .	48.6	59.9	46.9	46.0	59.5	51.6	43.3
1 Dec. . .	48.6 †	59.9 †	46.9 †	46.0 †	59.5 †	51.6 †	43.4 †

a = Skilled and semi-skilled workers. *b* = Unskilled workers.

TABLE X. — WAGES BY INDUSTRY OR OCCUPATION *(continued)*

Australia. — *Hourly Wage Rates (in shillings and pence): Adult Males*

Date	B Mining	C Engineering, metal works, etc.	E Building	F Wood, furniture, etc.	G Books, printing, etc.	I Clothing, boots, etc.
1914: 30 April . .	1 4½	1 2¼	1 4¾	1 2¾	1 4½	1 1
1927: 30 June . .	2 6	2 2¼	2 6½	2 3¾	2 6¾	2 2¼
1928: ,, . .	2 6¼	2 3	2 6¾	2 4	2 7¼	2 3
1929: ,, . .	2 6½	2 3½	2 7	2 3	2 8¼	2 2¾
1930: ,, . .	2 6	2 3	2 6¾	2 2¾	2 8¾	2 3
1931: ,, . .	2 4½	1 11¾	2 3½	1 11	2 6	1 11½
1932: ,, . .	2 4	1 10¾	2 2¾	1 9¾	2 3½	1 10
1933: ,, . .	2 2¾	1 9¾	2 1½	1 9½	2 3¼	1 8¾
1934: ,, . .	2 2¾	1 10	2 1½	1 10	2 3½	1 9
1933: 31 Dec. . .	2 2¾	1 9½	2 1¼	1 9¼	2 2¾	1 8¾
1934: 31 March .	2 2¾	1 9½	2 1¼	1 9¼	2 2¾	1 8½
30 June . .	2 2¾	1 10	2 1½	1 10	2 3½	1 9
30 Sept. . .	2 2¾	1 10	2 1½	1 10	2 3½	1 9

Date	L Food, drink, etc.	M Rail and tram services	M Other land transport	T Domestic, hotels, etc.	W Miscellaneous	X Other manufacturing	Z All groups
1914: 30 April . .	1 1½	1 2¾	0 11	0 10	1 1	1 1¾	1 2
1927: 30 June . .	2 2	2 2	2 1	1 11¾	2 0¾	2 2	2 2½
1928: ,, . .	2 6½	2 6¼	2 1½	2 0¼	2 1	2 2¼	2 3
1929: ,, . .	2 2¾	2 3¾	2 1½	2 0¼	2 1¼	2 2¼	2 3
1930: ,, . .	2 2½	2 2½	2 1	2 0¼	2 1	2 2¼	2 2¾
1931: ,, . .	2 0	1 11¾	1 10	1 10¼	1 10½	1 11¼	2 0¼
1932: ,, . .	1 11¼	1 10¾	1 9¾	1 10	1 9¾	1 9¾	1 11¼
1933: ,, . .	1 10	1 9	1 8½	1 7¾	1 8½	1 8¾	1 10
1934: ,, . .	1 10	1 9¼	1 8½	1 7¾	1 8½	1 9	1 10
1933: 31 Dec. . .	1 10	1 9¼	1 8¼	1 7½	1 8¼	1 8¾	1 9¾
1934: 31 March .	1 10	1 9¼	1 8¼	1 7½	1 8¼	1 8¾	1 10
30 June . .	1 10	1 9¼	1 8½	1 7¾	1 8½	1 9	1 10
30 Sept. . .	1 10	1 9¾	1 8½	1 8	1 8½	1 9	1 10¼

Adult Females

Date	C, F, G, X Engineering, wood, etc. printing, other manufacturing	I Clothing, boots, etc.	L Food, drink, etc.	S Shop assistants, clerks, etc.	T Domestic, hotels, etc.	Z All groups
1914: 30 April . .	0 6¾	0 6¼	0 5½	0 7½	0 7¼	0 6¾
1927: 30 June . .	1 1¾	1 2	1 0¼	1 2	1 1¾	1 2
1928: ,, . .	1 2¼	1 2¾	1 0¾	1 2	1 2¼	1 2½
1929: ,, . .	1 2¼	1 2¾	1 0¾	1 2	1 2¾	1 2½
1930: ,, . .	1 2¼	1 2¾	1 0¾	1 2¼	1 2½	1 2½
1931: ,, . .	1 0¾	1 1	0 11¾	1 1¼	1 1½	1 1
1932: ,, . .	1 0¼	0 11¾	0 11¼	1 1	1 1¼	1 0½
1933: ,, . .	0 11¾	0 11¼	0 10¾	1 0½	1 0¼	0 11¾
1934: ,, . .	0 11¾	0 11¾	0 10½	1 0½	1 0¼	1 0
1933: 31 Dec. . .	0 11½	0 11¼	0 10½	1 0¼	0 11½	0 11¾
1934: 31 March .	0 11½	0 11¼	0 10½	1 0¼	1 0	0 11½
30 June . .	0 11¾	0 11¾	0 10½	1 0½	1 0½	1 0
30 Sept. . .	0 11¾	0 11¾	0 10½	1 0½	1 0¼	1 0

TABLE X. — WAGES BY INDUSTRY OR OCCUPATION *(continued)*

Austria (Vienna). — *Minimum Weekly Wage Rates (in Schillings): Adult Males*

Date	C									
	Foundries		Iron construction		Car and body making		Electrical engineering			
							High tension [1]		Low tension	
	Skilled workers	Unskilled assistants	Fitters	Unskilled assistants	Coach makers	Unskilled assistants	Fitters	Unskilled assistants	Fitters	Unskilled assistants
31 Dec. 1927	40.80	35.52	40.80	35.52	40.80	35.52	40.80	35.52	40.80	35.52
„ 1928	52.80	42.24	48.96	39.36	60.00	38.40	52.80	42.24	40.80	35.52
„ 1929	52.80	42.24	48.96	39.36	60.00	38.40	56.16	45.12	40.80	35.52
„ 1930	52.80	42.24	56.16	45.12	60.00	38.40	56.16	45.12	40.80	35.52
„ 1931	52.80	42.24	56.16	45.12	60.00	38.40	56.16	45.12	*	*
„ 1932	52.80	42.24	56.16	45.12	60.00	38.40	56.16	45.12	*	*
„ 1933	52.80	42.24	56.16	45.12	60.00	38.40	56.16	45.12	*	*
„ 1934	52.80	42.24	57.12	45.60	60.00	38.40	56.16	45.12	*	*

Date	D	E				F		G
	Glass	Building [2]				Wood		Paper manufacture
	Skilled assistants	Masons	Carpenters	Painters	Masons' assistants	Skilled workers	Unskilled workers	Specialised workers
31 Dec. 1927	75.84	71.04	75.84	81.60	55.20	54.72-58.08	36.48	51.94-53.86
„ 1928	79.52	71.04	75.84	81.60	55.20	59.04-62.40	39.84	51.94-53.86
„ 1929	79.52	79.72	83.00	88.32	60.48	61.04-64.80	41.76	54.72-56.64
„ 1930	79.52	80.64	85.44	91.20	61.92	63.84-67.20	41.76	54.72-56.64
„ 1931	79.52	80.64	85.44	88.32	61.92	63.84-67.20	41.76	54.72-56.64
„ 1932	79.52	76.80	81.12	81.60	59.04	63.84-67.20	41.76	47.52-49.44
„ 1933	79.52	71.52	75.36	77.76	53.76	63.84-67.20	41.76	47.52-49.44
„ 1934	—	65.76	69.12	68.16	49.44	61.92-65.28	39.84	47.52-49.44

Date	G						H			
	Paper products [2]	Printing [2]		Bookbinding [2]			Textiles		Dyeing	
	Skilled workers	Printers	Assistants	Specialised workers	Bookbinders	Unskilled workers	Cotton spinners (piece rates)	Cotton weavers (piece rates)	Dyers' finishers	Assistants
31 Dec. 1927	52.75	62.50	43.50	54.23	51.25	23.68	43.00	34.00	53.76	43.68
„ 1928	55.50	65.50	45.60	57.00	54.00	25.55	43.00	34.00	53.76	43.68
„ 1929	60.25	70.50	49.10	61.75	58.25	28.15	44.50[3]	34.50[4]	56.64	45.60
„ 1930	60.25	70.50	49.10	61.75	58.25	28.15	44.50[3]	34.50[4]	57.12	46.08
„ 1931	60.25	70.50	49.10	61.75	58.25	28.15	44.50[3]	34.50[4]	54.24	43.68
„ 1932	57.00	70.50	49.10	62.00	58.50	28.50	44.50[3]	34.50[4]	54.24	43.68
„ 1933	57.00	70.50	49.10	62.00	58.50	28.50	44.50[3]	34.50[4]	54.24	43.68
„ 1934	57.00	70.50	49.10	62.00	58.50	28.50	—	—	—	—

[1] From 1931, high and low tension. — [2] Minimum wage rates, which, up to the end of 1928, may be considered as roughly equal to actual earnings. — [3] Spinners in general. — [4] Weavers in general.

TABLE X. — WAGES BY INDUSTRY OR OCCUPATION *(continued)*

Austria (Vienna). — *Minimum Weekly Wage Rates (in Schillings): Adult Males* (concluded)

Date	I						J
	Tailoring (for men)	Tailoring (for women)	Mechan. mnf. of clothing	Hat manufacturing (for men)		Hat mnf. (for women)	Skins and furs
	Skilled workers	Skilled workers	Tailors	Hat makers (skilled)	Hat makers (semi-sk.)	Finishers (time rates)	Workers
31 Dec. 1927	45.53-64.24	44.64-64.32	46.72	49.00-64.00	35.00-51.00	67.00	33.04-66.08
„ 1928	63.07-68.09	47.52-68.16[1]	48.96	50.00-70.00	36.50-53.00	68.50	35.36-70.70
„ 1929	48.26-68.09	47.52-70.08[1]	51.84	50.00-70.00	37.80-56.70	70.00	36.36-72.72
„ 1930	48.26-68.09	48.00-71.04[1]	51.84	50.00-70.00	37.80-56.70	70.00	38.97-77.93
„ 1931	48.26-68.09	48.00-71.04[1]	51.84	50.00-70.00	37.80-56.70	70.00	37.69-75.38
„ 1932	48.48-68.16	48.00-68.16[1]	51.84	50.00-70.00	37.80-56.70	68.00	36.42-72.83
„ 1933	48.48-68.16	48.00-68.16[1]	51.84	50.00-70.00	37.80-56.70	62.00	32.05-64.09
„ 1934	48.48-68.16	48.00-68.16[1]	51.84	—	37.80-56.70	62.00	32.05-64.09

Date	J				K				
	Leather		Rubber		Chemical products [2] (big industry)		Varnish and paints[2]	Oils, fats, candles, soap, perfumes, etc.[2]	
	Skilled workers	Unskilled workers	Skilled workers	Unskilled assistants	Skilled workers	Unskilled assistants	Skilled workers	Skilled workers	Unskilled assistants
31 Dec. 1927	51.36-57.12	49.92	52.80	38.80	48.00	40.80	48.48	50.88	42.72
„ 1928	52.80-58.52	51.36	52.80	38.80	49.92	42.72	51.36	53.28	45.60
„ 1929	56.16-61.92	54.72	57.60	43.60	52.32	45.12	54.24	55.68	47.52
„ 1930	56.16-61.92	54.72	57.60	43.60	52.32	45.12	54.24	55.68	47.52
„ 1931	56.16-61.92	54.72	57.60	43.60	52.32	45.12	54.24	55.68	47.52
„ 1932	56.16-61.92	54.72	57.60	43.60	52.32	45.12	54.24	55.68	47.52
„ 1933	53.28-59.04	51.84	55.20	41.68	52.32	45.12	54.24	55.68	47.52
„ 1934	—	—	47.04	37.92	52.32	43.68-46.56	54.24	55.68	47.52

Date	L						O	
	Bakeries [2]		Breweries [2]		Tobacco [2]		Gasworks	
	Skilled workers	Assistants	Skilled workers	Assistants	Specialised workers	Tobac. cutters and stovers	Skilled workers	Unskilled assistants
31 Dec. 1927	70.00	42.00	76.73	55.65	64.44	59.76	62.40-82.56	52.80-70.56
„ 1928	73.50	44.10	80.57	58.43	67.68	62.76	62.40-82.56	52.80-70.56
„ 1929	77.20	46.30	84.59	61.35	67.68	62.76	67.20-89.28	57.60-77.76
„ 1930	77.20	46.30	84.59	61.35	67.68	62.76	67.20-89.28	57.60-77.76
„ 1931	77.20	46.30	84.59	61.35	67.68	62.76	67.20-89.28	57.60-77.76
„ 1932	74.10	44.40	84.59	61.35	67.68	62.76	67.20-89.28	57.60-77.76
„ 1933	74.10	44.40	78.25	56.75	67.68	62.76	67.20-89.28	57.60-77.76
„ 1934	74.10	44.40	75.13	—	—	—	—	—

[1] Independent workers. — [2] Minimum wage rates, which, up to the end of 1928, may be considered as roughly equal to actual earnings.

TABLE X. — WAGES BY INDUSTRY OR OCCUPATION *(continued)*

Austria (Vienna). — *Minimum Weekly Wage Rates (in Schillings):*

Adult Females

Date	C					E	F		G
	Foundries	Iron construction	Car and body making	Electrical engineering: High tension	Electrical engineering: Low tension	Building [1]	Wood: Semi-sk. assistants	Wood: Unsk. assistants	Paper manufacture
	Workers	Workers	Workers	Workers	Workers	Assistants			Assistants
31 Dec. 1927	20.64	20.64	20.64	20.64	20.64	37.44	34.08	27.84	20.22-21.76
„ 1928	28.80	24.96	24.48	26.40	20.64	37.44	36.96	30.72	20.22-21.76
„ 1929	28.80	24.96	24.48	28.80	20.64	41.28	38.88	32.64	20.64-24.00
„ 1930	28.80	28.80	24.48	28.80	20.64	42.24	38.88	32.64	20.64-24.00
„ 1931	28.80	28.80	24.48	28.80		42.24	38.88	32.64	20.64-24.00
„ 1932	28.80	28.80	24.48	28.80		40.32	38.88	32.64	23.52-24.48
„ 1933	28.80	28.80	24.48	28.80		36.48	38.88	32.64	23.52-24.48
„ 1934	28.80	28.80	24.48	28.80		33.60	36.48	31.68	23.52-24.48

Date	G					H			
	Paper products [1]: Machine workers	Paper products [1]: Assistants	Printing [1]: Press feeders	Bookbinding [1]: Specialised workers	Bookbinding [1]: Workers	Textiles: Spinner assistants	Textiles: Spoolers	Textiles: Weavers	Dyeing: Skilled assistants
31 Dec. 1927	27.00	23.25	33.00	31.07	29.84	*	*	*	35.04
„ 1928	28.40	24.25	34.60	32.60	31.45	*	*	*	35.04
„ 1929	30.80	26.25	37.10	35.10	33.75	21.60	22.08	23.76	36.96
„ 1930	30.80	26.25	37.10	35.10	33.75	21.60	22.08	23.76	37.44
„ 1931	30.80	26.25	37.10	35.10	33.75	21.60	22.08	23.76	35.52
„ 1932	30.80	26.25	37.10	35.50	34.00	21.60	22.08	23.76	35.52
„ 1933	30.80	26.25	37.10	35.50	34.00	21.60	22.08	23.76	35.52
„ 1934	30.80	26.25	37.10	35.50	34.00	21.60	22.08	23.04	—

Date	I							J
	Tailoring (for women): Skilled workers	Machine-made clothing: Supervisors	Machine-made clothing: Assistants	Hat manuf. (for men): Workers	Hat manuf. (for women): Straw hat sewers (time rates)	Millinery: Hand wkrs.	Millinery: Assistants	Skins and furs: Sewing machinists
31 Dec. 1927	27.84-38.40	32.76	29.74	21.50-35.00	61.00	33.00	21.00	40.51
„ 1928	30.24-41.28	34.08	31.20	23.00-35.00	62.50	33.00	21.00	43.37
„ 1929	28.80-42.72	36.48	33.12	24.80-34.00	64.00	33.00	21.00	44.59
„ 1930	28.80-42.72	36.48	33.12	24.80-34.00	64.00	33.00	21.00	47.78
„ 1931	28.80-42.72	36.48	33.12	24.80-34.00	64.00	33.00	21.00	46.21
„ 1932	28.80-40.80	36.48	33.12	24.80-34.00	60.00	33.00	21.00	44.65
„ 1933	28.80-39.36	36.48	33.12	24.80-34.00	60.00	33.00	21.00	39.29
„ 1934	28.80-39.36	—	—	—	—	30.80-39.60	19.36-22.88	20.00-39.29

Date	J	K					L		O
	Leather	Chemical products (big industry) [1]: Skilled workers	Chemical products (big industry) [1]: Unsk. workers	Varnish and paints [1]: Machinists	Varnish and paints [1]: Assistants	Oils, fats, candles, soap, perfumes, etc. [1]: Machine workers	Breweries [1]	Tobacco [1]	Gas works
	Stitchers						Workers	Workers	Workers
31 Dec. 1927	20.20-37.00	28.32	25.92	26.48	24.96	26.40	33.00	38.88	38.40-49.92
„ 1928	23.80-38.80	29.76	27.36	29.28	27.84	27.84	35.58	40.80	38.40-49.92
„ 1929	25.00-40.90	31.68	29.28	31.20	29.76	29.28	38.07	40.80	43.20-57.12
„ 1930	25.00-40.90	31.68	29.28	31.20	29.76	29.28	38.07	40.80	43.20-57.12
„ 1931	25.00-40.90	31.68	29.28	31.20	29.76	29.28	38.07	40.80	43.20-57.12
„ 1932	25.00-40.90	31.68	29.28	31.20	29.76	29.28	38.07	40.80	43.20-57.12
„ 1933	25.00-40.90	31.68	29.28	31.20	29.76	29.28	35.22	40.80	43.20-57.12
„ 1934	—	30.72-31.68	29.28-30.24	31.20	29.76	29.28	33.80	—	—

[1] Minimum wage rates, which, up to the end of 1928, may be considered as roughly equal to actual earnings.

TABLE X. — WAGES BY INDUSTRY OR OCCUPATION *(continued)*

Belgium. — (1) *Index Numbers of Average Hourly Earnings: Males and Females (National Bank of Belgium Series)* (Base: 1933 = 100)

Date	B (and D)		C			D		E
	Coke ovens	Quarries, cement and marble works	Iron and steel metallurgy	Non-ferrous metals	Foundries and engineering	Pottery and brickworks	Glass	Building
1929: July	118	115	120	114	107	114	118	121
1930: „	122	123	120	120	114	121	115	131
1931: „	111	114	103	107	105	115	108	116
1932: „	98	103	99	99	99	105	104	102
1933: „	100	99	99	100	100	99	99	100
1934: „	96	94 †	96	98	91 †	92 †	96	94
1934: Jan.	100	96	100	100	107	101	98	102
April	100	96	101	100	98	89	99	96
July	96	94 †	96	98	91 †	92 †	96	94

Date	F	G		H and I		J	K	L
	Wood and furniture	Paper	Book printing and binding	Flax, cotton, hemp and jute	Wool, carpets, hoslery, clothing	Skins and leather	Chemicals	Food
1929: July	112	116	100	115	113	118	115	103
1930: „	120	116	106	115	115	121	123	112
1931: „	112	115	106	109	109	113	115	110
1932: „	103	97	100	100	99	104	102	102
1933: „	99	98	101	98	100	99	100	101
1934: „	90 †	98	96 †	92 †	89 †	95 †	94	97
1934: Jan.	96	99	100	97	97	99	97	97
April	94	98	96	93	95	98	96	97
July	90 †	98	96 †	92 †	89 †	95 †	94	97

Date	L	M		O	Y	Z		
						All groups		
	Tobacco	Dock work and cartage	Railways	Gas and electricity	Fine art and precision instruments	Skilled workers	Unskill. workers	All workers
1929: July	104	119	92	101	107	117	116	114
1930: „	109	116	109	112	115	120	121	120
1931: „	107	112	109	106	111	111	112	111
1932: „	97	101	100	104	98	100	100	101
1933: „	99	102	93	101	99	99	99	99
1934: „	91	97 †	93 †	98	95	95 †	95 †	94 †
1934: Jan.	98	100	93	99	95	99	98	99
April	93	96	97	99	96	97	97	97
July	91	97 †	93 †	98	95	95 †	95 †	94 †

TABLE X. — WAGES BY INDUSTRY OR OCCUPATION *(continued)*

Belgium (Brussels). — (2) *Current or Minimum Hourly Wage Rates (in francs): Adult Males*
(Data from the Brussels Labour Exchange)

Date	C			E	
	Mechanical engineering			Building	
	Turners	Fitters	Labourers	Masons	Carpenters
1929: Aug.	6.00-7.50	6.00-6.75	4.25-4.50	7.00-7.25	7.50
1930: June	6.25-7.50	6.25-7.00	4.50-4.75	7.00-2.50	7.50-7.75
1931: „	5.80-6.90	5.80-6.55	4.20-4.45	6.25 [1]	6.75 [1]
1932: „	5.40-6.45	5.40-6.10	3.90-4.20	5.75 [1]	6.00 [1]
1933: „	5.40-6.45	5.40-6.10	2.90-4.20	5.50 [1]	5.50 [1]
1934: „	5.25-6.30	5.25-5.95	3.80-4.10	5.00 [1]	5.00 [1]
1934: March	5.40-6.45	5.40-6.10	3.90-4.20	5.00 [1]	5.25 [1]
June	5.25-6.30	5.25-5.95	3.80-4.10	5.00 [1]	5.00 [1]
Sept.	5.10-6.15	5.10-5.80	3.70-4.00	5.00 [1]	5.00 [1]
Dec.	5.10-6.15	5.10-5.80	3.70-4.00	5.00 [1]	5.00 [1]

Date	E	F			G	
	Building	Wood and furniture			Paper	
	Masons' labourers	Coopers	Cabinet makers	Trimmers	Cutters	Labourers
1929: Aug.	5.75	6.50-7.25	6.90 [1]	7.25 [1]	3.90	3.15
1930: June	5.75-6.00	7.00-7.25	7.05 [1]	7.25 [1]	5.10	4.30
1931: „	4.75 [1]	6.50 [1]	6.75 [1]	6.75 [1]	5.10	4.30
1932: „	4.25 [1]	5.75 [1]	6.30 [1]	6.30 [1]	4.85	4.10
1933: „	4.00 [1]	5.00 [1]	5.85 [1]	5.85 [1]	4.85	4.10
1934: „	3.75-4.00	5.00 [1]	5.55 [1]	5.55 [1]	4.85	4.10
1934: March	3.75-4.00	5.00 [1]	5.70 [1]	5.70 [1]	4.85	4.10
June	3.75-4.00	5.00 [1]	5.55 [1]	5.55 [1]	4.85	4.10
Sept.	3.75 [1]	5.00 [1]	5.40 [1]	5.40 [1]	4.85	4 10
Dec.	3.75 [1]	5.00 [1]	5.40 [1]	5.40 [1]	4.00-4.50	3.75-4.00

Date	I				I and J	
	Clothing				Skins and leather	
	Tailors (for men)	Tailors (for women)	Hat makers (for men)	Hat makers (for women)	Cutters [2] (shoes)	Fancy leather goods workers
1929: Aug.	6.00	6.50	6.25-6.50	8.00-9.00	*	6.27-6.70
1930: June	6.50-6.75	6.50-7.00	6.75	8.00-9.00	*	6.27-6.70
1931: „	6.00-6.50	6.50-7.00	6.75	8.00-9.00	*	6.27-6.70
1932: „	6.00-6.25	6.50-6.75	7.00	7.00-7.25	5.55-6.25	5.55-6.00
1933: „	6.00-6.25	6.50-6.75	7.60-10.30	7.00-7.25	5.09-6.75	6.04 [1]
1934: „	5.00-6.00	6.00-6.50	6.00	6.75	5.09-6.75	6.04 [1]
1934: March	6.00-6.25	6.50-6.75	7.60-10.30	7.00-7.25	5.09-6.75	6.04 [1]
June	5.00-6.00	6.00-6.50	6.00	6.75	5.09-6.75	6.04 [1]
Sept.	6.25	6.00	6.00	6.75	5.09-6.75	6.04 [1]
Dec.	5.25	6.00	5.95	6.75	5.09-6.75	5.50-6.00 [1]

[1] Minimum wage. — [2] From December 1932 onwards, cutters and blockers.

TABLE X. — WAGES BY INDUSTRY OR OCCUPATION *(continued)*

Belgium (Brussels). — (2) *Current or Minimum Hourly Wage Rates (in francs): Adult Males* (concluded)
(Data from the Brussels Labour Exchange)

Date	L				Y
	Food			Tobacco	Various
	Bakers	Confectioners	Brewers (labourers)	Labourers	General labourers
1929: Aug. .	6.25-6.50	4.90-5.50	5.00-5.75	*	4.25-4.75
1930: June .	6.75-7.00	5.75-6.75	5.80	5.30	4.50-5.00
1931: „ .	6.25-7.00	5.75-6.75	5.80	4.00-4.50	4.50-5.00
1932: „ .	6.25-6.75	5.00-6.00	4.50-5.00	4.00-4.50	4.25-4.50
1933: „ .	6.40 [1]	5.00-5.75	5.60-5.80	4.00-4.50	4.00-4.50
1934: „ .	5.80-6.10	5.00-5.75	5.50-5.80	4.00-4.50	4.00-4.50
1934: March	6.40 [1]	5.00-5.75	5.50-5.80	4.00-4.50	4.00-4.50
June .	5.80-6.10	5.00-5.75	5.50-5.80	4.00-4.50	4.00-4.50
Sept. .	5.80-6.10	5.00-5.75	5.50-5.80	4.00-4.50	4.00-4.50
Dec. .	5.80-6.10	4.50-5.50	5.50-5.80	3.50-3.75	3.75-4.00

[1] Minimum wage.

Adult Females

Date	F	G	I				
	Wood and furniture	Paper	Clothing				
	Upholsterers	Counting assistants [1]	Tailoresses	Embroideresses (machine)	Seamstresses (machine)	Seamstresses (hand)	Hat workers (for women)
1929: Aug. .	4.00-4.75	2.40	4.00-5.00	3.25-3.50	2.75-3.00	3.00-3.50	7.27
1930: June .	4.00-4.75	2.40	5.50-5.75	3.25-3.50	3.00-3.25	3.25-3.50	7.40
1931: „ .	4.00-4.75	2.40	5.50-5.75	3.25-3.50	3.00-3.25	3.25-3.50	7.40
1932: „ .	3.85-4.25	2.30	4.00	3.25-3.50	3.00-3.25	3.25-3.50	6.77
1933: „ .	3.50-4.00	2.30	3.50-4.00	3.25-3.50	3.00-3.25	3.25-3.50	6.77
1934: „ .	3.25-3.50	2.30	3.50	3.25	3.00	3.00-3.25	5.75
1934: March	3.50-4.00	2.30	3.50	3.25-3.50	3.00-3.25	3.25-3.50	6.77
June .	3.25-3.50	2.30	3.50	3.25	3.00	3.00-3.25	5.75
Sept. .	3.25-3.50	2.30	3.00	3.25	3.00	3.00	5.75
Dec. .	3.25-3.50	2.30	3.00	3.25	3.00	3.00	5.25

Date	I and J			L		Y
	Skins and leather			Food	Tobacco	Various
	Shoe stitchers	Stitchers (fancy leather goods)	Pasters (fancy leather goods)	Labellers	Cigarette packers	Factory labourers (easy work)
1929: Aug. .	4.40	4.40-4.95	3.74	2.75-3.25	2.75-3.00	2.50-3.00
1930: June .	4.70	4.40-4.95	3.74	2.75-3.25	3.25-3.50	2.50-3.00
1931: „ .	4.63	4.40-4.95	3.74	2.75-3.25	3.05-3.30	2.50-3.00
1932: „ .	3.94-4.25	4.00-4.25	3.25-3.50	2.75-3.00	3.05-3.30	2.50-3.00
1933: „ .	3.57-4.00	3.95 [2]	3.95 [2]	2.75-3.00	3.05-3.30	2.50-3.00
1934: „ .	3.57-4.00	3.96 [2]	3.96 [2]	2.75-3.00	3.05-3.30	2.50-3.00
1934: March	3.57-4.00	3.96 [2]	3.96 [2]	2.75-3.00	3.05-3.30	2.50-3.00
June .	3.57-4.00	3.96 [2]	3.96 [2]	2.75-3.00	3.05-3.30	2.50-3.00
Sept. .	3.57-4.00	3.96 [2]	3.96 [2]	2.75-3.00	3.05-3.30	2.50-3.00
Dec. .	3.57-4.00	3.96 [2]	3.96 [2]	2.75-3.00	3.05-3.30	2.50-3.00

Plus a bonus of 10 per cent. — [2] Minimum wage.

TABLE X. — WAGES BY INDUSTRY OR OCCUPATION *(continued)*

Bulgaria. — *Average Hourly Wages (in leva):*

Males

Date	C				H		J	L			Z
	Metals				Textiles		Skins and leather	Leaf tobacco manipulation		Tobacco manufact.	
	Founders	Turners	Locksmiths	Unskilled workers	Wool spinning and weaving	Other textile spinning and weaving	Workers	Packers	Unskilled workers	Workers	All groups[1]
1927: VI	—	—	—	—	*	*	—	—	—	—	—
1928: VI	10.24	11.19	10.29	7.25	*	*	9.68	9.38	5.33	11.02	—
1929: VI	10.53	11.62	10.71	8.04	*	*	9.68	10.37	6.23	10.80	—
1930: VI	10.82	11.61	10.79	7.78	*	*	9.57	10.23	5.77	10.25	9.79
1931: VI	9.32	10.55	10.42	7.37	7.41	8.45	9.33	9.35	5.65	9.48	9.00
1932: VI	9.37	9.98	9.92	6.91	7.31	8.56	8.98	6.95	4.87	9.61	7.90
1933: VI	9.48	9.85	9.78	6.98	7.82	9.33	8.55	6.73	5.22	7.85	7.93
XII.	9.36	10.69	9.73	6.84	7.35	9.29	8.52	4.75	4.87	8.79	7.48

Females

Date	H			I	L				Z
	Textiles			Clothing	Leaf tobacco manipulation			Tobacco manufacture	
	Wool spinning and weaving	Other textile spinning and weaving	Knit goods	Trimmings	Packers	Sorters	Unskilled workers	Workers	All groups[1]
1927: VI	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1928: VI	*	*	*	*	7.08	6.89	4.96	5.63	—
1929: VI	*	*	*	*	8.03	7.68	5.42	5.62	—
1930: VI	*	*	*	*	8.37	7.77	5.41	5.72	6.19
1931: VI	4.64	5.08	4.76	4.95	7.08	7.31	5.16	5.79	5.61
1932: VI	4.67	5.35	4.93	4.97	6.12	5.82	4.18	5.75	4.91
1933: VI	4.95	4.97	4.64	4.87	6.55	5.14	4.34	5.55	4.99
XII.	4.72	4.71	4.65	4.75	6.39	4.62	3.65	5.47	4.73

[1] Including various industries not given in the table.

Canada. — *Index Numbers of Hourly Wage Rates: Chiefly Skilled Men*

(Base: 1913 = 100)

Date	B	C	E	F	G	M		Y	Z
	Coal mining	Metal trades	Building trades	Lumber logging and sawmills	Printing trades	Electric railways	Steam railways	General labourers	All groups[1]
1913	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
1927	168	178	179	183	195	190	198	188	185
1928	169	180	186	184	198	194	198	187	187
1929	169	185	198	186	202	199	204	188	193
1930	169	187	203	184	203	199	204	188	194
1931	169	183	196	163	205	199	199	183	192
1932	164	175	178	141	194	191	184	174	181
1933	162	169	158	122	184	183	180	168	173
1934	163	168	155	145	184	182	174	171	171

[1] The groups "Lumber logging and saw-mills", and "General labourers" are not included in "All groups".

TABLE X. — WAGES BY INDUSTRY OR OCCUPATION *(continued)*

Denmark (Copenhagen). — *Average Hourly Earnings (in öre): Males*

Date	C			D	E			F	G	
	Smiths and engineers	Electricians	Unskilled labourers	Unskilled ceramic workers	Bricklayers	Navvies and cement workers	Joiners	Cabinet makers	Paper factory workers	Typographers
1914	61.7	66.3	48.5	61.4	86.0	60.7	75.4	60.2	43.8	78.0
1927	167	150	131	131	224	159	173	155	118	182
1928	168	151	132	131	226	158	169	152	116	180
1929	168	153	132	131	238	165	176	153	116	169
1930	171	160	132	132	246	172	181	154	119	173
1931	166	163	130	130	257	173	185	156	122	172
1932	164	164	128	131	244	173	187	158	121	173
1933	164	163	129	129	246	172	184	159	120	172
1934	164	162	131	130	245	173	191	159	121	171

Date	H	I	J	K	L			M	S	Z
	Textile factory workers	Shoemakers	Unsk. labourers in tanneries	Unsk. labour. in paint and varnish factories	Bakers	Unsk. labourers in breweries	Skilled workers in cigar factories	Conductors and drivers	Warehousemen	All groups [1]
1914	42.5	56.5	*	*	59.3	*	57.7	*	45.0	61.0
1927	123	157	150	115	157	132	145	*	115	154
1928	123	153	158	115	154	134	144	151	113	154
1929	122	152	155	114	152	134	146	151	113	156
1930	123	159	156	116	151	140	152	153	115	159
1931	125	153	158	117	151	142	153	149	118	159
1932	125	148	160	117	151	142	152	146	116	156
1933	128	154	163	117	150	142	150	146	117	157
1934	130	153	166	117	150	145	149	158	117	158

[1] Average of nearly 200 occupations, of which a sample is given in the table.

Females

Date	C	D	F	G			H	I	
	Metal	Pottery	Brush industry	Paper box industry	Printing	Bookbinding	Textiles	Seamstresses	Shoemaking
1914	30.6	53.3	*	*	35.2	*	30.7	34.2	32.7
1927	87	106	*	88	89	95	87	*	92
1928	88	103	84	87	88	93	86	78	88
1929	90	103	84	88	85	95	86	77	89
1930	91	99	85	90	87	97	86	77	92
1931	89	100	85	90	88	95	87	77	90
1932	87	98	86	88	87	94	88	77	88
1933	87	94	83	90	87	94	89	77	90
1934	87	98	82	90	87	95	88	77	90

TABLE X. — WAGES BY INDUSTRY OR OCCUPATION *(continued)*

Denmark (Copenhagen). — *Average Hourly Earnings (in öre): Females* (concluded)

Date	J	K	L				T	Z
					Cigar factories			
	Tanneries	Oil mills	Breweries	Chocolate factories	Skilled workers	Unskilled workers	Laundries	All groups[1]
1914	*	*	*	28.0	36.0		*	32.3
1927	*	80	97	75	*	107	*	89
1928	96	79	98	72	117	97	*	88
1929	90	80	98	71	121	98	70	88
1930	92	80	100	71	125	102	70	90
1931	92	79	103	71	128	104	71	90
1932	86	78	103	72	127	106	72	89
1933	88	79	102	71	127	109	75	89
1934	83	79	105	72	127	110	76	89

[1] Including a certain number of industries not given in the table.

Estonia. — *Average Hourly Earnings (in sents): Males and Females*

Date	B	C	D	F	G		H
	Mining	Metal	Brick, pottery	Wood	Paper	Printing, etc.	Textiles
1927 . . .	29.4	40.6	30.3	29.3	29.3	42.5	22.5
1928 . . .	32.7	43.4	31.5	30.6	30.6	41.1	23.7
1929 . . .	33.7	44.6	31.8	33.1	32.7	40.8	23.8
1930 . . .	36.0	44.3	31.9	33.5	35.2	41.9	23.1
1931 . . .	33.6	41.7	31.4	32.2	33.1	41.5	23.8
1932 . . .	32.2	39.7	30.2	26.3	29.2	40.7	23.9
1933 . . .	31.5	39.0	27.6	24.9	29.8	39.2	24.3
1934 . . .	31.8	39.6	27.7	26.6	31.6	36.8	34.7

Date	I	J	K	L	O	T	Z
	Clothing and haberdashery	Leather and skins	Chemical products	Food and drink	Electricity, gas, and water supply	Cleaning	All groups
1927 . . .	36.4	35.3	25.0	28.0	42.7	21.9	29.3
1928 . . .	35.7	37.2	29.3	29.0	46.3	24.6	31.1
1929 . . .	33.6	36.7	32.5	29.7	48.3	26.9	32.1
1930 . . .	33.2	37.0	30.1	29.9	48.7	26.2	32.5
1931 . . .	30.4	33.0	29.8	28.6	49.5	*	31.9
1932 . . .	29.3	31.2	29.1	27.6	48.9	*	29.9
1933 . . .	26.2	31.3	29.0	27.1	45.2	*	29.2
1934 . . .	23.5	30.3	28.4	25.8	41.7	*	29.0

TABLE X. — WAGES BY INDUSTRY OR OCCUPATION *(continued)*

United States. — (1) *Average Hourly Earnings (in dollars): Males (National Industrial Conference Board Series)*

Date	C							
	Iron and steel		Foundries and machine shops		Automobile		Agricultural implement	
	a	*b*	*a*	*b*	*a*	*b*	*a*	*b*
1914: July . . .	0.321	0.206	0.303	0.222	0.323	0.204	0.284	0.225
1927: 2nd qr. . .	0.694	0.497	0.631	0.465	0.715	0.562	0.661	0.502
1928: ,, . .	0.688	0.495	0.636	0.472	0.725	0.575	0.664	0.499
1929: ,, . .	0.679	0.505	0.651	0.487	0.727	0.579	0.652	0.511
1930: ,, . .	0.671	0.482	0.654	0.486	0.739	0.604	0.605	0.507
1931: ,, . .	0.658	0.438	0.639	0.494	0.725	0.597	0.651	0.499
1932: ,, . .	0.494	0.359	0.583	0.443	0.640	0.525	0.585	0.442
1933: ,, . .	0.465	0.325	0 520	0.407	0.598	0.485	0.537	0.394
1934: ,, . .	0.673	0.481	0.624	0.505	0.721	0.578	0.624	0.484
1934: March . .	0.594	0.484	0.599	0.482	0.671	0.551	0.614	0.478
June . . .	0.668	0.476	0.630	0.504	0.735	0.579	0.633	0.485
Sept. . . .	0.669	0.478	0.627	0.498	0.766	0.584	0.651	0.485
Dec. . . .	0.680	0.477	0.630	0.508	0.764	0.574	0.669	0.513

Date	C		F				G	
	Electrical manufacturing		Lumber and millwork		Furniture		Paper and pulp	
	a	*b*	*a*	*b*	*a*	*b*	*a*	*b*
1914: July . . .	0.300	0.220	0.261	0.194	0.253	0.179	0.266	0.220
1927: 2nd qr. . .	0.677	0.481	0.642	0.413	0.621	0.446	0.622	0.445
1928: ,, . .	0.686	0.490	0.620	0.399	0.630	0.464	0.614	0.448
1929: ,, . .	0.699	0.473	0.666	0.454	0.608	0.452	0.628	0.450
1930: ,, . .	0.716	0.486	0.630	0.421	0.117	0.486	0.627	0.446
1931: ,, . .	0.697	0.483	0.571	0.486	0.566	0.413	0.618	0.454
1932: ,, . .	0.622	0.442	0.481	0.323	0.501	0.390	0.541	0.398
1933: ,, . .	0.591	0.413	0.449	0.313	0.411	0.278	0.478	0.352
1934: ,, . .	0.701	0.510	0.520	0.451	0.521	0.399	0.563	0.424
1934: March . .	0.658	0.471	0.506	0.437	0.513	0.401	0.561	0.429
June . . .	0.699	0.498	0.524	0.442	0.528	0.399	0.566	0.427
Sept. . . .	0.705	0.507	0.521	0.432	0.523	0.399	0.588	0.443
Dec. . . .	0.716	0.511	0.523	0.426	0.540	0.407	0.593	0.456

Date	G						H	
	Paper products		Printing (book and job)		Printing (news and magazine)		Cotton (North)	
	a	*b*	*a*	*b*	*a*	*b*	*a*	*b*
1914: July . . .	0.237	0.199	0.395	0.200	0.425	0.286	0.202	0.168
1927: 2nd qr. . .	0.625	0.473	0.879	0.478	0.964	0.494	0.512	0.371
1928: ,, . .	0.624	0.465	0.887	0.475	0.974	0.477	0.498	0.367
1929: ,, . .	0.625	0.446	0.939	0.478	1.000	0.487	0.503	0.367
1930: ,, . .	0.613	0.456	0.975	0.472	0.948	0.454	0.494	0.359
1931: ,, . .	0.642	0.457	0.974	0.492	0.948	0.464	0.460	0.337
1932: ,, . .	0.574	0.428	0.932	0.456	0.931	0.446	0.406	0.320
1933: ,, . .	0.531	0.398	0.847	0.436	0.819	0.398	0.359	0.290
1934: ,, . .	0.588	0.470	0.891	0.470	0.934	0.568	0.514	0.417
1934: March . .	0.598	0.458	0.893	0.475	0.901	0.596	0.497	0.406
June . . .	0.593	0.478	0.906	0.466	0.935	0.569	0.511	0.413
Sept. . . .	0.621	0.501	0.907	0.474	0.970	0.572	0.523	0.424
Dec. . . .	0.615	0.486	0.905	0.479	0.964	0.524	0.493	0.427

a = Skilled and semi-skilled workers. *b* = Unskilled workers.

TABLE X. — WAGES BY INDUSTRY OR OCCUPATION *(continued)*

United States. — (1) *Average Hourly Earnings (in dollars): Males* (concluded) *(National Industrial Conference Board Series)*

Date	H				I				J	
	Silk		Wool		Hosiery and knit goods		Boot and shoe		Leather (tanning and finishing)	
	a	*b*	*a*	*b*	*a*	*b*	*a*	*b*	*a*	*b*
1914: July	0.237	0.205	0.208	0.178	0.246	0.171	0.237	0.184	0.232	0.206
1927: 2nd qr.	0.614	0.476	0.554	0.440	0.678	0.391	0.540	0.411	0.606	0.508
1928: ,,	0.604	0.491	0.559	0.440	0.724	0.450	0.530	0.419	0.614	0.512
1929: ,,	0.588	0.495	0.550	0.440	0.803	0.391	0.561	0.438	0.597	0.482
1930: ,,	0.591	0.494	0.561	0.443	0.732	0.329	0.531	0.419	0.587	0.483
1931: ,,	0.543	0.499	0.563	0.418	0.724	0.325	0.500	0.423	0.563	0.443
1932: ,,	0.476	0.447	0.479	0.369	0.540	0.343	0.461	0.366	0.513	0.398
1933: ,,	0.394	0.379	0.413	0.329	0.438	0.301	0.454	0.344	0.448	0.320
1934: ,,	0.573	0.557	0.600	0.458	0.688	0.411	0.638	0.452	0.615	0.448
1934: March	0.580	0.555	0.562	0.437	0.669	0.422	0.628	0.444	0.605	0.441
June	0.562	0.554	0.614	0.464	0.688	0.406	0.634	0.454	0.611	0.450
Sept.	0.596	0.568	0.611	0.462	0.709	0.419	0.623	0.441	0.616	0.464
Dec.	0.613	0.646	0.606	0.462	0.684	0.439	0.600	0.433	0.615	0.460

Date	J		K				L		Z	
	Rubber		Paint and varnish		Chemical		Meat packing		All groups	
	a	*b*	*a*	*b*	*a*	*b*	*a*	*b*	*a*	*b*
1914: July	0.285	0.209	0.308	0.288	0.266	0.215	0.269	0.183	0.291	0.203
1927: 2nd qr.	0.736	0.568	0.595	0.457	0.602	0.530	0.553	0.467	0.657	0.473
1928: ,,	0.718	0.586	0.616	0.458	0.613	0.536	0.560	0.469	0.658	0.475
1929: ,,	0.732	0.606	0.606	0.470	0.612	0.556	0.549	0.473	0.667	0.486
1930: ,,	0.748	0.608	0.619	0.460	0.583	0.536	0.583	0.493	0.664	0.480
1931: ,,	0.727	0.556	0.606	0.463	0.564	0.541	0.579	0.463	0.642	0.466
1932: ,,	0.684	0.539	0.600	0.457	0.532	0.486	0.518	0.401	0.567	0.407
1933: ,,	0.637	0.450	0.541	0.412	0.496	0.451	0.456	0.361	0.515	0.370
1934: ,,	0.852	0.578	0.638	0.449	0.624	0.517	0.598	0.474	0.645	0.482
1934: March	0.854	0.580	0.618	0.476	0.587	0.512	0.574	0.478	0.615	0.465
June	0.847	0.575	0.639	0.503	0.633	0.522	0.604	0.470	0.648	0.480
Sept.	0.849	0.580	0.649	0.514	0.645	0.532	0.601	0.475	0.654	0.481
Dec.	0.869	0.596	0.646	0.500	0.655	0.534	0.634	0.511	0.656	0.486

Females

Date	C				F	G
	Foundries and machine shops	Automobile	Agricultural implement	Electrical manufacturing	Furniture	Paper and pulp
1914: July	0.138	0.164	0.166	0.165	0.149	0.144
1927: 2nd qr.	0.379	0.440	0.431	0.429	0.382	0.371
1928: ,,	0.384	0.436	0.437	0.435	0.388	0.371
1929: ,,	0.380	0.432	0.441	0.423	0.385	0.369
1930: ,,	0.385	0.444	0.439	0.436	0.419	0.370
1931: ,,	0.373	0.435	0.439	0.418	0.383	0.385
1932: ,,	0.327	0.380	0.397	0.362	0.333	0.311
1933: ,,	0.294	0.371	0.357	0.329	0.280	0.280
1934: ,,	0.396	0.437	0.446	0.447	0.383	0.355
1934: March	0.377	0.433	0.440	0.423	0.372	0.345
June	0.400	0.445	0.449	0.447	0.401	0.356
Sept.	0.405	0.432	0.445	0.451	0.398	0.363
Dec.	0.407	0.425	0.483	0.461	0.400	0.365

a = Skilled and semi-skilled workers. *b* = Unskilled workers.

TABLE X. — WAGES BY INDUSTRY OR OCCUPATION *(continued)*

United States. — (1) *Average Hourly Earnings (in dollars) : Females* (concluded) *(National Industrial Conference Board Series)*

Date	G			H			I
	Paper products	Printing (book) and job)	Printing (news and magazine)	Cotton (North)	Silk	Wool	Hosiery and knit goods
1914: July . .	0.139	0.158	0.188	0.153	0.149	0.157	0.156
1927: 2nd qr.	0.404	0.395	0.419	0.380	0.403	0.442	0.374
1928: ,,	0.408	0.404	0.485	0.356	0.409	0.427	0.365
1929: ,,	0.405	0.418	0.480	0.365	0.413	0.443	0.371
1930: ,,	0.413	0.416	0.460	0.358	0.391	0.428	0.391
1931: ,,	0.390	0.460	0.460	0.330	0.345	0.397	0.361
1932: ,,	0.334	0.425	0.462	0.280	0.286	0.325	0.330
1933: ,,	0.305	0.415	0.414	0.255	0.242	0.285	0.267
1934: ,,	0.394	0.469	0.496	0.391	0.388	0.448	0.419
1934: March .	0.395	0.469	0.470	0.391	0.388	0.446	0.409
June .	0.398	0.475	0.505	0.388	0.393	0.458	0.415
Sept. .	0.407	0.457	0.493	0.387	0.411	0.460	0.405
Dec. .	0.399	0.455	0.510	0.390	0.406	0.447	0.410

Date	I	J		K		L	Z
	Boot and shoe	Leather (tanning and finishing)	Rubber	Paint and varnish	Chemicals	Meat packing	All groups
1914: July . .	0.168	0.149	0.181	0.149	0.125	0.122	0.155
1927: 2nd qr.	0.376	0.319	0.450	0.321	0.411	0.376	0.397
1928: ,,	0.373	0.333	0.444	0.324	0.438	0.386	0.395
1929: ,,	0.394	0.316	0.436	0.326	0.431	0.392	0.400
1930: ,,	0.378	0.332	0.436	0.352	0.393	0.419	0.399
1931: ,,	0.345	0.341	0.396	0.357	0.356	0.407	0.375
1932: ,,	0.326	0.299	0.383	0.362	0.338	0.326	0.331
1933: ,,	0.326	0.256	0.363	0.323	0.339	0.272	0.299
1934: ,,	0.480	0.392	0.483	0.409	0.439	0.388	0.427
1934: March .	0.472	0.396	0.487	0.409	0.415	0.390	0.419
June .	0.472	0.396	0.476	0.408	0.450	0.388	0.429
Sept. .	0.482	0.390	0.483	0.412	0.454	0.393	0.430
Dec. .	0.464	0.399	0.488	0.404	0.454	0.417	0.428

United States. — (2) *Average Hourly Earnings (in dollars) : Males and Females (U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics Series)*

Date	B				C				
	Anthracite coal mining	Bituminous coal mining	Metalliferous mining	Crude-petroleum producing	Blast furnaces, steel works, rolling mills	Foundry and machine-shop products	Electrical machinery, apparatus and supplies	Engines, turbines, tractors, etc.	Structural and ornamental metal work
1932: Dec. . .	0.823	0.475	0.457	0.637	0.487	0.519	0.576	0.565	0.481
1933: Dec. . .	0.801	0.589	0.530	0.773	0.585	0.568	0.575	0.609	0.553
1934: Dec. . .	0.815	0.709	0.581	0.794	0.662	0.602	0.611	0.650	0.590
1934: March . .	0.818	0.575	0.543	0.764	0.593	0.564	0.579	0.604	0.554
June . .	0.823	0.713	0.555	0.792	0.644	0.589	0.605	0.627	0.584
Sept. . .	0.832	0.717	0.567	0.805	0.552	0.600	0.613	0.636	0.593
Dec. . .	0.815	0.709	0.581	0.794	0.662	0.602	0.611	0.650	0.590

TABLE X. — WAGES BY INDUSTRY OR OCCUPATION *(continued)*

United States. — (2) *Average Hourly Earnings (in dollars): Males and Females* (concluded)

(U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics Series)

Date	C		D			F			G
	Ship-building	Auto-mobiles	Cement	Brick, tile and terra cotta	Glass	Lumber (saw-mills)	Lumber (mill work)	Fur-niture	Paper and pulp
1932: Dec. . .	0.604	0.576	0.434	0.364	0.439	0.301	0.363	0.351	0.435
1933: Dec. . .	0.651	0.642	0.542	0.409	0.526	0.424	0.433	0.437	0.497
1934: Dec. . .	0.756	0.709	0.563	0.449	0.566	0.443	0.445	0.452	0.527
1934: March . .	0.702	0.651	0.536	0.414	0.535	0.423	0.425	0.427	0.503
June . .	0.722	0.699	0.564	0.442	0.550	0.435	0.443	0.448	0.511
Sept. . .	0.748	0.731	0.572	0.448	0.564	0.444	0.462	0.447	0.521
Dec. . .	0.756	0.709	0.563	0.449	0.566	0.443	0.445	0.452	0.527

Date	G		H			I			J	
	Printing and publishing									
	book and job	news-papers and period-icals	Cotton goods	Silk and rayon goods	Woollen and worsted goods	Knit goods	Men's cloth-ing	Boots and shoes	Leather	Rubber tyres and inner tubes
1932: Dec. . .	0.674	0.775	0.226	0.309	0.353	0.316	*	*	0.401	0.589
1933: Dec. . .	0.708	0.830	0.369	0.429	0.484	0.457	*	*	0.515	0.724
1934: Dec. . .	0.735	0.882	0.377	0.452	0.481	0.484	0.617	0.507	0.561	0.807
1934: March . .	0.713	0.844	0.373	0.429	0.491	0.453	0.527	0.450	0.522	0.766
June . .	0.725	0.858	0.381	0.442	0.505	0.458	0.535	0.505	0.526	0.774
Sept. . .	0.720	0.844	0.370	0.462	0.500	0.475	0.617	0.511	0.544	0.779
Dec. . .	0.735	0.882	0.377	0.452	0.481	0.484	0.617	0.507	0.561	0.807

Date	K					L				
	Rayon and allied pro-ducts	Chem-icals	Petro-leum refin-ing	Ferti-lisers	Paints and var-nishes	Slaugh-tering and meat packing	Flour	Baking	Bever-ages	Tobacco (cigars and ciga-rettes)
1932: Dec. . .	0.376	0.517	0.627	0.304	0.525	0.444	0.436	0.438	0.612	0.308
1933: Dec. . .	0.482	0.600	0.687	0.371	0.539	0.526	0.514	0.507	0.767	0.361
1934 Dec. . .	0.508	0.623	0.781	0.350	0.576	0.573	0.543	0.540	0.755	0.390
1934: March . .	0.478	0.604	0.734	0.333	0.537	0.530	0.523	0.513	0.735	0.361
June . .	0.515	0.623	0.740	0.408	0.547	0.531	0.536	0.520	0.738	0.375
Sept. . .	0.516	0.630	0.772	0.370	0.555	0.522	0.557	0.541	0.750	0.376
Dec. . .	0.508	0.623	0.781	0.350	0.576	0.573	0.543	0.540	0.755	0.390

Date	M	O	P	S		T	C to L	Z
	Elec-tric-railroad and motor-bus	Elec-tricity and gas	Tele-phone and tele-graph	Trade (whole-sale)	Trade (re-tail)	Laun-dries	All ma-nufact-uring indus-tries [1]	All groups[1]
1932: December .	0.592	0.656	0.689	0.558	0.416	0.355	0.433	0.458
1933: December .	0.588	0.669	0.715	0.611	0.444	0.379	0.526	0.512
1934: December .	0.611	0.772	0.746	0.634	0.483	0.374	0.560	0.557
1934: March . . .	0.593	0.720	0.725	0.607	0.507	0.376	0.531	0.536
June . . .	0.598	0.757	0.712	0.638	0.508	0.378	0.550	0.552
September .	0.612	0.798	0.728	0.638	0.514	0.376	0.559	0.561
December .	0.611	0.772	0.746	0.634	0.483	0.374	0.560	0.557

[1] Including various industries not given in the table.

TABLE X. — WAGES BY INDUSTRY OR OCCUPATION *(continued)*

United States. — (3) *Hourly Wage Rates (in dollars): Adult Males (Chiefly Skilled) (according to Trade Union Rates)*

Date	D	E	G		L	M		O	Z
			Printing and publishing			Transport			
	Granite and stone trades	Building trades	Book and job	Newspapers	Bakers	Chauffeurs, teamsters and drivers	Longshoremen	Electrical supply: Linemen	All groups [1]
1927: 15 May	1.321	1.323	1.021	1.190	0.957	0.704	0.817	0.991	1.154
1928: „	1.335	1.330	1.036	1.220	0.954	0.712	0.858	1.007	1.159
1929: „	1.369	1.352	1.049	1.241	0.979	0.715	0.863	1.019	1.204
1930: „	1.412	1.410	1.074	1.241	0.965	0.732	0.875	1.128	1.250
1931: „	1.437	1.428	1.068	1.247	0.934	0.740	0.868	1.135	1.254
1932: „	1.293	1.216	1.084	1.231	0.951	0.722	0.868	1.091	1.111
1933: „	1.234	1.201	1.006	1.149	0.799	0.663	0.837	1.034	1.062

[1] Including the following groups, in addition to those given in the table: laundry workers and, in 1927 and 1928, motormen and conductors in street railways and motorbus drivers.

France. — (1) *Average Daily Earnings and Average Hourly Wages (in francs): Males and Females*

Date	B			C			
	Coal mining			Metals (Paris)			
	Underground workers	Aboveground workers	All workers	Skilled workers	Semi-skilled workers	Unskilled workers	All workers
	Daily earnings			Hourly wages			
1913	5.96	4.02	5.40	*	*	*	*
1927	34.33	25.10	31.39	5.09	4.43	3.20	4.44
1928	33.53	24.90	31.00	5.43	4.56	3.43	4.77
1929	37.18	27.47	34.30	6.22	5.14	3.97	5.45
1930	40.07	29.76	36.99	6.65	5.37	4.27	5.79
1931	38.71	29.01	35.72	6.59	5.34	4.23	5.74
1932	35.72	26.83	32.87	6.23	5.15	4.10	5.47
1933	35.37	26.69	32.52	6.43	5.15	4.10	5.63
1934	35.57	26.81	32.61	6.42	5.10	3.99	5.66
1933: 1st qr.	35.25	26.65	32.55	6.34	5.15	4.09	5.53
2nd „	35.35	26.72	32.53	6.41	5.15	4.10	5.57
3rd „	35.37	26.71	32.51	6.47	5.15	4.10	5.71
4th „	35.40	26.67	32.51.	6.48	5.15	4.10	5.72
1934: 1st „	35.58	26.71	32.66	6.44	5.09	4.01	5.67
2nd „	35.55	26.80	32.61	6.43	5.10	4.00	5.66
3rd „	35.56	26.87	32.59	6.42	5.10	4.00	5.65
4th „	35.57	26.86	32.59	6.40	5.10	3.95	5.64

TABLE X. — WAGES BY INDUSTRY OR OCCUPATION *(continued)*

France. — (2) *Hourly Wage Rates (in francs):*
Adult Males

Date	B	C			D	E			F
	Quarry-men	Black-smiths	Lock-smiths	Metal-turners	Brick-makers	Mas-ons	Navvies	Painters	Cabinet makers
(*a*) All towns with over 10,000 inhabitants, except Paris									
1911 . . .	0.42	0.50	0.46	0.53	0.41	0.49	0.39	0.49	0.49
1927: Oct.	3.31	3.42	3.33	3.53	3.20	3.47	2.97	3.37	3.50
1928: ,,	3.40	3.60	3.46	3.66	3.28	3.71	3.14	3.52	3.70
1929: ,,	3.78	3.91	3.78	4.03	3.70	4.03	3.45	3.82	4.02
1930: ,,	4.07	4.22	4.10	4.37	4.00	4.42	3.75	4.17	4.50
1931: ,,	4.07	4.29	4.15	4.37	3.87	4.42	3.75	4.17	4.30
1932: ,,	3.80	4.08	3.97	4.32	3.82	4.20	3.55	4.02	4.16
1933: ,,	3.74	4.00	3.92	4.16	3.67	4.06	3.50	3.97	4.07
1934: ,,	3.76	4.00	3.87	4.16	3.67	4.04	3.43	3.96	4.13
(*b*) Paris									
1911 . . .	0.70	1.00	0.90	0.825	*	0.95	0.80	0.85	0.90
1927: Oct.	4.75	5.60	4.75	4.90	5.00	5.00	5.00	4.90	5.50
1928: ,,	4.75	5.65	5.00	5.35	5.00	5.25	5.00	4.75	5.75
1929: ,,	5.75	6.25	5.75	6.25	5.75	6.00	6.00	5.50	6.75
1930: ,,	6.50	6.45	6.50	6.45	6.50	6.50	6.25	6.50	6.75
1931: ,,	6.50	6.10	6.50	6.10	6.50	6.50	6.25	6.50	6.75
1932: ,,	6.25	6.10	6.25	6.00	*	6.25	6.00	5.85	6.35
1933: ,,	6.25	6.10	6.25	6.15	*	6.35	6.10	6.00	6.35
1934: ,,	6.25	6.10	6.25	6.05	*	6.50	6.25	6.00	6.00

Date	F	G		H	I	J	L	Y	Z
	Car-penters	Print-ing compo-sitors	Book-binders	Weav-ers	Tailors	Tan-ners	Brew-ers	General labour-ers	All groups[1]
(*a*) All towns with over 10,000 inhabitants, except Paris									
1911 . . .	0.51	0.50	0.43	0.35	0.44	0.40	0.40	0.33	0.46
1927: Oct.	3.51	3.69	3.49	2.74	3.26	3.02	2.88	2.53	3.31
1928: ,,	3.68	3.86	3.65	2.83	3.48	3.20	3.01	2.66	3.45
1929: ,,	4.06	4.19	4.01	3.11	3.75	3.48	3.36	2.95	3.83
1930: ,,	4.23	4.45	4.27	3.27	4.10	3.80	3.60	3.18	4.08
1931: ,,	4.39	4.45	4.27	3.23	4.10	3.80	3.52	3.15	4.08
1932: ,,	4.26	4.43	4.25	3.08	4.01	3.70	3.50	3.04	3.99
1933: ,,	4.13	4.34	4.23	2.94	3.82	3.57	3.41	2.91	3.89
1934: ,,	4.18	4.38	4.20	2.88	3.88	3.57	3.41	2.95	3.89
(*b*) Paris									
1911 . . .	1.00	0.80	0.60	*	0.75	*	*	*	0.875
1927: Oct.	5.00	5.70	4.60	*	5.75	*	*	*	5.12
1928: ,,	5.00	5.80	4.60	*	6.00	*	*	*	5.25
1929: ,,	6.00	6.85	5.10	*	6.00	*	*	*	6.10
1930: ,,	6.25	7.20	5.35	*	6.50	*	*	*	6.64
1931: ,,	6.50	6.95	5.35	*	6.50	*	*	*	6.61
1932: ,,	6.25	6.70	5.35	*	5.75	*	*	*	6.34
1933: ,,	6.25	6.50	5.35	*	5.75	*	*	*	6.34
1934: ,,	6.10	6.35	5.35	*	5.50	*	*	*	6.34

Adult Females

Date	I						T	Z
	Dress-makers	Seam-stresses	Waist-coat-makers	Lace makers	Embroid-eresses	Milliners	Ironers	All groups
All towns with more than 10,000 inhabitants, except Paris								
1911 . . .	0.23	0.21	0.25	0.22	0.25	0.25	0.22	0.23
1927: Oct.	1.86	1.73	1.79	1.78	1.84	1.82	1.85	1.81
1928: ,,	1.98	1.91	1.98	2.01	1.96	1.96	2.00	1.97
1929: ,,	2.39	2.16	2.26	2.26	2.29	2.24	2.27	2.26
1930: ,,	2.45	2.29	2.43	2.47	2.39	2.46	2.48	2.42
1931: ,,	2.45	2.29	2.45	2.49	2.43	2.38	2.48	2.42
1932: ,,	2.36	2.22	2.38	2.38	2.35	2.31	2.44	2.35
1933: ,,	2.30	2.16	2.33	2.20	2.24	2.23	2.33	2.26
1934: ,,	2.28	2.28	2.33	2.22	2.28	2.27	2.37	2.28

[1] Including a certain number of occupations not given in the table.

TABLE X. — WAGES BY INDUSTRY OR OCCUPATION *(continued)*

France (Paris). — (3) *Average weekly or monthly wages (in francs): Females*

Date	I				
	Dressmaking and underclothing			High-class millinery	
	First hands	Second hands	Shop girls	First milliners	Assistant milliners
	Weekly wages			Monthly wages	
1927: Oct. . .	180.00-187.00	123.00-138.00	99.00-102.00	770.00	500.00
1928: ,, . .	189.60	141.60	100.00	832.00	500.00
1929: ,, . .	208.80	156.00	110.00	832.00	500.00
1930: ,, . .	218.40	163.20	115.20	936.00	520.00
1931: ,, . .	218.40	163.20	115.20	936.00	520.00
1932: ,, . .	192.60	138.00	92.10	936.00	520.00
1933: ,, . .	194.40	139.20	93.00	936.00	520.00
1934: ,, . .	190.80	136.80	91.20	936.00	500.00

Great Britain and Northern Ireland. — (1) *Average Earnings per Shift or per Week (in shillings and pence)*

Date [1]	B	C			M	
	Coal mining	Engineering			Railway service	
		Adult male workers				
	All wage earners (including juveniles)	On time rates	Paid by results	Combined	Conciliation staff [4]	Shop and artisan staff
	Average earnings per shift [2] [3]	Average weekly earnings [2]			Average weekly payments [2] [5]	
1914	6 5¾	32 5¾	40 9	35 0¼	*	*
1927	10 0½	55 10	72 9	64 1	67 2	69 7
1928	9 7½	58 2¼	72 2¾	65 2½	66 2	70 5
1929	9 7¼	58 9¾	73 11¼	66 6	66 5	69 1
1930	9 8½	58 11	73 0¾	66 2½	65 5	69 9
1931	9 6¾	54 0½	66 6¾	60 4	65 10	68 5
1932	9 7	55 0	65 11¼	60 6¼	61 8	65 4
1933	9 6	56 9½	69 6¼	63 3¾	62 2	64 11
1934	9 7¼	58 11	72 10¾	66 3¼	62 8	67 0

[1] Coal mining: averages for the quarter ending 31 December, except for 1914 (month of June); engineering: up to 1932, March of each year, except for 1914 (July); from 1933, October; railway service: a week in March of each year, except for 1917 (a week in April). — [2] Weighted averages computed by dividing the total earnings of all the workpeople covered by the total number of these workpeople. — [3] Including the value of allowances in kind, except for 1914; figures for Great Britain only. — [4] Including grades covered by the Conciliation Scheme in operation before the war, i.e. mainly the traffic and goods staffs. — [5] Including various additional payments; figures for Great Britain only.

(2) *Wage Rates per Day, Week or Month* [1] *(in shillings and pence): Adult Males*

Date	C						
	Engineering				Shipbuilding		
	Fitters and turners	Iron moulders	Pattern makers	Labourers	Shipwrights	Ship joiners	Labourers
	Unweighted averages of recognised time rates per week						
1914: July.	38 11	41 8	42 1	22 10	41 6½	40 4½	23 0
1927: 31 Dec.	58 1	61 8	62 6	41 8	55 10½	58 3	38 6
1928: ,, ...	58 9	62 1	63 4	41 11	58 10½	58 3	40 0
1929: ,, ...	58 9	62 1	63 4	41 11	58 10½	58 5	40 0
1930: ,, ...	59 1	62 4	63 4	42 1	60 1½	60 3½	41 2
1931: ,, ...	59 1	62 4	63 4	42 1	60 0	60 1½	41 0
1932: ,, ...	59 1	62 4	63 4	42 1	60 0	60 0	41 0
1933: ,, ...	59 1	62 4	63 4	42 1	60 0	60 0	41 0
1934: ,, ...	59 1	62 4	63 4	42 1	60 0	60 0	41 0

[1] Averages covering varying numbers of large towns or important districts for which figures are available.

TABLE X. — WAGES BY INDUSTRY OR OCCUPATION *(continued)*

Great Britain and Northern Ireland. — (2) *Wage Rates per Day, Week or Month* [1] *(in shillings and pence): Adult Males* (concluded)

Date	E						F		
	Building						Furniture making		
	Bricklayers	Carpenters and joiners	Painters	Plumbers	Wiremen	Labourers	Cabinet makers	Upholsterers	French polishers
	Unweighted averages of time rates per week								
1914: July. . .	40 7	39 11	36 3	39 8	39 4	27 0	39 5	38 8	37 5
1927: 31 Dec. .	74 1	73 11	73 4	74 0	74 5	55 11	73 2	73 1	73 0
1928: ,,	72 6	72 5	71 11	72 5	74 5	54 3	73 7	73 6	73 5
1929: ,,	72 4	72 3	71 10	72 3	74 5	54 1	73 2	73 0	72 11
1930: ,,	70 7	70 7	70 3	70 7	75 3	52 7	72 5	72 0	72 2
1931: ,,	69 1	69 0	68 6	69 0	74 5	51 10	70 10	70 6	70 8
1932: ,,	67 3	67 2	67 0	67 3	72 9	50 2	68 9	68 7	68 7
1933: ,,	65 5	65 4	64 11	65 5	69 5	49 2	68 1	67 11	67 11
1934: ,,	65 6	65 5	65 1	65 6	71 5	49 4	68 1	67 11	67 11

Date	G		I	L	M				
	Printing		Boot and shoe industry	Baking	Railway service				
	Hand compositors (book and job)	Bookbinders and machine rulers	Skilled workers	Table hands	Engine drivers [3]	Goods porters	Passenger porters	Permanent way gangers	Permanent way labourers
	Unweighted averages of recognised time rates per week		Minimum time rates per week	Unweighted averages of recognised time rates per week	Rates in operation per week [4]				
1914: July. . .	35 8	33 11	— [2]	30 1	40 6	22 0	19 2	27 0	22 0
1927: 31 Dec. .	73 10	73 7	56 0	64 4	72 0–90 0	48 0	44 0	53 0	48 0
1928: ,,	73 10	73 7	56 0	64 2	70 2–87 9	46 10	42 11	51 8	46 10
1929: ,,	73 10	73 7	56 0	64 0	70 2–87 9	45 10	41 11	50 8	45 10
1930: ,,	73 10	73 7	56 0	63 5	72 0–90 0	46 0	42 0	52 0	46 0
1931: ,,	73 10	73 7	54 0	62 1	69 5–86 6	42 10	40 0	50 5	42 10
1932: ,,	73 10	73 7	54 0	61 9	69 5–86 6	42 10	40 0	50 5	42 10
1933: ,,	73 10	73 7	54 0	61 7	69 5–86 6	42 10	40 0	50 5	42 10
1934: ,,	73 10	73 7	54 0	61 7	69 10–87 1	43 0	40 0	50 7	43 0

Date	M			N			Q
	Tramways		Road transport	Shipping		Dock labour	Local authorities (non-trading services)
	Drivers	Conductors	Carters (one horse)	Able seamen	Firemen	General cargo workers	Labourers
	Unweighted averages of recognised rates per week			Predominant or standard rates per month [5]		Averages of recognised minimum rates per day	Averages of rates per week
1914: July. . .	31 0	27 8	25 7	100–110	110–120	6 1	26 9
1927: 31 Dec. .	59 11	56 7	53 3	180	190	12 3	52 7
1928: ,,	60 0	56 6	52 11	180	190	12 3	52 5
1929: ,,	60 1	56 8	52 10	180	190	12 3	52 5
1930: ,,	60 2	56 8	52 6	180	190	12 3	52 5
1931: ,,	60 1	56 8	52 1	180	190	12 3	51 9
1932: ,,	58 5	55 2	51 11	162	172	11 6	50 8
1933: ,,	58 5	55 2	51 8	162	172	11 6	50 10
1934: ,,	60 2	56 9	51 8	162	172	11 6	51 7

[1] Averages covering varying numbers of large towns or important districts for which figures are available. — [2] For the majority of the skilled men in most districts the minimum was 30s., but in certain departments and in some districts the minima were 27s., 28s., or 29s. — [3] In addition to the rates quoted, extra payments are made to drivers performing over a certain mileage per day. — [4] Figures for Great Britain only. — [5] Free food provided in addition.

TABLE X. — WAGES BY INDUSTRY OR OCCUPATION *(continued)*

Hungary. — (1) *Average Hourly Earnings (in pengös): Males and Females*

Date	C		D	F	G	
	Iron and other metallurgy	Mechanical engineering	Stone, pottery and glass	Wood and bones	Paper	Printing
1927	0.58	0.68	0.47	0.53	0.53	1.09
1928	0.62	0.70	0.48	0.56	0.56	1.15
1929	0.62	0.70	0.49	0.55	0.56	1.18
1930	0.62	0.67	0.48	0.52	0.54	1.18
1931	0.60	0.66	0.43	0.48	0.53	1.12
1932	0.58	0.61	0.40	0.43	0.50	1.12
1933	0.56	0.59	0.36	0.37	0.46	1.12

Date	H	I	J	K	L	O	Z
	Textiles	Clothing	Leather, hair and feathers	Chemicals	Food	Electricity (public utility)	All groups
1927	0.40	0.69	0.56	0.55	0.46	0.73	0.55
1928	0.42	0.67	0.55	0.51	0.46	0.78	0.56
1929	0.42	0.57	0.55	0.55	0.50	0.78	0.57
1930	0.43	0.50	0.55	0.57	0.49	0.80	0.57
1931	0.42	0.53	0.53	0.56	0.49	0.76	0.54
1932	0.39	0.46	0.51	0.55	0.45	0.70	0.50
1933	0.38	0.42	0.48	0.52	0.42	0.67	0.48

(2) *Average Hourly Earnings (in pengös): Adult Males*

Date	B			C						
	Mines			Metallurgy				Mechanical engineering		Electrical
	Hewers	Other underground workers	Unskilled workers (above ground)	Tinsmiths	Machine tool workers	Fitters and turners	Machinists and erectors	Founders	Unskilled workers	Workers
1932: Oct.	0.67	0.49	0.39	0.75	0.75	0.80	0.73	0.78	0.42	0.70
1933: ,,	0.63	0.44	0.36	0.70	0.63	0.64	0.68	0.61	0.35	0.74
1934: ,,	0.63	0.47	0.33	0.62	0.62	0.70	0.67	0.55	0.33	0.69

TABLE X. — WAGES BY INDUSTRY OR OCCUPATION *(continued)*

Hungary. — (2) *Average Hourly Earnings (in pengös): Adult Males* (continued)

Date	D			E						
	Stone, ceramic and glass			Building						
	Brick-makers	Glass-blowers	Un-skilled workers	Masons	Car-penters	Plumb-ers	Struc-tural iron workers	Con-crete workers	Paint-ers	Un-skilled workers
1932: Oct. . .	0.36	0.52	0.24	0.68	0.65	1.33	0.67	0.55	0.66	0.32
1933: „ . .	0.41	0.49	0.28	0.65	0.58	1.00	0.48	0.42	0.54	0.30
1934: „ . .	0.43	0.42	0.25	0.60	0.55	0.96	0.42	0.41	0.62	0.28

Date	F		G						H	
	Wood and bones		Paper		Printing				Textiles	
	Cabinet makers	Un-skilled workers	Work-ers in paper manuf.	Un-skilled workers	Hand compo-sitors	Ma-chine compo-sitors	Ma-chine minders	Book-binders	Work-ers in spinn-ing and weaving manuf.	Trim-ming makers
1932: Oct. . .	0.73	0.27	0.60	0.39	1.79	2.21	1.67	1.03	0.52	0.43
1933: „ . .	0.60	0.26	0.57	0.41	1.87	2.14	1.73	0.85	0.53	0.45
1934: „ . .	0.60	0.29	0.56	0.41	1.79	2.02	1.59	0.91	0.50	0.52

Date	H			I				J		
	Textiles			Clothing				Leather, skins, hair and feathers		
	Wool spinners and weavers	Cloth dyers	Un-skilled workers	Shoe-makers	Hat-makers	Gentle-men's tailors	Ladies' tailors	Work-ers in leather manu-fact.	Work-ers in rubber manu-fact.	Un-skilled workers
1932: Oct. . . .	0.50	0.57	0.30	0.55	0.66	0.73	0.93	0.58	0.51	0.44
1933: „ . . .	0.49	0.51	0.32	0.56	0.67	0.72	0.89	0.48	0.57	0.37
1934: „ . . .	0.48	0.53	0.31	0.49	0.76	0.56	0.83	0.50	0.63	0.35

TABLE X. — WAGES BY INDUSTRY OR OCCUPATION *(continued)*

Hungary. — (2) *Average Hourly Earnings (in pengös): Adult Males* (concluded)

Date	L	M						O		R
	Food	Tramways		Cartage		Railways		Electricity supply		Local authorities
	Bakers	Drivers	Conductors	Motor drivers (van and lorry)	Horse drivers (one horse)	Goods porters	Permanent way labourers	Electrical fitters	Unskilled workers	Unskilled workers
1932: Oct. . . .	0.81	0.63	0.59	0.66	0.48	0.38	0.29	0.78	0.44	0.55
1933: „ . .	0.74	0.60	0.56	0.73	0.42	0.34	0.25	0.65	0.48	0.52
1934: „ . .	0.61	0.60	0.57	0.70	0.42	0.36	0.30	0.66	0.45	0.52

Adult Females

Date	C	D	E	F	G			H	
	Mechanical and electrical engineering	Stone, ceramic and glass	Building	Wood and bones	Paper	Printing and lithography		Textiles	
	Workers	Unskilled workers	Unskilled workers	Polishers	Workers in paper manuf.	Helpers in printing	Bookbinders	Workers in spinning and weaving manuf.	Trimming makers
1932: Oct. . .	0.45	0.20	0.22	0.54	0.32	0.77	0.49	0.35	0.35
1933: „ . .	0.44	0.21	0.23	0.47	0.36	0.56	0.37	0.36	0.36
1934: „	0.44	0.20	0.28	0.40	0.38	0.54	0.53	0.35	0.36

Date	H			I			J		
	Textiles			Clothing			Leather, skins, hair and feathers		
	Wool spinners and weavers	Cloth dyers	Unskilled workers	Shoemakers	Hatmakers	Dressmakers	Workers in leather manuf.	Workers in rubber manuf.	Unskilled workers
1932: Oct. . . .	0.44	0.29	0.17	0.28	0.38	0.51	0.33	0.41	0.21
1933: „ . .	0.44	0.27	0.23	0.25	0.39	0.50	0.27	0.42	0.27
1934: „ . .	0.44	0.29	0.24	0.30	0.38	0.47	0.31	0.42	0.24

TABLE X. — WAGES BY INDUSTRY OR OCCUPATION *(continued)*

Italy. — (1) *Average Hourly Earnings* [1] *(in lire): Males and Females*

Date	B (& D) Mines and quarries	C Metals and engineering	D Building materials	E Building and contracting	F Wood	G Paper and printing	H, I, J Textiles, clothing, leather	K Chemicals and allied industries	L Food	O Water and gas supply	Z All groups [2]
1928: July	2.49	2.70	2.15	2.37	2.03	2.42	1.61	*	2.11	*	2.10
1929: „	2.35	2.75	2.21	2.21	2.05	2.23	1.69	2.15	2.04	2.56	2.10
1930: „	2.34	2.67	2.20	2.34	2.08	2.25	1.60	2.23	2.10	2.52	2.07
1931: „	2.06	2.60	1.95	2.10	1.83	2.03	1.46	2.04	1.97	2.35	1.93
1932: „	1.96	2.51	1.92	2.09	1.80	2.09	1.46	1.99	1.95	2.83	1.93
1933: „	1.91	2.43	1.84	2.02	1.83	2.00	1.38	2.02	1.87	2.72	1.85
1934: „	1.76	2.30	1.79	1.89	1.64	1.87	1.34	1.91	1.79	2.68	1.81
1934: Jan.	1.90	2.39	1.95	2.08	1.77	1.98	1.40	2.00	1.88	2.85	1.83
May	1.77	2.35	1.89	1.98	1.70	1.93	1.35	2.00	1.83	2.73	1.82
Sept.	1.76	2.25	1.84	1.95	1.68	1.89	1.32	1.97	1.99	2.67	1.79
Nov.	1.82	2.22	1.85	1.99	1.60	1.86	1.31	1.89	1.75	2.68	1.74

(2) *do. New Classification*

Date	B (and D) Mining	Marble and stone	C Metals and engineering	D Brickworks, etc.	Cement, lime and plaster	Ceramic	Glass	E Building and contracting	F Wood	G Paper
1933: Nov.	1.76	2.19	2.44	1.84	2.00	1.92	2.11	2.10	1.76	1.72
1934: Jan.	1.78	2.17	2.39	1.75	1.98	1.86	2.19	2.08	1.77	1.73
March	1.80	2.08	2.37	1.76	1.98	1.88	2.21	2.05	1.78	1.70
May	1.70	1.93	2.35	1.72	1.94	1.87	2.15	1.98	1.70	1.67
July	1.74	1.78	2.30	1.63	1.90	1.81	2.04	1.89	1.64	1.63
Sept.	1.68	1.86	2.25	1.72	1.91	1.80	2.07	1.95	1.68	1.60
Nov.	1.76	1.90	2.22	1.77	1.88	1.76	1.99	1.99	1.60	1.62

Date	G Printing	H Cotton	Wool	Silkworm breeding	Silk reeling and twisting	Silk weaving	Flax, hemp and jute	Other textiles	I Clothing	Hats
1933: Nov.	2.32	1.33	1.62	0.85	0.77	1.41	1.19	1.38	1.41	1.94
1934: Jan.	2.29	1.33	1.62	1.29	0.79	1.43	1.18	1.41	1.38	1.80
March	2.33	1.33	1.62	1.20	0.77	1.41	1.19	1.39	1.38	1.89
May	2.28	1.33	1.61	1.12	0.72	1.46	1.18	1.38	1.33	1.90
July	2.22	1.33	1.57	0.81	0.70	1.47	1.16	1.34	1.37	1.96
Sept.	2.27	1.33	1.53	0.82	0.69	1.45	1.17	1.34	1.30	1.92
Nov.	2.24	1.34	1.53	0.83	0.69	1.42	1.17	1.33	1.32	1.80

Date	I Shoes and leather prod.	Gloves [3]	Buttons [3]	J Leather tanning [4]	Rubber [3]	K Artificial textiles	Chemicals	Chemical manure	L Canned food
1933: Nov.	1.59	2.07	1.11	2.13	2.40	1.67	2.20	2.04	1.61
1934: Jan.	1.55	1.75	1.10	2.13	2.32	1.67	2.16	2.03	1.70
March	1.51	1.75	1.08	2.10	2.34	1.66	2.17	1.99	1.65
May	1.54	1.88	1.05	2.09	2.42	1.65	2.18	2.00	1.38
July	1.50	1.86	1.01	2.07	2.27	1.64	2.05	2.01	1.34
Sept.	1.52	1.86	1.07	2.01	2.25	1.64	2.11	2.04	1.36
Nov.	1.47	1.58	1.02	2.01	2.17	1.61	2.03	1.92	1.44

[1] The data refer to establishments which are slightly different from one date to the other. — [2] Including also the group " Various industries ". — [3] Included under the group " Various industries " in the preceding table. — [4] Included under the group " Textiles and clothing " in the preceding table.

TABLE X. — WAGES BY INDUSTRY OR OCCUPATION *(continued)*

Italy. — *Average Hourly Earnings* [1] *(in lire): Males and Females*
New Classification (concluded)

Date	L							O	Z
	Flour and pastry	Milk and milk prod.	Confectionery	Sugar	Fish	Beer, mineral waters, malt and ice	Wines and liqueurs	Water and gas supply	All groups [2]
1933: Nov.	1.82	1.88	1.53	2.49	1.38	2.50	1.86	2.83	1.85
1934: Jan.	1.83	1.91	1.55	2.55	1.50	2.43	1.85	2.85	1.83
March	1.94	1.87	1.53	2.56	1.45	2.37	1.90	2.70	1.82
May	1.81	1.79	1.53	2.45	1.51	2.30	1.85	2.73	1.82
July	1.74	1.80	1.41	2.44	1.38	2.15	1.89	2.67	1.78
Sept.	1.75	1.79	1.48	2.53	1.32	2.29	1.86	2.67	1.79
Nov.	1.74	1.80	1.36	2.37	1.18	2.30	1.73	2.68	1.74

[1] The data refer to establishments which are slightly different from one date to the other.
[2] Including also the group " Various industries ".

Japan. — (1) *Average Daily Earnings (in yen): Males*
(Statistical Office of the Imperial Cabinet Series)

Date	B				C			
	Coal mining	Metalliferous mining	Oil wells	All mines [1]	Metallurgy	Mechanical engineering	Shipbuilding and rolling stock	Precision instruments
1927	1.876	1.903	1.814	1.883	2.993	3.043	2.715	2.563
1928	1.894	1.934	1.807	1.902	3.057	3.186	2.764	3.066
1929	1.899	1.979	1.815	1.917	3.136	3.128	2.785	3.095
1930	1.771	1.892	1.745	1.801	3.063	2.939	2.651	2.934
1931	1.555	1.717	1.672	1.605	2.839	2.785	2.530	2.811
1932	1.471	1.626	1.644	1.525	2.958	3.016	2.591	2.891
1933	1.577	1.699	1.672	1.615	3.110	2.914	2.718	2.711
1934	1.732	1.704	1.683	1.724	3.145	2.802	2.563	2.679
1933: Dec.	1.697	1.727	1.658	1.703	3.225	2.959	2.814	2.954
1934: March	1.697	1.722	1.671	1.701	3.167	2.933	2.768	2.697
June	1.673	1.717	1.647	1.684	3.113	2.763	2.446	2.686
Sept.	1.717	1.707	1.652	1.708	3.064	2.697	2.433	2.617
Dec.	1.757	1.692	1.663	1.736	3.275	2.914	2.548	2.895

Date	D	E	F	G	H	I	J
	Ceramic	Construction	Wood and " bamboo "	Paper and printing	Textiles	Clothing	Leather, bones, feathers, etc.
1927	2.400	2.943	1.980	2.031	1.617	1.999	3.094
1928	2.369	2.867	1.948	2.052	1.642	2.048	3.256
1929	2.367	2.467	1.929	2.125	1.643	2.022	3.292
1930	2.256	2.084	1.792	2.163	1.584	1.955	3.037
1931	2.121	1.772	1.581	2.097	1.524	2.000	2.992
1932	2.042	1.851	1.570	2.079	1.499	2.056	3.016
1933	2.026	*	1.591	2.075	1.432	1.819	3.068
1934	1.999	*	1.547	2.071	1.385	1.738	3.171
1933: Dec.	2.082	*	1.656	2.119	1.424	1.766	3.219
1934: March	2.015	*	1.557	2.106	1.414	1.788	3.219
June	1.987	*	1.541	2.034	1.392	1.700	3.097
Sept.	1.963	*	1.531	2.030	1.359	1.737	3.263
Dec.	2.024	*	1.615	2.180	1.375	1.794	3.621

[1] Including also the group " Other mines ".

TABLE X. — WAGES BY INDUSTRY OR OCCUPATION *(continued)*

Japan. — (1) *Average Daily Earnings (in yen): Males* (concluded)
(Statistical Office of the Imperial Cabinet Series)

Date	K	L	O	C to O	M, N	P	M, N, P
	Chemicals	Food and drink	Gas, water and electricity	All manufact. industries [1]	Transport and navigation	Post, telegraph and telephone	All transport and communications
1927	2.234	2.116	2.525	2.538	1.813	1.466	1.790
1928	2.353	2.150	2.593	2.596	1.983	1.497	1.950
1929	2.363	2.165	2.660	2.645	1.974	1.465	1.941
1930	2.296	2.157	2.885	2.551	2.030	1.469	1.992
1931	2.228	2.126	2.358	2.430	2.046	1.507	2.010
1932	2.215	2.137	2.356	2.506	2.051	1.524	2.015
1933	2.140	2.080	2.466	2.544	2.087	1.516	2.048
1934	2.102	2.078	2.490	2.486	2.074	1.505	2.034
1933: Dec.	2.155	2.071	2.467	2.621	2.097	1.827	2.079
1934: March	2.129	2.029	2.473	2.589	2.089	1.494	2.050
June	2.107	2.084	2.473	2.431	2.142	1.482	2.095
Sept.	2.056	2.068	2.520	2.403	2.016	1.470	1.977
Dec.	2.171	2.112	2.520	2.540	2.018	1.739	1.998

[1] Including also the group " Miscellaneous ".

Females

Date	B				C			
	Coal mining	Metalliferous mining	Oil wells	All mines [1]	Metallurgy	Mechanical engineering	Shipbuilding and rolling stock	Precision instruments
1927	1.341	0.707	0.775	1.254	1.267	1.149	1.107	1.094
1928	1.315	0.726	0.817	1.233	1.263	1.179	1.118	1.337
1929	1.255	0.737	0.836	1.176	1.268	1.557	1.154	1.241
1930	1.101	0.713	0.832	1.032	1.244	1.516	1.158	1.112
1931	0.821	0.668	0.828	0.785	1.162	1.448	1.208	1.187
1932	0.711	0.626	0.833	0.690	1.199	1.420	1.176	1.263
1933	0.700	0.643	0.833	0.686	1.213	1.290	1.160	0.986
1934	0.730	0.650	0.838	0.711	1.171	1.225	1.052	1.001
1933: Dec.	0.724	0.662	0.828	0.711	1.220	1.271	1.127	1.703
1934: March	0.724	0.653	0.832	0.709	1.196	1.238	1.192	1.027
June	0.714	0.655	0.833	0.702	1.136	1.240	1.028	1.028
Sept.	0.729	0.642	0.821	0.707	1.159	1.200	0.974	1.001
Dec.	0.749	0.642	0.830	0.720	1.192	1.238	0.964	0.963

Date	D	E	F	G	H	I	J
	Ceramic	Construction	Wood and " bamboo "	Paper and printing	Textiles	Clothing	Leather, bones, feathers, etc.
1927	0.953	0.573	0.840	1.101	0.951	1.065	1.297
1928	0.943	0.602	0.808	1.115	0.962	1.152	1.297
1929	0.953	0.541	0.804	1.145	0.913	1.122	1.222
1930	0.898	0.651	0.747	1.150	0.845	1.013	1.279
1931	0.773	0.476	0.650	1.134	0.733	1.032	1.218
1932	0.749	0.542	0.732	1.146	0.672	1.014	0.961
1933	0.771	*	0.759	1.118	0.652	1.013	0.825
1934	0.759	*	0.769	1.095	0.634	0.914	0.848
1933: Dec.	0.800	*	0.712	1.116	0.641	0.894	0.769
1934: March	0.782	*	0.761	1.099	0.634	0.914	0.852
June	0.762	*	0.781	1.055	0.632	0.879	0.890
Sept.	0.749	*	0.777	1.085	0.630	0.955	0.818
Dec.	0.770	*	0.755	1.125	0.646	0.937	0.852

[1] Including also the group " other mines ".

TABLE X. — WAGES BY INDUSTRY OR OCCUPATION *(continued)*

Japan. — (1) *Average Daily Earnings (in yen): Females* (concluded)
(Statistical Office of the Imperial Cabinet Series)

Date	K	L	O	C to O	M, N	P	M, N, P
	Chemicals	Food and drink	Gas, water and electricity	All manufact. industries [1]	Transport and navigation	Post, telegraph and telephone	All transport and communications
1927	1.073	1.075	1.194	0.990	1.082	0.967	0.995
1928	1.096	1.059	1.214	1.003	1.181	0.970	1.020
1929	1.103	1.075	1.229	0.989	1.267	0.966	1.043
1930	1.109	1.082	1.285	0.913	1.295	0.965	1.050
1931	1.090	1.096	1.283	0.821	1.302	0.981	1.065
1932	1.085	1.086	1.265	0.765	1.331	0.979	1.074
1933	1.013	1.008	1.255	0.735	1.283	0.964	1.053
1934	1.030	0.993	1.261	0.725	1.239	0.955	1.039
1933: Dec. . .	1.049	1.064	1.214	0.737	1.280	0.973	1.062
1934: March . .	1.033	1.024	1.206	0.732	1.212	0.952	1.030
June . . .	1.047	0.947	1.245	0.722	1.293	0.949	1.055
Sept. . . .	1.040	0.972	1.312	0.721	1.203	0.950	1.019
Dec. . . .	1.074	1.076	1.231	0.741	1.193	0.970	1.032

[1] Including also the group " Miscellaneous ".

(2) *Index Numbers of Average Daily Earnings: Males or Females*
(Bank of Japan Series) (Base: 1926 = 100)

Date	C					D	F	G	
	Metal working	Mechanical engineering	Tools and instruments	Vehicles	Shipbuilding	Ceramic, glass, building materials	Lumbering and wood working	Paper making	Printing and binding
1927. . . .	101	101	100	102	96	102	100	101	102
1928. . . .	104	104	100	101	100	101	99	102	103
1929. . . .	104	102	97	97	102	99	97	103	100
1930. . . .	98	95	90	90	94	92	88	102	96
1931. . . .	94	89	86	85	87	85	79	95	93
1932. . . .	94	96	88	86	91	83	75	90	91
1933. . . .	96	101	89	90	97	84	73	92	90
1934. . . .	98	97	85	88	98	82	73	92	90
1933: Dec. .	98	103	91	95	103	83	74	92	94
1934: March	99	100	87	93	101	83	72	92	94
June.	98	96	86	86	96	82	72	91	88
Sept..	97	95	84	85	97	80	73	91	89
Dec. .	102	101	89	92	104	83	76	93	95

Date	H				I	J	K		L	Z
	Silk reeling	Spinning	Weaving	Dyeing	Braiding and knitting	Rubber	Medical products	Artificial manure	Food and drink	All groups [1]
1927. . . .	96	100	98	98	100	102	101	102	102	102
1928. . . .	96	101	98	98	96	103	101	101	101	105
1929. . . .	94	96	95	95	93	105	102	102	102	104
1930. . . .	83	87	84	92	84	97	98	101	99	99
1931. . . .	68	75	74	88	76	92	95	94	95	91
1932. . . .	62	66	69	86	73	88	91	95	92	88
1933. . . .	62	63	67	83	70	86	83	95	93	89
1934. . . .	61	61	66	81	68	86	78	95	92	91
1933: Dec. .	62	62	66	84	72	87	80	95	92	92
1934: March	60	62	66	82	72	85	78	96	91	94
June.	59	60	66	81	66	87	79	95	92	91
Sept..	64	61	67	82	66	88	78	93	92	90
Dec. .	63	62	67	82	69	91	79	96	92	95

[1] Silk reeling excluded.

TABLE X. — WAGES BY INDUSTRY OR OCCUPATION *(continued)*

Latvia (Riga). — *Average Hourly Earnings (in santimos):*

Adult Males

Date	C		D		E		F	
	Metallurgy and mechanical engineering		Ceramic, stone, clay, cement, etc.		Building and road construction		Wood	
	a	*b*	*a*	*b*	*a*	*b*	*a*	*b*
1928. . . .	77	52	75	56	79	59	73	58
1929. . . .	77	56	83	55	78	57	71	57
1930. . . .	81	59	89	57	78	53	72	59
1931. . . .	81	60	87	55	75	53	71	56
1932. . . .	75	55	77	53	65	40	56	47
1933. . . .	60	45	74	48	59	38	52	43
1934. . . .	59	44	75	49	57	42	52	43
1933: Dec.	59	45	75	45	59	39	54	45
1934: March	60	43	74	46	61	44	52	42
June	60	45	74	49	56	38	53	42
Sept.	59	42	74	48	57	45	51	44
Dec.	58	46	82	49	57	40	53	45

Date	G				H		I		J	
	Paper		Printing		Textiles		Clothing		Leather and skins	
	a	*b*	*a*	*b*	*a*	*b*	*a*	*b*	*a*	*b*
1928. . . .	60	43	124	61	65	41	83	51	86	65
1929. . . .	66	46	126	63	67	49	80	59	79	69
1930. . . .	65	47	127	62	68	49	78	56	86	71
1931. . . .	55	42	127	59	67	49	78	53	82	68
1932. . . .	45	36	114	51	65	48	66	52	83	59
1933. . . .	44	36	103	52	59	48	67	49	76	54
1934. . . .	46	36	95	50	57	46	67	45	69	60
1933: Dec.	44	36	102	51	58	48	70	59	76	55
1934: March	46	32	101	50	57	46	65	46	73	56
June	44	35	98	48	57	50	72	45	73	62
Sept.	45	43	93	50	58	45	68	43	69	62
Dec.	49	32	96	52	57	46	66	44	62	67

Date	K (and J)		L		O		T		Z	
	Chemicals [1]		Food, drink, tobacco, etc.		Gas, electricity and water supply		Cleaning and laundries		All groups	
	a	*b*	*a*	*b*	*a*	*b*	*a*	*b*	*a*	*b*
1928. . . .	70	56	83	57	—	—	82	47	83	54
1929. . . .	73	58	84	57	90	70	81	47	81	57
1930. . . .	73	57	87	59	97	84	73	45	84	59
1931. . . .	75	55	83	57	96	83	72	45	82	57
1932. . . .	67	54	75	51	86	72	78	48	72	50
1933. . . .	66	56	69	47	84	72	68	40	81	83
1934. . . .	68	59	67	45	82	63	58	41	63	47
1933: Dec.	69	57	70	47	87	71	66	40	66	47
1934: March	69	58	68	45	87	75	59	41	64	46
June	68	59	69	46	87	67	55	41	63	47
Sept.	68	57	66	44	76	60	49	43	62	47
Dec.	68	61	67	46	56	48	62	42	64	48

a = Skilled workers. *b* = Unskilled workers. [1] Including rubber.

TABLE X. — WAGES BY INDUSTRY OR OCCUPATION *(continued)*

Latvia (Riga). — *Average Hourly Earnings (in santimos)* (concluded): *Adult Females*

Date	C		D	E	F	G			H	
	Metallurgy and mechanical engineering		Ceramic, stone, clay, cement, etc.	Building and road construction	Wood	Paper	Printing		Textiles	
	a	*b*	*b*	*b*	*b*	*b*	*a*	*b*	*a*	*b*
1928	47	30	26	33	29	25	86	42	37	28
1929	46	33	27	35	29	28	124	46	46	31
1930	53	35	28	37	28	29	121	46	42	33
1931	42	36	27	35	29	29	122	46	39	32
1932	45	33	26	30	27	27	104	41	39	31
1933	43	31	25	31	25	25	92	39	38	32
1934	42	30	25	31	26	26	81	36	38	31
1933: Dec. . .	43	32	24	33	26	23	92	40	37	32
1934: March . .	42	30	26	35	24	26	87	37	39	30
June . .	40	31	25	31	24	26	78	38	38	33
Sept. . .	48	30	26	32	26	27	79	36	38	30
Dec. . .	46	32	25	32	26	29	76	37	37	31

Date	I		J	K (and J)		L	T		Z	
	Clothing		Leather and skins	Chemicals [1]		Food, drink, tobacco, etc.	Cleaning and laundries		All groups	
	a	*b*	*b*	*a*	*b*	b	*a*	*b*	*a*	*b*
1928	45	31	29	—	37	31	39	35	43	32
1929	44	37	32	50	38	33	43	38	45	33
1930	44	36	33	47	36	34	44	40	44	33
1931	45	33	34	52	35	33	43	39	42	33
1932	36	34	32	40	36	30	39	36	39	31
1933	36	31	32	47	36	29	35	34	44	33
1934	36	31	34	55	36	29	35	33	38	30
1933: Dec. . .	37	29	33	49	38	30	34	32	38	31
1934: March . .	36	30	33	55	30	29	37	33	39	29
June . .	38	31	33	58	38	28	33	32	38	30
Sept. . .	37	31	34	51	32	29	35	33	39	30
Dec. . .	37	31	35	60	35	28	35	35	38	30

a = Skilled workers. *b* = Unskilled workers. [1] Including rubber.

Norway. — (1) *Average Hourly or Daily Earnings (in kroner): Adult Males*

Date	B	C		F			G			Z
	Mining	Metals		Sawmills			Paper [1]			
	Adult males (underground and surface)	Sk. workers	Unsk. workers	Head sawyers	Assistant sawyers	Yard hands	Mechan. paper pulp mnf.	Chemical paper pulp mnf.	Paper manufacturing	All groups [2]
	Hourly earnings			Daily earnings						
1927: 3rd qr.	1.35	1.51	1.28	11.03	10.17	11.08	10.29	10.60	10.12	12.17
1928: ,, ,,	1.27	1.50	1.29	11.25	9.85	10.58	9.86	10.28	9.87	11.56
1929: ,, ,,	1.30	1.51	1.26	11.14	9.59	10.60	9.94	10.46	9.82	11.59
1930: ,, ,,	1.31	1.52	1.27	10.92	9.93	10.58	9.79	10.54	9.79	11.59
1931: 4th ,,	1.18	1.37	1.15	9.86	9.23	9.95	9.02	9.66	9.22	11.05
1932: 3rd ,,	1.22	1.37	1.15	—	—	—	9.02	9.66	9.22	11.14
1933: ,, ,,	1.16	1.32	1.11	—	—	—	8.88	9.86	9.22	11.06
1934: ,, ,,	1.11	1.38	1.14	—	—	—	8.88	9.86	9.22	11.02

[1] Figures for the 2nd half-year. — [2] Including various industries and occupations not given in the table.

TABLE X. — WAGES BY INDUSTRY OR OCCUPATION *(continued)*

(2) *Weekly Wage Rates (in kroner): Adult Males (on Time Rates)*

Date	E					I		L	M
	Building and construction					Clothing		Food	Transport
	Masons	Carpenters and joiners	Painters	Masons' assistants	Cement workers, quarry men, navvies	Tailors	Shoemakers	Bakers	Carters
1927: Autumn	78.00	73.00	75.00	71.00	69.00	70.00	58.00	78.00	60.00
1928: ,,	73.00	68.00	71.00	66.00	64.00	61.00	56.00	72.00	56.00
1929: ,,	74.00	70.00	72.00	67.00	66.00	62.00	57.00	73.00	54.00
1930: ,,	74.00	69.00	72.00	67.00	66.00	63.00	56.00	71.00	56.00
1931: ,,	73.00	68.00	71.00	66.00	65.00	62.00	55.00	69.00	55.00
1932: ,,	73.00	68.00	70.00	66.00	65.00	62.00	55.00	69.00	53.00
1933: ,,	73.00	68.00	71.00	66.00	65.00	62.00	55.00	69.00	54.00
1934: ,,	73.00	68.00	70.00	66.00	65.00	62.00	55.00	69.00	54.00

New Zealand. — *Minimum Weekly Wage Rates (in shillings and pence): Adult Males*

Date	B					C			
	Coal mining				Gold mining	Metal-works			
	Miners	Truckers	Tippers (surface)	Labourers (surface)	Miners in rises or winzes with machines	Blacksmiths, farriers	Boiler-making (journeymen)	Iron and brass moulders	Tinsmiths (journeymen)
1914 . .	63 3	55 11	53 7½	54 3¾	64 6	61 7	62 8	64 7½	62 8
1927 . .	110 2	94 0	90 8	90 8	94 2	99 0	99 0	99 0	99 0
1928 . .	110 2	94 1	90 8	90 8	94 2	99 0	99 0	99 0	99 0
1929 . .	106 10	92 9	87 7	87 7	94 2	99 0	99 0	99 0	99 0
1930 . .	106 10	93 6	87 7	87 7	94 2	99 0	99 0	99 0	99 0
1931 . .	106 10	93 6	87 7	87 7	94 2	99 0	99 0	99 0	99 0
1932 . .	95 2	84 2	78 10	78 10	84 9	89 1	89 1	89 1	89 1
1933 . .	90 8	81 6	74 6	75 6	80 9	82 3	82 3	82 3	89 1
1934 . .	89 1	80 2	73 3	73 3	80 9	82 3	82 3	82 3	85 6

Date	C				D		E		
	Metal-works	Electrical engineering		Boat-building	Mineral and stone workers		Building		
	Engineering (fitters)	Electrical workers	Motor mechanics	Shipwrights	Brickmakers	General hands	Bricklayers	Carpenters	Joiners
1914 . .	64 7½	61 10½	64 11½	62 8	53 11½	46 9¾	68 5¼	64 3½	64 3½
1927 . .	99 0	99 0	99 0	101 2	103 2	85 4	99 11¼	101 9	101 9
1928 . .	99 0	99 0	99 0	104 6	104 2	86 4	99 11¼	101 9	101 9
1929 . .	99 0	99 0	99 0	104 6	104 2	86 4	99 11¼	101 9	101 9
1930 . .	99 0	99 0	99 0	104 6	104 2	87 4	104 6	101 9	101 9
1931 . .	99 0	99 0	99 0	104 6	104 2	87 4	104 6	101 9	101 9
1932 . .	89 1	89 1	89 1	94 1	93 9	78 7	93 1	91 7	91 7
1933 . .	82 3	85 2	80 8	88 0	93 9	78 7	93 1	88 0	88 0
1934 . .	82 3	85 2	80 8	88 0	93 9	78 7	93 1	88 0	88 0

Date	E			F			H		I
	Building			Sawmilling			Woollen mills		Tailors
	Plasterers	Plumbers (competent)	Labourers	Sawyers	Yardmen	General hands	Spinners	General hands	Journeymen
1914 . .	67 9½	66 0	52 6½	53 0½	55 8¾	51 0	51 0	46 6	53 9
1927 . .	99 11	99 0	82 6	103 4	100 2	84 4	93 9	82 6	95 0
1928 . .	99 11	99 0	82 6	103 4	100 2	84 4	93 9	82 6	95 0
1929 . .	102 3	99 0	82 6	103 4	100 2	86 9	93 9	82 6	95 0
1930 . .	102 3	99 0	82 6	103 4	100 2	86 9	93 9	82 6	95 0
1931 . .	104 1	99 0	82 6	103 4	100 2	86 9	93 9	82 6	95 0
1932 . .	93 8	89 1	74 3	93 0	90 2	78 1	84 5	74 3	85 6
1933 . .	92 7	89 3	74 3	84 11	82 4	70 6	84 5	74 5	86 0
1934 . .	92 7	89 3	74 3	84 11	82 4	70 6	84 5	74 5	86 0

TABLE X. — WAGES BY INDUSTRY OR OCCUPATION *(continued)*

New Zealand. — *Minimum Weekly Wage Rates (in shillings and pence):*
Adult Males (concluded)

Date	I		J			L			
	Tailors	Boot operatives	Skin and leather			Bakery		Flour-milling	Meat freezing
	Factory hands	Workers	Curriers	Pelt-fleshers	General hands	Journeymen	Labourers	Rollermen	General hands
1914 . .	56 0	52 6	58 0	54 6	49 6	55 0	48 0	56 0	54 0
1927 . .	87 6	85 3	102 0	95 0	85 8	97 6	78 0	100 0	91 8
1928 . .	87 6	88 11	102 0	95 0	85 8	100 0	80 6	100 0	91 8
1929 . .	87 6	88 11	102 0	95 0	85 8	100 0	80 6	100 0	91 8
1930 . .	87 6	88 11	102 0	95 0	85 8	100 0	80 6	100 0	91 8
1931 . .	87 6	88 11	102 0	95 0	85 8	100 0	80 6	100 0	91 8
1932 . .	78 9	80 0	91 9	85 6	77 1	90 0	72 6	90 0	82 6
1933 . .	78 9	79 9	91 9	85 6	77 1	86 10	71 10	90 0	79 9
1934 . .	78 0	79 9	90 0	80 0	75 4	89 4	74 4	90 0	79 9

Date	L				M				
	Meat preserving		Cordial-making	Brewery	Railways			Tramways	
	Boners	Second men	Cordial-makers	Labourers	Engine-drivers	Firemen	Guards	Motormen	Conductors
1914 . .	62 0	59 6	58 9	47 7½	75 0	60 0	63 0	53 6	47 7½
1927 . .	102 8	95 4	93 0	83 0	109 11½	90 3	106 8	94 6	89 6
1928 . .	102 8	95 4	93 0	83 6	112 4	94 5	110 0	94 6	89 6
1929 . .	103 7	95 4	93 0	83 6	112 4	94 5	110 0	95 0	90 6
1930 . .	103 7	95 4	93 0	83 6	112 4	94 5	110 0	95 0	90 6
1931 . .	103 7	95 4	93 0	83 6	112 4	94 5	110 0	95 0	90 6
1932 . .	92 3	85 10	83 9	74 9	101 1	84 11	99 0	85 6	81 6
1933 . .	90 9	82 6	83 9	74 9	90 11	76 6	89 2	86 0	81 6
1934 . .	90 9	82 6	83 9	74 9	90 11	76 6	89 2	87 4	82 9

Date	N			S			T	
	Shipping		Dock	Soft-goods shops	Warehouses	Grocery shops	Hotels	
	Able seamen	Ordinary seamen, 1st class	Ordinary workers	Assistants	Storemen	Assistants	Chefs	Waiters
1914 . .	69 11	60 8	62 4	55 0	53 3¼	50 0	112 6	53 0
1927 . .	96 2	74 3	97 2	93 1½	85 0	93 1½	132 0	87 0
1928 . .	96 2	74 3	97 2	95 0	85 0	95 0	132 0	87 0
1929 . .	100 2	78 3	97 2	95 0	85 0	95 0	132 0	87 0
1930 . .	100 2	78 3	102 8	95 0	85 0	95 0	132 0	87 0
1931 . .	99 2	77 3	102 8	95 0	85 0	95 0	132 0	87 0
1932 . .	97 2	75 3	92 5	85 6	76 6	85 6	118 9	78 3
1933 . .	88 0	68 6	88 0	85 6	76 6	84 7	111 0	72 9
1934 . .	83 10	65 2	88 0	85 2	76 2	84 7	111 0	72 9

Adult Females

Date	H	I				T		
	Woollen mills	Tailoring (shop)		Tailoring (factory)	Boot-operations	Hotels		
	Adult workers	Coat hands	Machinists	Journeywomen	Journeywomen	Cooks	Housemaids	Waitresses
1914 . .	26 3	30 0	26 9	37 6	27 6	52 6	32 6	43 1
1927 . .	45 0	50 0	50 0	45 0	48 6	79 6	62 6	62 6
1928 . .	45 0	50 0	50 0	45 0	50 0	79 6	62 6	62 6
1929 . .	45 0	50 0	50 0	45 0	50 0	79 6	62 6	62 6
1930 . .	45 0	50 0	50 0	45 0	50 0	79 6	62 6	62 6
1931 . .	45 0	50 0	50 0	45 0	50 0	79 6	62 6	62 6
1932 . .	40 6	45 0	43 0	40 6	45 0	71 7	56 3	56 3
1933 . .	40 6	48 10	44 10	40 6	44 0	66 3	51 9	51 9
1934 . .	40 6	48 10	44 10	40 6	44 0	66 3	51 9	51 9

TABLE X. — WAGES BY INDUSTRY OR OCCUPATION *(continued)*

Netherlands. — (1) *Average Hourly, Daily, or Weekly Earnings (in florins): Adult Males*

Date	B		C			E			N
	Coal mining		Metals [1]			Building (Amsterdam)			Harbours (Amsterdam) [2]
	Underground workers	Surface workers	Skilled workers	Semi-skilled workers	Unskilled workers	Masons	Carpenters	Masons' assistants	Dockers
	Daily earnings		Hourly earnings						Weekly earnings
1927	5.50	3.96	*	*	*	0.97	0.91	0.85	34.88
1928	5.55	3.99	0.68	0.60	0.52	0.96	0.91	0.85	35.70
1929	5.75	4.13	0.71	0.62	0.54	0.98	0.91	0.87	35.88
1930	5.85	4.28	0.73	0.64	0.56	1.02	0.92	0.88	35.42
1931	5.64	4.23	0.73	0.64	0.56	0.96	0.90	0.81	34.68
1932	5.26	3.98	0.66	0.57	0.51	0.89	0.86	0.83	31.55
1933	5.14	3.93	0.63	0.55	0.50	0.81	0.78	0.73	31.05
1934	5.13	3.91	0.60	0.54	0.48	0.75	0.76	0.68	31.24 †
1933: Dec.	5.15	3.96	0.63	0.55	0.50	0.77	0.77	0.69	30.97
1934: March	5.15	3.95	*	*	*	0.77	0.78	0.67	31.42
June	5.16	3.94	0.60	0.54	0.48	0.73	0.75.	0.69	31.07
Sept.	5.05	3.86	*	*	*	0.73	0.76	0.69	31.76
Dec.	5.08	3.89	0.60	0.53	0.47	0.75	0.75	0.66	30.72

[1] Annual figures: averages for the 1st half-year, except for 1932 (2nd half-year); monthly figures: averages for the half-year ending with the month in question. — [2] Monthly figures: averages for the quarter ending with the month in question.

Netherlands (Amsterdam). — (2) *Weekly Wage Rates (in florins): Adult Males*

Date	F			G			
	Wood	Furniture		Printing		Lithography	Book binding
	Skilled workers	Upholsterers	Joiners	Hand compositors	Machine compositors	Lithographers	Bookbinders
1927: 1 June	34.50	32.64	33.60	35.04	39.36	41.00	35.04
1928: ,,	34.50	32.64	33.60	35.04	39.36	42.00	35.04
1929: ,,	35.00	32.64	33.60	35.04	39.36	43.00	35.04
1930: ,,	35.00	33.12	34.08	35.04	39.36	43.00	35.52
1931: ,,	35.00	33.60	34.56	36.00	40.32	43.00	36.00
1932: ,,	35.00	32.64	33.60	35.04	39.36	41.00	35.04
1933: ,,	32.75	31.68	32.64	33.60	37.92	38.00	33.60
1934: ,,	32.75	31.68	32.64	31.68	35.52	38.00	31.68

Date	I	L				M
	Clothing	Bakeries	Chocolate industry	Breweries	Tobacco industry	Transport
	Men's tailors [1] (workshops)	Bakers	Workers [2]	Workers	Sorters	Despatch clerks
1927: 1 June	33.60	35.00	27.00	*	29.76	31.40 [2]
1928: ,,	33.60	35.00	27.00	*	29.76	31.40 [2]
1929: ,,	33.60	35.00	27.00	32.00	*	31.40 [2]
1930: ,,	34.08	36.00	27.00	32.00	28.73	32.00 [2]
1931: ,,	34.08	36.00	27.00	31.00-34.00	28.73	32.00
1932: ,,	32.16	36.00	27.00	31.00-34.00	28.73	32.00
1933: ,,	32.16	35.00	27.00	31.00-34.00	26.57	29.80
1934: ,,	31.20	35.00	27.00	25.00-29.00	26.57	28.60

[1] Basic time rates for piece workers. [2] Wages fixed entirely by the employer.

TABLE X. — WAGES BY INDUSTRY OR OCCUPATION *(continued)*

Poland. — *Average Hourly Earnings (in zloty): Males and Females*

Date	B	C			E	F	G
	Coal mining	Metal-lurgy	Minerals	Metal industry	Building	Wood	Paper
1928	1.06	1.09	0.70	0.97	1.13	0.62	0.92
1929	1.18	1.23	0.75	1.03	1.29	0.65	1.00
1930	1.25	1.29	0.73	1.01	1.25	0.63	0.96
1931	1.24	1.31	0.60	0.96	1.19	0.52	0.79
1932	1.14	1.21	0.56	0.92	0.97	0.49	0.74
1933	1.06	1.17	0.48	0.81	0.82	0.41	0.71
1934	1.01	1.16	0.45	0.75	0.76	0.38	0.68

Date	G	H	I	J	K	L	Z
	Printing	Textiles	Clothing	Leather and skins	Chemicals	Food	All groups
1928	1.41	0.83	0.72	1.15	1.09	0.98	0.94
1929	1.43	0.87	0.76	1.17	1.17	1.00	1.02
1930	1.36	0.81	0.71	1.13	1.13	0.96	1.01
1931	1.26	0.75	0.65	0.93	0.93	0.84	0.95
1932	1.19	0.70	0.61	0.87	0.87	0.77	0.87
1933	1.08	0.66	0.57	0.80	0.84	0.71	0.80
1934	1.01	0.66	0.53	0.78	0.80	0.69	0.75

Rumania. — *Index Numbers of Average Monthly Earnings: Skilled Males and Females*
(Base: 1914 = 100)

Date	B	C		D	E	F	G
	Mining	Metallurgy and engineering	Precision and art work	Pottery and glass	Building	Wood and furniture	Printing
1914	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
1927	3,381	2,532	2,428	3,067	2,598	2,657	2,713
1928	3,069	2,511	2,495	3,092	2,635	2,723	2,808
1929	3,103	2,577	2,526	3,130	2,619	2,726	2,965
1930	3,113	2,468	2,452	2,900	2,499	2,623	2,948
1931	2,534	2,202	2,174	2,488	2,263	2,287	2,649
1932	2,077	1,843	1,754	1,928	1,802	1,815	2,124
1933	2,032	1,669	1,611	1,897	1,660	1,632	1,889
1934	2,237	1,661	1,590	1,849	1,607	1,632	1,841
1934: Jan.	2,245	1,663	1,599	1,954	1,668	1,646	1,887
April	2,257	1,640	1,590	1,832	1,563	1,584	1,818
July	2,241	1,670	1,580	1,753	1,596	1,655	1,833
Oct..	2,207	1,670	1,589	1,787	1,606	1,643	1,826

Date	H	I	J	K	L	M	Z
	Textiles	Clothing	Leather and skins	Chemical products	Food	Transport	All groups [1]
1914	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
1927	2,644	2,662	2,894	2,628	2,854	2,901	2,714
1928	2,668	2,681	2,966	2,651	2,958	2,881	2,748
1929	2,677	2,716	3,006	2,651	2,969	3,603	2,764
1930	2,563	2,530	2,829	2,620	2,864	2,661	2,656
1931	2,321	2,197	2,441	2,335	2,583	2,441	2,356
1932	1,920	1,739	2,011	1,890	2,140	2,127	1,903
1933	1,769	1,601	1,823	1,751	1,950	1,939	1,743
1934	1,756	1,558	1,787	1,677	1,886	1,894	1,705
1934: Jan.	1,738	1,592	1,822	1,712	1,860	1,853	1,725
April	1,726	1,535	1,797	1,646	1,878	1,880	1,683
July	1,775	1,554	1,776	1,671	1,892	1,935	1,706
Oct.	1,785	1,550	1,753	1,680	1,912	1,908	1,704

[1] Including agriculture, commercial occupations and various categories of unskilled labourers.

TABLE X. — WAGES BY INDUSTRY OR OCCUPATION *(continued)*

Sweden. — *Average Hourly Earnings*[1] *(in kronor): Adult Males*

Date	B	C						D (and B)	E
	Iron mines	Iron, steel, and copper works	Iron and steel manufacture	Metal manufacture	Gold and silver ware manufacture	Mechanical engineering	Electrical engineering	Earth and stone (incl. coal mines and turf)	Building
1927	1.58	1.02	1.10	1.21	1.66	1.20	1.33	0.94	1.62
1928	1.63	1.04	1.11	1.21	1.76	1.22	1.32	0.95	1.62
1929	1.65	1.07	1.13	1.23	1.71	1.24	1.38	0.97	1.77
1930	1.71	1.09	1.17	1.19	1.69	1.26	1.38	0.98	1.95
1931	1.73	1.08	1.15	1.17	1.59	1.26	1.39	0.97	2.01
1932	1.65	1.06	1.09	1.14	1.50	1.22	1.34	0.94	1.86
1933	1.54	1.09	1.08	1.11	1.53	1.21	1.31	0.94	1.51

Date	E	F	G				H	I	
	Municipal building and construction work	Wood (floating, sawmilling, carpentry, etc.)	Paper pulp	Paper and cardboard	Other departments of the paper industry	Printing	Textiles	Clothing	Hats and caps
1927	1.47	1.01	1.11	1.04	1.22	1.51	0.91	1.38	1.35
1928	1.46	1.02	1.16	1.06	1.24	1.52	0.92	1.45	1.34
1929	1.54	1.05	1.17	1.07	1.27	1.52	0.92	1.40	1.39
1930	1.62	1.04	1.21	1.08	1.27	1.56	0.92	1.44	1.30
1931	1.69	1.00	1.20	1.09	1.25	1.56	0.94	1.39	1.32
1932	1.66	0.96	1.11	1.07	1.23	1.55	0.92	1.31	1.29
1933	1.57	0.95	1.09	1.04	1.20	1.54	0.93	1.29	1.34

Date	J (and I)	K	L	M		O	S	W	Z
	Leather, skins, and rubber (incl. shoe factories)	Chemicals	Food, drink, and tobacco	Railways, cartage, etc.	Municipal street railways	Power, light, and water works	Commerce and warehousing	Miscellaneous industries	All groups
1927	1.18	1.12	1.34	1.30	1.85	1.38	1.23	1.37	1.20
1928	1.19	1.13	1.35	1.31	1.84	1.42	1.26	1.33	1.22
1929	1.18	1.15	1.38	1.31	1.87	1.47	1.28	1.33	1.25
1930	1.22	1.19	1.38	1.43	1.87	1.50	1.31	1.39	1.29
1931	1.18	1.19	1.36	1.42	1.83	1.53	1.33	1.41	1.29
1932	1.17	1.19	1.37	1.37	1.81	1.50	1.31	1.42	1.27
1933	1.16	1.18	1.36	1.57	1.81	1.47	1.32	1.40	1.22
1934	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1.21

Adult Females

Date	C					D
	Iron and steel manufacture	Metal manufacture	Gold and silver ware manufacture	Mechanical engineering	Electrical engineering	Earth and stone
1927.	0.61	0.79	*	0.90	0.91	0.59
1928.	0.61	0.83	0.91	0.90	0.92	0.61
1929.	0.60	0.84	0.93	0.88	0.96	0.66
1930.	0.63	0.87	0.88	0.89	1.00	0.67
1931.	0.63	0.85	0.90	0.83	0.97	0.67
1932.	0 62	0.84	0.76	0.72	0.92	0.65
1933	0.62	0.82	0.86	0.73	0.90	0.65

[1] Including payments for overtime, value of allowances in kind, etc.

TABLE X. — WAGES BY INDUSTRY OR OCCUPATION *(continued)*

Sweden. — *Average Hourly Earnings* [1] *(in kronor)*: *Adult Females* (concluded)

Date	F	G			H	I	
	Wood	Paper and cardboard	Other departments of the paper industry	Printing	Textiles	Clothing	Hats and caps
1927. . .	0.72	0.64	0.71	0.88	0.63	0.76	0.71
1928. . .	0.74	0.65	0.73	0.83	0.64	0.79	0.72
1929. . .	0.69	0.67	0.76	0.80	0.64	0.79	0.72
1930. . .	0.69	0.68	0.74	0.86	0.65	0.81	0.73
1931. . .	0.71	0.71	0.73	0.91	0.64	0.78	0.71
1932. . .	0.72	0.71	0.74	0.88	0.65	0.77	0.71
1933. . .	0.73	0.70	0.72	0.86	0.64	0.75	0.71

Date	J (and I)	K	L	S	W	Z
	Leather, skins, and rubber (incl. boot and shoe factories)	Chemicals	Food, drink, and tobacco	Commerce and warehousing	Miscellaneous industries	All groups
1927.	0.76	0.69	0.86	0.77	0.73	0.72
1928.	0.75	0.70	0.84	0.78	0.74	0.73
1929.	0.75	0.71	0.86	0.81	0.77	0.74
1930.	0.79	0.74	0.86	0.78	0.77	0.75
1931.	0.77	0.75	0.85	0.80	0.75	0.75
1932.	0.76	0.75	0.85	0.80	0.75	0.74
1933.	0.76	0.75	0.85	0.80	0.75	0.73
1934.	—	—	—	—	—	0.73

[1] Including payments for overtime, value of allowances in kind, etc.

Switzerland. — *Average Hourly Earnings (in francs): Adult Males*

Date	B (and D)		C				D		E	
	Mines and quarries		Metals and mechanical engineering		Watchmaking		Earth and stone industry		Building	
	a	*b*	*a*	*b*	*a*	*b*	*a*	*b*	*a*	*b*
1913	0.50	0.50	0.65	0.49	0.65	*	*	0.45	0.64	0.48
1929	1.37	1.03	1.48	1.17	1.49	1.05	1.46	1.14	1.54	1.16
1930	1.38	1.03	1.50	1.18	1.48	1.01	1.47	1.12	1.54	1.17
1931	1.38	1.03	1.49	1.18	1.58	1.16	1.47	1.16	1.54	1.17
1932	1.32	1.01	1.44	1.16	1.38	*	1.43	1.10	1.53	1.12
1933	1.26	1.00	1.41	1.13	1.44	*	1.38	1.08	1.50	1.10
1934	1.25	0.97	1.38	1.10	1.39	0.92	1.31	1.06	1.46	1.07

Date	F (and A)		F		G				H	
	Forestry		Wood		Paper		Printing		Textiles	
	a	*b*	*a*	*b*	*a*	*b*	*a*	*b*	*a*	*b*
1913	*	*	0.67	0.46	*	0.42	*	*	*	*
1929	1.05	0.95	1.41	1.03	1.34	1.08	1.96	1.20	1.19	1.09
1930	1.02	0.99	1.41	1.04	1.38	1.10	2.00	1.16	1.23	1.09
1931	1.08	0.93	1.40	1.04	1.40	1.11	2.04	1.18	1.26	1.10
1932	1.02	0.93	1.36	1.01	1.33	1.07	1.97	1.19	1.16	1.03
1933	0.99	0.89	1.34	0.98	1.33	1.08	1.94	1.16	1.11	1.03
1934	0.97	0.87	1.31	0.97	1.32	1.08	1.90	1.19	1.08	0.97

a = Skilled and semi-skilled workers. *b* = Unskilled workers.

TABLE X. — WAGES BY INDUSTRY OR OCCUPATION *(continued)*

Switzerland. — *Average Hourly Earnings (in francs):*
Adult Males (concluded)

Date	I		K		L		M	
	Boots and shoes		Chemicals		Food, drink and tobacco		Cartage (road transport)	
	a	*b*	*a*	*b*	*a*	*b*	*a*	*b*
1913 . .	*	*	0.57	0.45	0.70	0.53	*	*
1929 . .	1.22	1.05	1.46	1.22	1.48	1.27	*	1.17
1930 . .	1.28	1.08	1.46	1.23	1.61	1.45	1.44	1.21
1931 . .	1.25	1.07	1.56	1.27	1.69	1.38	1.35	1.19
1932 . .	1.25	0.96	1.49	1.24	1.44	1.33	1.33	1.18
1933 . .	1.17	0.91	1.51	1.24	1.50	1.30	*	1.20
1934 . .	1.18	*	1.49	1.24	1.46	1.29	*	1.20

Date	O				S		Z	
	Electricity supply		Gas and water supply		Warehousing and commerce		All groups	
	a	*b*	*a*	*b*	*a*	*b*	*a*	*b*
1913 . .	0.66	0:45	*	*	*	*	0.65	0.48
1929 . .	1.48	1.10	1.68	1.32	1.50	1.23	1.48	1.14
1930 . .	1.54	1.10	1.70	1.38	1.60	1.27	1.49	1.16
1931 . .	1.74	1.34	1.98	1.60	1.57	1.32	1.51	1.16
1932 . .	1.51	1.19	1.68	1.40	1.47	1.19	1.45	1.11
1933 . .	1.49	1.17	1.71	1.36	1.49	1.18	1.43	1.09
1934 . .	1.53	1.21	1.78	1.48	*	1.19	1.39	1.07

a = Skilled and semi-skilled workers. *b* = Unskilled workers.

Adult Females

Date	C		D	F	G	
	Metals and mechanical engineering	Watch making	Earth and stone industry	Wood	Paper	Printing
1913.	0.31	*	*	*	*	*
1929.	0.77	0.88	0.74	0.73	0.70	0.80
1930.	0.80	0.86	0.68	0.73	0.67	0.78
1931.	0.79	0.88	0.71	0.68	0.70	0.84
1932.	0.76	0.83	0.71	0.71	0.70	0.79
1933.	0.73	0.84	*	0.64	0.66	0.81
1934.	0.71	0.82	*	0.59	0.63	0.77

Date	H	I	K	L	S	Z
	Textiles	Boots and shoes	Chemicals	Food, drink, and tobacco	Warehousing and commerce	All groups
1913.	0.30	*	*	0.25	*	0.30
1929.	0.77	0.76	0.77	0.69	0.72	0.77
1930.	0.77	0.82	0.74	0.68	0.78	0.76
1931.	0.79	0.81	0.80	0.70	0.83	0.78
1932.	0.74	0.75	0.80	0.71	0.73	0.74
1933.	0.72	0.75	0.79	0.68	*	0.72
1934.	0.70	0.74	0.77	0.68	*	0.71

TABLE X. — WAGES BY INDUSTRY OR OCCUPATION *(continued)*

Czechoslovakia (Prague). — *Index Numbers of Minimum Hourly Wage Rates: Males and Females (Chiefly Skilled)* (Base: 1914 = 100)

Date	C				D	E			F	
	Metal foundries (second smelting)	Mechanical engineering		Electrical engineering	Brickmakers	Carpenters	Painters	Building trade labourers	Joiners	Coopers
		Large undertakings	Medium undertakings							
1914	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
1927	709	816	983	857	893	902	795	807	985	987
1928	752	859	983	925	1,122	908	826	915	1,021	1,032
1929	807	911	983	966	1,141	927	847	942	1,035	1,057
1930	807	911	983	966	1,089	927	847	942	1,035	1,057
1931	807	911	983	966	1,089	927	847	942	1,035	1,057
1932	807	911	983	966	1,089	927	847	942	1,035	1,057
1933	807	911	983	966	1,089	835	810	942	1,035	1,007
1934	807	911	983	966	1,089	834	793	866	1,035	980
1934: March	807	911	983	966	1,089	834	793	942	1,035	980
June	807	911	983	966	1,089	834	793	842	1,035	980
Sept.	807	911	983	966	1,089	834	793	842	1,035	980
Dec.	807	911	983	966	1,089	834	793	842	1,035	980

Date	G				H	I	J	L		Z
	Printers	Bookbinders	Lithography and printing	Assistants in printing	Cotton spinning	Tailors	Furriers	Breweries	Spirit distilleries	All groups[1]
1914	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
1927	983	1,183	1,184	1,204	1,008	1,084	1,273	1,116	1,292	923
1928	983	1,183	1,184	1,204	979	1,084	1,363	1,178	1,292	968
1929	983	1,183	1,184	1,204	979	1,084	1,532	1,308	1,292	993
1930	1,022	1,233	1,230	1,274	979	1,162	1,790	1,370	1,292	1,016
1931	1,022	1,233	1,230	1,274	979	1,191	1,790	1,370	1,292	1,020
1932	1,022	1,225	1,230	1,274	946	1,191	1,790	1,370	1,292	1,020
1933	1,022	1,225	1,230	1,274	908	1,191	1,790	1,370	1,292	1,016
1934	960	1,192	1,156	1,200	908	1,191	1,790	1,265	1,292	993
1934: March	960	1,225	1,156	1,200	908	1,191	1,790	1,262	1,292	1,009
June	960	1,204	1,156	1,200	908	1,191	1,790	1,262	1,292	989
Sept.	960	1,162	1,156	1,200	908	1,191	1,790	1,262	1,292	986
Dec.	960	1,162	1,156	1,200	908	1,191	1,790	1,262	1,292	986

[1] Including a certain number of groups of occupations not given in the table.

Union of South Africa. — *Index Numbers of Weekly Wage Rates: Adult Males (European)* (Base: 1914 = 100)

Date	B		C	E	G	M, N, P	S	X	Z
	Mining (gold)	Mining (diamond)	Engineering and metal working	Building	Printing, bookbinding, etc.	Transp. and communic. (railways, harbours, tramways, post)	Trading	General manufactur. (not to be classified)	All groups
1914	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
1927: 30 Sept.	119	117	128	136	142	140	147	135	134
1928: "	120	119	129	140	142	140	141	136	135
1929: "	121	120	130	140	142	139	147	136	136
1930: "	122	120	130	140	142	143	144	133	136
1931: "	122	116	129	137	139	125	134	133	131
1932: "	122	64	128	125	135	120	132	131	127
1933: "	122	64	128	125	128	119	144	131	128
1934: "	121	68	127	124	132	123	145†	134	128†

TABLE X. — WAGES BY INDUSTRY OR OCCUPATION *(continued)*

U.S.S.R. — *Average Monthly Wages (in červ. rubles): Males and Females*

Date	B			C		F	G	
	Coal mining	Minerals	Oil wells	Iron metallurgy	Mechanical and electrical engineering	Woodworking	Paper	Printing
1927	59.34	57.59	70.60	68.79	82.37	55.72	60.23	82.31
1928	63.27	62.56	77.95	75.61	92.94	60.98	67.04	90.34
1929	68.81	65.86	85.50	83.82	103.29	65.60	75.53	94.87
1930	76.47	74.33	90.15	88.30	108.36	72.90	82.50	100.90
1931	97.74	88.55	114.09	103.42	119.69	80.95	92.12	108.89
1932	122.08	105.07	130.15	132.24	142.93	105.34	111.18	122.84
1933	132.60	133.44	151.40	142.65	151.84	114.20	110.83	130.26

Date	H			I		J	K	L	Z
	Cotton	Wool	Flax	Clothing	Boots and shoes	Leather and skins	Chemicals	Food	All groups
1927	55.87	57.81	39.40	69.50	80.33	77.78	74.87	60.89	64.07
1928	59.89	63.73	41.58	79.79	86.72	85.70	82.09	68.06	70.24
1929	65.00	68.70	46.34	85.84	86.48	87.74	85.85	74.43	77.06
1930	64.29	70.62	47.43	81.70	88.78	88.29	88.66	74.71	82.59
1931	72.05	74.91	57.61	81.87	96.71	95.02	100.16	82.46	96.10
1932	85.86	90.16	70.60	95.11	112.11	111.46	122.62	96.18	115.42
1933	103.85	101.90	89.55	97.03	120.24	115.79	129.81	102.41	127.17
1934: March . .	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	139.43
June . . .	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	148.67

Yugoslavia. — *Average Monthly Earnings (in dinars): Males and Females*

Date	B	C	D	E	F			G
	Mining	Metals	Ceramic	Construction	Tree felling	Sawmilling	Furniture	Paper
1914: July . . .	65	91	88	103	55	65	99	132
1930: Dec. . . .	788	1,345	1,164	1,280	688	990	1,403	1,459
1931: „ . . .	773	1,207	1,154	1,223	652	918	1,403	1,475
1932: „ . . .	674	1,223	1,066	1,000	559	802	1,367	1,517
1933: „ . . .	650	981	976	742	527	602	1,120	1,453
1933: Sept. . . .	650	992	990	778	527	618	1,160	1,453
Dec. . . .	650	981	976	743	527	602	1,120	1,453
1934: March . .	650	975	972	737	527	602	1,115	1,453

TABLE X. — WAGES BY INDUSTRY OR OCCUPATION *(concluded)*

Yugoslavia. — *Average Monthly Earnings (in dinars): Males and Females* (concluded)

Date	G	H	I	K	L	M		
	Printing	Textiles	Clothing	Chemicals	Food	Railways	Cartage (van and lorry)	Transport (animals)
1914: July . . .	151	72	79	89	57	82	122	59
1930: Dec. . . .	2,669	907	1,050	1,183	909	1,010	1,490	1,287
1931: „ . . .	2,669	907	1,050	1,183	950	1,159	1,490	1,287
1932: „ . . .	2,510	907	958	1,183	942	1,063	1,406	1,259
1933: „ . . .	2,371	945	1,194	1,042	889	1,059	1,353	1,229
1332: Sept. . . .	2,371	919	893	1,017	903	1,059	1,380	1,229
Dec. . . .	2,371	945	894	1,042	888	1,059	1,353	1,229
1934: March . .	2,371	952	890	1,042	883	1,062	1,218	1,229

Date	N	O	P	S		T	C to L	Z
	Navigation and air transport	Gas, electricity and water	Post, telegraph and telephone	Commercial undertakings	Banking and insurance	Hotels	All manufact. industries	All groups [1]
1914: July . . .	102	92	111	104	118	104	70	86
1930: Dec. . . .	1,311	2,219	1,121	1,522	2,878	1,492	951	1,143
1931: „ . . .	1,457	2,157	1,212	1,528	2,191	1,435	899	1,137
1932: „ . . .	1,293	2,090	1,167	1,469	1,881	1,320	802	1,042
1933: „ . . .	1,266	2,028	1,167	1,359	1,459	1,072	768	989
1933: Sept. . . .	1,266	2,428	1,167	1,372	1,459	1,090	799	989
Dec. . . .	1,266	2,028	1,167	1,359	1,459	1,072	768	988
1934: March . .	1,266	2,028	1,167	1,346	1,459	1,012	754	953
June . . .	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	961
Sept. . . .	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	919

[1] Including various industries not given in the table.

TABLE XI. — WAGES PER HOUR OF ADULT MALE WORKERS IN VARIOUS OCCUPATIONS IN OCTOBER 1934 (*a*)

Industry and occupation (with code letter)	Australia	Austria		Belgium	Canada		Denmark		Spain	
	Sydney	Vienna		Brussels	Montreal	Toronto	Copenhagen		Barcelona	Madrid
	Rates	Rates	Earnings	Rates	Rates		Rates	Earnings	Rates	
	s. d.	Sch.	Sch.	Fr.	$	$	Kr.	Kr.	Ptas.	Ptas.
C. *Mechanical engineering:*										
Fitters and turners	2 1.09	1.11 *d*	1.34 *d* (1.63 *b*)	5.10	0.65 *b*	0.65 *b*	0.96	1.62	1.38	1.77
Ironmoulders (sand)	2 1.09	1.20	1.52	5.10	0.70	0.65	*	1.72	1.38	1.77
Patternmakers	2 3.55	1.17	1.43	*	0.75	0.75	*	1.76	1.38	1.77
Unskilled labourers	1 6.55	0.94	1.03 (1.24)	3.95	0.35	0.40	0.95	1.31	1.00	1.09
E. *Building:*										
Bricklayers and masons	2 5.11 *d*	1.37	*	5.00 *b*	0.70	0.90	1.21	2.45	1.85	1.75
Structural iron workers	1 9.25	*	*	*	0.65	0.80	*	*	1.38	1.64
Concrete workers	1 9.25	1.24	*	4.50	0.40	0.50	*	*	1.38	1.47
Carpenters and joiners	2 6 *b*	1.44	*	5.13 *d*	0.60	0.80	1.15 *d*	1.99 *d*	1.62	1.60
Painters (general)	2 3.50	1.28 *c*	*	4.50	0.60	0.75	1.26	1.86	1.50	1.70
Plumbers	2 6.50	1.30	*	5.50	0.65	0.85	0.96	1.85	1.38	1.66
Electrical fitters	2 4.23	1.30	*	*	0.65	1.00	0.92	1.63	1.38	2.20
Unskilled labourers	1 9.25	1.03	*	3.75	0.40	0.50	*	1.78	1.35	1.15
F. *Furniture-making:*										
Cabinet makers	2 1.50	0.97	1.10	5.40	0.56	*	1.08	1.59	1.69	1.62
Upholsterers	2 1.50	0.97	1.10	5.00 *d*	0.75	*	1.05	1.68	1.69	1.75
French polishers	2 1.50	0.87	0.92	5.40	0.55	*	*	*	1.69	1.62
G. *Printing and bookbinding:*										
Hand compositors (book and job)	2 0.55	1.47	*	5.98 *c*	0.70 *e*	0.75 *e*	1.26 *ce*	*	1.67	1.85
Machine compositors (book and job)	2 3.82 *b*	1.76	*	*	0.70 *e*	0.75 *e*	1.54 *e*	1.71	2.52	2.67
Machine minders	2 0.55 *b*	1.47 *b*	*	5.98 *be*	0.70 *be*	0.75 *be*	1.16 *ce*	1.82	1.19	1.90
Bookbinders	2 0.55	1.37	*	5.92 *e*	0.73 *e*	0.75 *e*	1.15	1.71	1.56	1.70
Unskilled labourers	1 6	1.04	*	4.10	*	*	*	1.29	1.13	1.25
L. *Food industry:*										
Bakers	2 5.86 *b*	1.55	*	5.80	0.46 *e*	0.54 *e*	1.43 *ce*	1.50	1.50	1.50
M. *Transport:*										
Tram and bus drivers	1 10.23	*	1.64 *df*[1]	*	0.51 *b*	0.60 *b*	1.30 *cg*	*	1.41 *d*	1.19
Tram and bus conductors	1 8.59	*	1.62 *df*[1]	*	0.51 *b*	0.60 *b*	1.30 *cg*	*	1.32 *d*	1.19
Motor drivers (van and lorry)	2 0.27	1.29 *e*	*	4.17 *e*	0.40	0.50	1.21 *e*	*	1.08	1.50
Horse drivers (one horse)	1 10.36	0.90 *e*	*	4.17 *e*	0.35	0.43 *e*	1.03 *e*	*	1.03	0.75
Railway goods porters	1 7.36	*	*	*	0.43 *b*	0.43 *b*	*	*	0.94	0.73
Railway permanent way labourers	1 6.41	0.80 *bc*	*	*	0.38	0.38	*	*	1.00	0.73
O. *Electric power distribution:*										
Electrical fitters	2 4.23	*	1.60 *e*	*	0.62	0.80	*	*	1.38	1.75
Unskilled labourers	1 10.50	*	1.28 *e*	*	0.37	0.40	*	*	1.00	1.12
Q. *Local authorities:*										
Unskilled labourers	1 10.50	*	*	*	0.40	0.59	*	1.60	1.00	1.00

(*a*) Except for Canada, figures at 1 October. — (*b*) Complementary definition of certain occupations: *Fitters and turners:* in Vienna, turners at piece work only; in Canada, machinists. *Bricklayers and masons:* in Brussels, masons only. *Carpenters and joiners:* in Sydney, carpenters only. *Upholsterers:* in Brussels, paper-hangers. *Machine compositors:* in Sydney, linotype operators. *Machine minders (printing):* in Sydney, machinists; in Vienna, printers; in Brussels, " conducteurs-typographes "; in Canada, pressmen. *Bakers:* in Sydney, ovenmen. *Tram and bus drivers and conductors:* in Canada, tram employees only. *Railway goods porters:* in Canada, freight truckers. *Permanent way labourers:* in Vienna, supernumerary workers. — (*c*) Average of two or more wages. — (*d*) Average of wages for the two occupations indicated. — (*e*) Averages calculated on the basis of daily or weekly wages, divided by normal hours of work. — (*f*) Averages calculated on the basis of monthly wages, divided by total normal hours of work. — (*g*) Average calculated on the basis of yearly wages, divided by total normal hours of work.

[1] Including certain allowances.

TABLE XI. — WAGES PER HOUR OF ADULT MALE WORKERS IN VARIOUS OCCUPATIONS IN OCTOBER 1934 (*a*) *(continued)*

Industry and occupation (with code letter)	Estonia		France			Great Britain		
	Tallinn		Lyons	Marseilles	Paris	Glasgow	London	Manchester
	Rates	Earnings	Rates			Rates		
	Est. Cr.	Est.Cr.	Fr.	Fr.	Fr.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
C. *Mechanical engineering:*								
Fitters and turners	0.30 (0.29)	0.44	6.75 *b*	4.33 *e*	5.93 (6.80) *b*	1 3.10 *ce*	1 4.06 *e*	1 2.81 *e*
Ironmoulders (sand)	0.30 (0.29)	0.44	*	4.42 *e*	5.97 (6.80) *b*	1 4.56 *e*	1 4.06 *e*	1 3.95 *e*
Patternmakers	0.30 (0.29)	0.44	*	3.96 *e*	7.70	1 4.56 *ce*	1 5.17 *e*	1 3.83 *e*
Unskilled labourers	0.23 (0.22)	0.29	5.50 *b*	3.28 *e*	4.00 (4.55)	0 11.07 *ce*	0 11.56 *e*	0 10.21 *e*
E. *Building:*								
Bricklayers and masons	0.38 (0.33)	0.37	7.00	4.50 *e*	6.50	1 6.25 *d*	1 7	1 5.50
Structural iron workers	0.38	0.39	*	4.38 *e*	*	1 4	1 6.50	1 5.50
Concrete workers	0.35	0.35	7.50 *b*	4.63 *e*	*	1 1.50 *b*	1 3 *b*	1 2.50 *b*
Carpenters and joiners	0.32 (0.26)	0.31	7.08 *d*	4.63 *de*	6.10	1 6	1 7	1 5.50
Painters (general)	0.33	0.30	6.75	4.13 *e*	6.00	1 6	1 6	1 5.50
Plumbers	0.25 (0.35)	0.35	7.00 *b*	4.38 *e*	6.50	1 6	1 7	1 5.50
Electrical fitters	0.38 (0.40)	0.39	6.75	4.38 *e*	6.00	1 6	1 8.75	1 5.75
Unskilled labourers	0.24 (0.23)	0.27	5.88 *c*	3.63 *ce*	*	1 1.50	1 2.25	1 1.25
F. *Furniture-making:*								
Cabinet makers	0.29 (0.28)	0.29	*	4.88 *ce*	6.00	1 6.50 [3]	1 7 [3,4]	1 5.50
Upholsterers	0.26 (0.45)	0.38	*	5.44 *ce*	*	1 6.50 [3]	1 7 [3,4]	1 5.50
French polishers	0.35	0.35	*	4.63 *ce*	*	1 6.50 [3]	1 6.50 [3,4]	1 5.50
G. *Printing and bookbinding:*								
Hand compositors (book and job)	0.46	0.46	5.34 *e*	5.34 *e*	*	1 6.88 *e* [3]	1 10.25 *e* [3]	1 7.38 *e* [3]
Machine compositors (book and job)	0.56	0.56	5.34 *e*	5.31 *e*	6.35	1 8.94 *ce* [3]	2 0 *e* [3]	1 9.50 *e* [3]
Machine minders	0.49	0.56	5.34 *e*	5.38 *e*	*	*	2 2.13 *ce* [3]	1 9.50 *ce* [3]
Bookbinders	0.44	0.45	*	4.94 *ce*	5.35	1 6.88 *e* [3]	1 8 *e* [3]	1 7.38 *e* [3]
Unskilled labourers	0.33	0.34	*	3.38 *ce*	*	1 2.63 *e* [3]	1 5.75 *e* [3]	1 2.38 *e* [3]
L. *Food industry:*								
Bakers	0.26	0.27	6.00 *b*	*	*	*	1 3.63 *e* [5]	1 2.50 *e*
M. *Transport:*								
Tram and bus drivers	0.38	0.49	4.13 *e* [1]	4.69 *ce*	*	1 3.44 *cde*	1 7.13 *cde*	1 3.13 *ce*
Tram and bus conductors	0.27	0.32	4.13 *e* [1]	4.06 *ce*	*	1 2.75 *cde*	1 6.38 *cde*	1 2.69 *ce*
Motor drivers (van and lorry)	0.38 (0.30)	0.39	*	4.69 *ce*	*	1 2.75 *e*	1 5.13 *bce* [3]	*
Horse drivers (one horse)	0.30 (0.30)	0.40	*	3.75 *e*	*	1 0.50 *e*	1 1.88 *ce* [3]	*
Railway goods porters	0.24 (0.25)	0.29	*	*	*	0 10.75 *e*	0 11.44 *e*	0 10.75 *e*
Railway permanent way labourers	0.26	0.26	*	*	*	0 10.75 *e*	0 11.93 *ce*	0 10.75 *e*
O. *Electric power distribution:*								
Electrical fitters	0.51	0.54	*	4.31 *ce*	*	1 6.52	1 9.25	1 5.86
Unskilled labourers	0.35	0.33	*	3.63 *ce*	*	1 1.75	1 3.75	1 1.14
Q. *Local authorities:*								
Unskilled labourers	0.27	0.29	4.75 [2]	4.73 *ce*	*	1 1.75 *e*	1 3.24 *e* [6]	1 0.96 *e*

(*a*) Except in Tallinn, figures of July; in Lyons, figures at 15 October; in Paris, for mechanical engineering figures of the third quarter; in Great Britain, figures at 1 October. — (*b*) Complementary definition of certai occupations: *Fitters and turners:* in Lyons, skilled fitters in the heating industry; in Paris, fitters only. *Iro moulders:* in Paris, "mouleurs à la main". *Labourers, unskilled (mechanical engineering):* in Lyons, fitter helpers in the heating industry. *Concrete workers:* in Lyons, cement workers; in Great Britain, levellers. *Plumbers* in Lyons, plumbers and zinc workers. *Bakers:* in Lyons, foremen bakers. *Motor drivers:* in London, drivers petrol vehicles with a carrying capacity of over two tons, up to and including five tons. — (*c*) Average of tw or more wages. — (*d*) Average of wages for the two occupations indicated. — (*e*) Averages calculated on the bas of daily or weekly wages, divided by normal hours of work.

[1] Averages obtained by multiplying the daily wage by 7 (the weekly rest day being paid for), and dividin the product by 48. — [2] Minimum rate paid by the city of Lyons. — [3] Rates described as minimum rates collective agreements. — [4] Rates embodied in a notice issued by the employers' associations but not formall accepted by the trade union concerned. — [5] Average of rates fixed by co-operative societies and those of oth employers. — [6] Average of two figures representing the range of the rates usually paid by the great majorit of the 30 local authorities affected in the County of London.

TABLE XI. — WAGES PER HOUR OF ADULT MALE WORKERS IN VARIOUS OCCUPATIONS IN OCTOBER 1934 (*a*) *(continued)*

Industry and occupation (with code letter)	Hungary	Irish Free State	Italy			Latvia		Norway	
	Budapest	Dublin	Genoa	Milan (*b*)	Rome	Riga		Oslo	
	Earnings	Rates	Rates			Rates	Earnings	Rates	Earnings
	Pengös	s. d.	Lire	Lire	Lire	Lats	Lats	Kr.	Kr.
C. *Mechanical engineering:*									
Fitters and turners	0.72	1 6.51 *e*	2.78	2.32	2.95	0.55 *d*	0.62	1.23 *b*	1.36 *b*
Ironmoulders (sand)	0.65	1 6.51 *e*	2.78	2.91	2.65	0.52	0.71	1.23 *b*	1.36 *b*
Patternmakers	0.66	1 6.51 *e* [1]	*	*	*	0.62	0.70	1.23 *b*	1.36 *b*
Unskilled labourers	0.43	1 2.68 *e*	1.80	1.89	1.92	0.37	0.43	1.02	1.07
E. *Building:*									
Bricklayers and masons	0.66 *b*	1 9.50	2.78	2.91	2.87	0.61	0.63	1.50	*
Structural iron workers	0.50	1 8	2.91	*	3.25	*	*	*	*
Concrete workers	0.43	1 3	2.40 *b*	3.21 *b*	3.13 *b*	*	*	1.44	*
Carpenters and joiners	0.65	1 9 [1]	2.99	3.15	2.87	0.56 *d*	0.56 *d*	1.44	*
Painters (general)	0.67	1 8.50	2.95	3.38	2.88	0.52	0.48	1.50	*
Plumbers	0.96	1 10.25	2.48	*	3.05	0.60	0.61	1.22 [4]	*
Electrical fitters	0.87	1 10	3.08	*	4.10	0.51	0.55	1.50	1.68 *c*
Unskilled labourers	0.29	1 3	2.04 *c*	1.84	2.35	0.41	0.43	1.37	*
F. *Furniture-making:*									
Cabinet makers	0.66	1 10.50 [1]	3.00	3.00	3.25	0.50	0.55	1.50	*
Upholsterers	0.62	1 10 [1]	*	2.71	3.85	0.49	0.51	1.60	*
French polishers	0.57	1 10 [1]	2.85	2.28	3.12	0.48	0.50	1.50	*
G. *Printing and bookbinding:*									
Hand compositors (book and job)	1.99	1 9 *e*	3.65	3.78	3.35	0.81	0.82	1.42 *b c e* [4]	*
Machine compositors (book and job)	2.22	1 10.25 *e*	3.85 *b*	4.13 *b*	3.44	1.05	1.29	1.67 *b c e* [4]	*
Machine minders	1.70	1 9 *e*	3.65	3.72	3.35	0.95	0.97	1.42 *b c e* [4,5]	*
Bookbinders	0.89	1 9 *e*	3.65	3.75	2.89 *c*	0.80	0.79	1.25 *b e* [4]	*
Unskilled labourers	1.07	1 3 *e*	2.00	2.91 *b*	2.19	0.49	0.51	1.13 *b e* [4]	*
L. *Food industry:*									
Bakers	0.69	1 11.80 *ce*	2.50 *b* [3]	3.10 *b*	2.95 *b*	0.56	0.66	1.50 *e*	*
M. *Transport:*									
Tram and bus drivers	0.60	1 3.06 *d e*	3.42 *d* [3]	2.84 *d*	*	0.73 *f*	*	1.77 *b e*	*
Tram and bus conductors	0.57	0 10.81 *d e*	2.84 *d* [3]	2.61 *d*	*	0.73 *f*	*	1.77 *b e*	*
Motor drivers (van and lorry)	0.72	1 3.63 *c e*	2.45	2.23 *c*	3.38 *c*	0.67 *f*	*	1.42 *e*	*
Horse drivers (one horse)	0.46	1 1.86 *e*	1.93	*	*	0.43 *f*	*	*	*
Railway goods porters	0.36	1 0.13 *e* [2]	2.88	2.04	*	*	*	*	*
Railway permanent way labourers	0.30	0 11.50 *e* [2]	3.04 [3]	2.20	3.17	0.40	*	*	*
O. *Electric power distribution:*									
Electrical fitters	0.80	1 9.82 *c e*	2.94	*	*	0.73	0.68	1.65	*
Unskilled labourers	0.67	1 2 *c*	2.30	*	1.29	0.46	0.46	1.25 [4]	*
Q. *Local authorities:*									
Unskilled labourers	0.52	1 4.09 *e*	2.16 [3]	2.58 [3]	2.15	0.50	*	1.43 *e*	*

(*a*) Except in Dublin, figures of November; in Italy, figures at 1 July; in Oslo, for mechanical engineering, figures of February. — (*b*) Complementary definition of certain occupations: in Milan, for *skilled occupations in mechanical engineering, building, furniture, printing and bookbinding:* workers designated as "specialised", "skilled" or "experienced". *Fitters and turners, iron moulders, patternmakers:* in Oslo, skilled workers in mechanical engineering in general. *Bricklayers and masons:* in Budapest, masons only. *Concrete workers:* in Italy, cement workers. *Compositors (hand and machine) and machine minders (printing):* in Oslo, workers after two years' service. *Machine compositors:* in Genoa, linotype operators; in Milan, monotype and linotype operators. *Bookbinders:* in Oslo, workers in their second year's service. *Labourers, unskilled (printing):* in Milan, supernumerary workers in printing; in Oslo, helpers in bookbinding in their second year's service. *Bakers:* in Genoa and Rome, table hands and ovenmen; in Milan, table hands. *Tram and bus drivers and conductors:* in Oslo, vehicles usually operated by one man. — (*c*) Average of two or more wages. — (*d*) Average of wages for the two occupations indicated. — (*e*) Averages calculated on the basis of daily or weekly wages, divided by normal hours of work. — (*f*) Averages calculated on the basis of monthly wages, divided by total normal hours of work.

[1] Plus "tool money". — [2] Rates subject to a reduction of 7 ½ per cent. — [3] Predominant or most common rates. — [4] Minimum time rates fixed by collective agreements, and markedly lower than the rates actually in force. — [5] Plus special allowances for the serving of machines.

TABLE XI. — WAGES PER HOUR OF ADULT MALE WORKERS IN VARIOUS OCCUPATIONS IN OCTOBER 1934 (*a*) *(concluded)*

Industry and occupation (with code letter)	Netherlands		Poland	Sweden		Switzerland	Yugoslavia
	Amsterdam		Warsaw	Stockholm		Zurich	Belgrade
	Rates	Earnings	Earnings	Rates	Earnings	Rates	Rates
	Fl.	Fl.	Zl.	Kr.	Kr.	Fr.	Din.
C. *Mechanical engineering:*							
Fitters and turners	(0.64)	0.76	1	0.88 [2]	1.62	1.73 *b c*	8.00
Ironmoulders (sand)	(0.64)	0.76	1	0.88 [2]	1.83	*	7.00
Patternmakers	(0.64)	0.76	1	0.88 [2]	1.77	*	6.50
Unskilled labourers	(0.48)	0.57	1	0.75 [2]	1.32	1.20 *b*	3.80
E. *Building:*							
Bricklayers and masons	0.70	0.73	1	1.50	3.18 [3]	1.69 [4]	3.75
Structural iron workers	*	*	1	1.50	1.65	*	2.50
Concrete workers	0.70	0.77	1	1.35	2.00 [3]	*	4.80
Carpenters and joiners	0.70	0.76	1	1.50	2.83 [3]	1.71 *b* [2]	5.00
Painters (general)	0.65	*	1	1.72	2.70 [3]	1.80 [2]	5.50
Plumbers	0.72	*	1	1.43 [2]	2.31 [3]	1.70 *b* [2]	*
Electrical fitters	0.72	*	1	1.50	2.16 [3]	1.70 *b* [2]	7.00 (7.00)
Unskilled labourers	0.65	0.67	1	1.35	2.00 [3]	1.33 [4]	2.00
F. *Furniture-making:*							
Cabinet makers	0.68 (0.70)	*	1	1.20 [2]	1.46	1.86 [4]	5.87 (5.87)
Upholsterers	0.68 (0.70)	*	1	1.41 [2]	1.56	1.86 [4]	5.41
French polishers	0.66	*	1	1.20 [2]	1.46	*	5.50
G. *Printing and bookbinding:*							
Hand compositors (book and job)	0.66	*	1	1.34 [2]	1.62	1.90 *b e* [2]	11.60
Machine compositors (book and job)	0.74	*	1	1.47 [2]	1.82	2.29 *b e* [2]	15.32
Machine minders	0.66	*	1	1.34 [2]	1.62	1.90 *b e* [2]	14.50
Bookbinders	0.66	*	1	1.10 [2]	1.44	1.50 *b* [2]	11.24
Unskilled labourers	0.53	*	1	1.16 [2]	1.23	1.00 *b* [2]	5.14
L. *Food industry:*							
Bakers	0.67 *e*	*	1	1.42	1.66	*	3.00
M. *Transport:*							
Tram and bus drivers	0.81	0.91	1.58	*	1.94	1.97 *bcdf*	5.92
Tram and bus conductors	0.77	0.85	1.58	*	1.94	1.96 *b cf*	5.42
Motor drivers (van and lorry)	*	*	*	1.40 [2]	1.54	1.75 *b e* [2]	4.50
Horse drivers (one horse)	*	*	1.11	1.27 [2]	1.42	1.57 *b e* [2]	3.75
Railway goods porters	*	*	*	*	1.45	1.43 *b cf*	*
Railway permanent way labourers	0.49 *ce*	*	0.58	1.27	1.59	1.43 *b cf*	*
O. *Electric power distribution:*							
Electrical fitters	0.77	0.87	2.41	1.45	1.81	1.92 *b cf*	7.00
Unskilled labourers	0.74	0.76	1.51	1.27	*	1.68 *b cf*	3.50
Q. *Local authorities:*							
Unskilled labourers	0.70 *c*	0.81 *c*	0.65	1.27	2.06	1.68 *b cf*	2.50

(*a*) Except in Amsterdam, for mechanical engineering, rates of the first half-year; and for transport, electric power distribution and local authorities, averages for 1933; in Stockholm, average earnings for 1933. — (*b*) Complementary definition of certain occupations: in Zurich, *fitters and turners, and labourers, unskilled (mechanical engineering):* workers employed in the central heating industry. *Carpenters and joiners:* carpenters only. *Plumbers:* workers in their third year after apprenticeship. *Electrical fitters (building):* workers in their fourth year after apprenticeship. *Compositors (hand and machine), machine minders (printing):* married workers. *Bookbinders and labourers, unskilled (printing), motor drivers and horse drivers:* workers in their third year after apprenticeship. *Tram and bus drivers and conductors, railway goods porters and permanent way labourers, electrical fitters and labourers, unskilled (power distribution), labourers, unskilled (local authorities):* married workers. — (*c*) Average of two or more wages. — (*d*) Average of wages for the two occupations indicated. — (*e*) Averages calculated on the basis of daily or weekly wages, divided by normal hours of work. — (*f*) Averages calculated on the basis of monthly wages, divided by total normal hours of work.

[1] Average hourly earnings of all adult male workers in undertakings employing more than 20 workers, in each of the industries considered: mechanical engineering: Zl. 1.01; building (properly so called): Zl. 0.75; building installations (gas, electricity, etc.): Zl. 1.35; furniture: Zl. 0.94; printing and bookbinding: Zl. 1.27; food industry: Zl. 0.98. — [2] Minimum time rates fixed by collective agreements. — [3] Approximate figures, in view of the seasonal and variable character of this industry. — [4] Average of rates for various undertakings.

TABLE XII. — MONEY WAGES AND INDEX NUMBERS OF WAGES IN AGRICULTURE

Date	Australia	Canada			Chile		Denmark		
	All agricultural and pastoral occupations	Permanent workers		Seasonal workers	Permanent workers	Voluntary workers	Farm servants		Regular day labourers
	Men, generally with board and lodging	Men	Women	Men	Men, with board and lodging		Men	Women	Men, without board or lodging
		with board and lodging					with board and lodging		
	Weekly total wages	Yearly total wages		Monthly total wages	Daily total wages		Yearly cash wages		Daily cash wages
	Money wages								
	s. d.	$	$	$	$	$	Kr.	Kr.	Kr.
1927	94 5	629	467	64	*	*	690	500	4.91
1928	95 9 ¼	634	476	63	*	*	634	473	4.58
1929	95 9	627	465	63	5.13	5.50	649	470	4.70
1930	93 0 ¼	559	409	56	5.33	6.00	672	473	4.78
1931	82 7 ¼	439	322	43	5.63	6.30	617	457	4.52
1932	76 6 ½	341	255	34	6.03	6.60	570	413	4.27
1933	74 0 ½	322	246	32	6.43	7.00	568	409	4.40
1934	72 11 ¾	338	253	33	—	—	607	427	4.42
1933: I	74 10	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
II	74 9	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	4.40
III	74 8	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	4.96
IV	71 11	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	3.89
1934: I	71 11	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
II	73 4	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	—
III	73 4	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	—
IV	73 4	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	—
	Index numbers of money wages (Base: 1929 = 100)								
1927	99	100	100	102	*	*	106	106	104
1928	100	101	102	100	*	*	98	101	97
1929	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
1930	97	89	88	89	104	109	104	101	102
1931	86	70	69	68	110	115	95	97	96
1932	80	54	55	54	118	120	88	88	91
1933	77	51	53	51	125	127	88	87	94
1934	76	54	54	52	—	—	94	91	94
1933: I	78	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
II	78	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	94
III	78	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	106
IV	75	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	83
1934: I	75	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
II	77	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	94
III	77	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	108
IV	77	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	86

Australia. Annual figures: averages; periodical figures: 31 March, 30 June, 30 September and 31 December.

Canada. Annual figures: permanent workers: averages; seasonal workers: averages from May to September.

Chile. Annual figures: averages.

Denmark. Annual figures: farm servants: averages from 1 May of the year indicated to 30 April of the following year; day labourers: summer; periodical figures: day labourers: summer, harvest and winter.

TABLE XII. — MONEY WAGES AND INDEX NUMBERS OF WAGES IN AGRICULTURE *(continued)*

Date	Estonia		United States					Finland		
	Permanent workers		Permanent and/or seasonal workers		Casual day labourers		All workers	Permanent workers (deputatists)	Farm servants	Regular and casual day labourers
	Men	Women	Men					Men		
	with board and lodging		with board and lodging	without board or lodging	with board and lodging	without board or lodging	with and without board and lodging	without board with lodging	with board and lodging	without board or lodging
	Yearly cash wages [1]		Monthly cash wages		Daily cash wages		Monthly cash wages	Yearly total wages	Yearly cash wages	Daily cash wages
	Money wages									
	Est. Cr.	Est. Cr.	$	$	$	$	$ [2]	F. Mks.	F. Mks.	F. Mks.
1927 . .	301.6	198.2	34.58	48.63	1.90	2.46	(40.60)	9,637	3,641	32.38
1928 . .	312.0	207.6	34.66	48.65	1.88	2.43	(40.44)	9,847	3,858	33.84
1929 . .	326.4	229.2	34.74	49.08	1.88	2.42	(40.52)	9,999	3,925	34.04
1930 . .	306.0	228.0	31.14	44.59	1.65	2.16	(36.24)	9,628	3,914	32.33
1931 . .	248.4	180.0	23.60	35.03	1.22	1.65	(27.61)	8,953	3,417	25.59
1932 . .	192.0	141.1	17.53	26.67	0.88	1.21	(20.46)	8,010	2,722	23.02
1933 . .	172.8	128.7	15.86	24.51	0.86	1.18	(19.17)	7,708	2,541	22.65
1934 . .	200.4	141.6	17.89	27.17	0.98	1.31	(21.50)	7,871	2,680	24.55
1933: I	*	*	14.67	22.98	0.75	1.05	(17.44)	*	*	*
II	*	*	15.84	24.27	0.82	1.12	(18.72)	*	*	22.65
III	*	*	17.19	25.89	0.91	1.25	(20.45)	*	*	*
IV	*	*	15.73	24.90	0.87	1.21	(19.34)	*	*	22.08
1934: I	*	*	17.70	26.88	0.93	1.27	(21.00)	*	*	*
II	*	*	18.18	27.29	0.97	1.30	(21.56)	*	*	24.55
III	*	*	18.63	27.83	1.00	1.34	(22.13)	*	*	*
IV	*	*	17.04	26.69	0.92	1.26	(20.61)	*	*	22.19
	Index numbers of money wages (Base: 1929 = 100)									
1927 . .	92	86	100	99	101	102	100	96	93	95
1928 . .	96	91	100	99	100	100	100	98	98	99
1929 . .	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
1930 . .	94	99	90	91	88	89	89	96	100	95
1931 . .	76	79	68	71	65	68	68	90	87	75
1932 . .	59	62	50	54	47	50	50	80	69	68
1933 . .	53	56	46	50	46	49	47	77	65	67
1934 . .	61	62	51	55	52	54	53	79	68	72
1933: I	*	*	42	47	40	43	43	*	*	*
II	*	*	46	49	44	46	46	*	*	67
III	*	*	49	53	48	52	50	*	*	*
IV	*	*	45	51	46	50	48	*	*	65
1934: I	*	*	51	55	49	52	52	*	*	*
II	*	*	52	56	52	54	53	*	*	72
III	*	*	54	57	53	55	55	*	*	*
IV	*	*	49	54	49	52	51	*	*	65

[1] Including the value of certain allowances in kind, other than board and lodging.
[2] The figures in brackets have significance only as an essential step in computing the index numbers.
Estonia. Annual figures: averages.
United States. Annual figures: weighted averages; periodical figures: 1 April, 1 July and 1 October of the year indicated, and 1 January of the following year.
Finland. Annual figures: deputatists and farm servants: averages; day labourers: summer; periodical figures: day labourers: summer and winter.

TABLE XII. — MONEY WAGES AND INDEX-NUMBERS OF WAGES IN AGRICULTURE *(continued)*

Date	France			Great Britain (England and Wales)	Hungary		India (Bombay Presidency)	Irish Free State	
	Farm servants		Regular day labourers	Ordinary workers	Regular and casual day labourers		Casual day labourers	Agricultural labourers	Permanent labourers
	Men	Women	Men	Men, generally with board and lodging	Men	Women	Men, with and without board and lodging	Men	
	with board and lodging				without board or lodging			with board and lodging	without board or lodging
	Daily total wages			Weekly total minimum wages	Daily cash wages		Daily cash wages	Half-yearly cash wages	Weekly cash wages
	Money wages								
	Fr.	Fr.	Fr.	s. d.	Pengös	Pengös	Rs. a. p.	£ s.	s. d.
1927 . .	*	*	*	31 8	*	*	0 7 6	14 12	25 6
1928 . .	18.94	13.58	20.60	31 8	3.19	2.37	0 7 11	14 10	24 9
1929 . .	*	*	*	31 8	3.05	2.20	0 7 8	14 11	25 0
1930 . .	20.85	14.74	22.50	31 8	2.75	1.98	0 7 3	14 7	24 6
1931 . .	*	*	*	31 6½	2.19	1.62	0 5 11	14 1	24 3
1932 . .	20.75	14.72	22.35	31 1	1.92	1.44	0 5 7	13 15	23 6
1933 . .	*	*	*	30 7½	1.44	1.06	0 5 5	12 13	22 3
1934 . .	19.78†	14.30†	21.39†	30 11	—	—	—	12 6	21 0
1933: I	*	*	*	30 9	1.35	1.02	*	*	*
II	*	*	*	30 7½	1.96	1.40	*	*	*
III	*	*	*	30 7½	1.27	0.90	*	*	*
IV	*	*	*	30 6½	1.19	0.90	*	*	*
1934: I	*	*	*	30 7½	—	—	*	*	*
II	*	*	*	30 10	—	—	*	*	*
III	*	*	*	30 11	—	—	*	*	*
IV	*	*	*	31 1	—	—	*	*	*
	Index-numbers of money wages (Base: 1929 = 100)[1]								
1927 . .	*	*	*	100	*	*	98	100	102
1928 . .	*91*	*92*	*92*	100	105	108	103	100	99
1929 . .	*	*	*	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
1930 . .	**100**	**100**	**100**	100	90	90	95	99	98
1931 . .	*	*	*	100	72	74	77	97	97
1932 . .	*100*	*100*	*99*	98	63	65	73	95	94
1933 . .	*	*	*	97	47	48	71	87	89
1934 . .	*95* †	*97* †	*95* †	98	—	—	—	85	84
1933: I	*	*	*	97	44	46	*	*	*
II	*	*	*	97	64	64	*	*	*
III	*	*	*	97	42	42	*	*	*
IV	*	*	*	96	39	41	*	*	*
1934: I	*	*	*	97	—	—	*	*	*
II	*	*	*	97	—	—	*	*	*
III	*	*	*	98	—	—	*	*	*
IV	*	*	*	98	—	—	*	*	*

[1] Except for France (figures in italics): base: 1930 = 100.

France. Biennial figures: averages.

Great Britain. Annual figures: end of September; periodical figures: end of March, June, September and December.

Hungary. Annual figures: averages: periodical figures: spring, summer, autumn and winter.

India. Annual figures: averages.

Irish Free State. Annual figures: agricultural labourers: half-yearly averages; permanent labourers: one week in July.

TABLE XII. — MONEY WAGES AND INDEX NUMBERS OF WAGES IN AGRICULTURE *(continued)*

Date	Italy		Japan			Latvia		Lithuania			Mexico
	Regular and casual day labourers		Permanent workers (engaged by the year)		Regular day labourers	Farm servants		Permanent workers		Regular and casual day labourers	Regular day labourers
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Men
	generally without board or lodging		with board and lodging			with board and lodging		with board and lodging		without board or lodging	generally with board and lodging
	Hourly total wages		Yearly total wages		Daily total wages	Yearly cash wages		Yearly total wages		Daily cash wages	Daily cash wages
	Money wages										
	Lire	Lire	Yen	Yen	Yen	Lats	Lats	Lt.	Lt.	Lt.	$
1927 . .	1.73	0.98	—	—	—	563	369	460	330	6.40	0.99
1928 . .	1.59	0.91	—	—	—	542	364	460	330	6.10	1.03
1929 . .	1.58	0.91	—	—	—	498	338	410	300	6.40	0.93
1930 . .	1.52	0.88	208.1	149.7	1.14	487	336	420	310	6.15	0.84
1931 . .	1.33	0.78	171.6	120.5	0.86	471	328	430	340	6.15	0.81
1932 . .	1.18	0.69	153.3	105.9	0.77	313	226	375	295	4.70	0.69
1933 . .	1.15	0.66	160.6	116.8	0.79	305	230	280	220	3.80	0.66
1934	1.14	0.66	120.5†	109.5†	0.79†	320	241	250	200	3.50†	1.12
1933: I	1.15	0.66	*	*	0.72	*	*	*	*	2.95	*
II	1.15	0.66	*	*	0.93	*	*	*	*	3.80	*
III	1.16	0.66	*	*	0.77	*	*	*	*	2.80	*
IV	1.14	0.66	*	*	0.74	*	*	*	*	*	*
1934: I	1.15	0.65	*	*	—	*	*	*	*	2.70	*
II	1.14	0.66	*	*	—	*	*	*	*	3.50†	*
III	1.11	0.66	*	*	—	*	*	*	*	2.40†	*
IV	1.12	0.65	*	*	—	*	*	*	*	*	*
	Index numbers of money wages (Base: 1929 = 100)[1]										
1927 . .	109	108	—	—	—	113	109	112	110	100	106
1928 . .	101	100	—	—	—	109	108	112	110	95	111
1929 . .	**100**	**100**	—	—	—	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
1930 . .	96	97	**100**	**100**	**100**	98	99	102	103	96	90
1931 . .	84	86	*82*	*80*	*75*	95	97	105	113	96	87
1932 . .	75	76	*74*	*71*	*68*	63	67	91	98	73	74
1933 . .	73	73	*77*	*78*	*69*	61	68	68	73	69	71
1934 . .	72	73	*58*†	*73*†	*69*†	64	71	61	67	55†	120
1933: I	73	73	*	*	*63*	*	*	*	*	46	*
II	73	73	*	*	*82*	*	*	*	*	69	*
III	73	73	*	*	*68*	*	*	*	*	44	*
IV	72	73	*	*	*65*	*	*	*	*	*	*
1934: I	73	71	*	*	—	*	*	*	*	42	*
II	72	73	*	*	—	*	*	*	*	55†	*
III	70	73	*	*	—	*	*	*	*	38†	*
IV	71	71	*	*	—	*	*	*	*	*	*

[1] Except for Japan (figures in italics): base: 1930 = 100.

Italy. Annual figures: June; periodical figures: March, June, September and December.

Japan. Annual figures: averages; periodical figures: day labourers: March, June, September and December.

Latvia. Annual figures: averages from 1 May of the year indicated to 30 April of the following year.

Lithuania. Annual figures: permanent workers: averages; day labourers: July; periodical figures: day labourers: April, July and October.

Mexico. Annual figures: averages, except for 1933, first half-year; for 1934, figure not strictly comparable with those of the preceding series (see note on method, p. 204).

TABLE XII. — MONEY WAGES AND INDEX NUMBERS OF WAGES IN AGRICULTURE *(concluded)*

Date	Norway			New Zealand		Poland	Sweden				
	Farm servants		Regular day labourers	General farm hands	All agricultural, etc., occupations	Permanent workers (deputatists)	Farm servants		Regular day labourers	All agricultural occupations	
	Men	Women	Men, without board or lodging	Men, generally with board and lodging		Men, without board, with lodging	Men	Women	Men, without board or lodging	Men	Women
	with board and lodging						with board and lodging			with and without board and lodging	
	Yearly cash wages		Daily cash wages	Weekly total wages		Yearly total wages	Yearly total wages		Daily cash wages	Yearly total wages	
	Money wages										
	Kr.	Kr.	Kr.	s. d.		Zl.	Kr.	Kr.	Kr.	Kr.	Kr.
1927 . .	579	391	5.38	62 6	*	1,847.3	1,121	893	4.24	1,175	830
1928 . .	531	361	5.01	69 0	*	1,853.2	1,119	891	4.24	1,173	831
1929 . .	519	352	4.87	69 0	*	1,265.9	1,123	893	4.27	1,172	835
1930 . .	491	338	4.71	69 0	*	988.4	1,093	880	4.19	1,152	825
1931 . .	455	319	4.35	69 0	*	1,118.8	1,060	860	4.15	1,124	808
1932 . .	428	304	4.04	45 5	*	890.4	1,003	817	3.93	1,083	777
1933 . .	412	291	3.90	41 3	*	847.8	971	798	3.90	1,064	764
1934 . .	412	291	3.95	42 4	*		—	—	—	—	—
1933: I	*	*	3.93	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
II	*	*	4.26	*	*	*	*	*	3.90	*	*
III	*	*	3.90	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
IV	*	*	3.21	*	*	*	*	*	3.11	*	*
1934: I	*	*	3.92	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
II	*	*	4.27	*	*	*	*	*	—	*	*
III	*	*	3.95	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
IV	*	*	3.28	*	*	*	*	*	—	*	*
	Index numbers of money wages (Base: 1929 = 100)										
1927 . .	112	111	110	91	87	146	100	100	99	100	99
1928 . .	102	103	103	100	100	146	100	100	99	100	100
1929 . .	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
1930 . .	95	96	97	100	99	78	97	99	98	98	99
1931 . .	88	91	89	100	87	88	94	96	97	96	97
1932 . .	82	86	83	66	70	70	89	91	92	92	93
1933 . .	79	83	80	60	64	67	86	89	91	91	91
1934 . .	79	83	81	61	66	—	—	—	—	—	—
1933: I	*	*	81	*	64	*	*	*	*	*	*
II	*	*	87	*	64	*	*	*	91	*	*
III	*	*	80	*	64	*	*	*	*	*	*
IV	*	*	66	*	64	*	*	*	73	*	*
1934: I	*	*	80	*	63	*	*	*	*	*	*
II	*	*	88	*	63	*	*	*	—	*	*
III	*	*	81	*	65	*	*	*	*	*	*
IV	*	*	67	*	67	*	*	*	—	*	*

Norway. Annual figures: farm servants: averages from the summer of the year indicated to the following winter; day labourers: harvest; periodical figures: day labourers: sowing, hay-making, harvest and winter.

New Zealand. Annual figures: general farm hands: 31 March; all occupations: averages; periodical figures: all occupations: averages for each quarter.

Poland. Annual figures: Averages from 1 April of the year indicated to 31 March of the following year.

Sweden. Annual figures: farm servants and all occupations: averages; day labourers: summer; periodical figures: day labourers: summer and winter.

IV. — COST OF LIVING, RETAIL PRICES, FAMILY BUDGETS

TABLE XIII

Table XIII includes (*a*) *general index numbers of the cost of living:* and index numbers of (*b*) the prices of food; (*c*) the prices of heating and lighting; (*d*) the prices of clothing, and (*e*) of rent—the group indexes (*b* to *d*) being the component parts of the general indexes (*a*) [1].

The tables of general cost-of-living indexes include 48 series relating to 40 countries. In addition, in five cases [2] where general cost-of-living indexes are not available, indexes of food prices (including heating and lighting) have been added to table (*b*) (and, where possible, the indexes of heating and lighting to table (*c*)).

All these index numbers, taken from official statistics or from important private publications, have been recalculated by the International Labour Office on a single uniform base. The year 1929 has been chosen provisionally as being sufficiently recent and as being in most countries the year immediately preceding the present economic depression and thus appearing the most appropriate for the different index numbers computed by the Office [3]. (For a few countries, when data for 1929 were not available, the nearest year to 1929 has been taken as base, and the figures are printed in italics.)

This change of base has been effected by simply dividing the original index for each date by the corresponding index for 1929 (annual average) and multiplying the quotient by 100. This procedure may no doubt give rise to some slight inaccuracies, owing to the methods by which many of the indexes are compiled, which do not lend themselves to a rigorously accurate change of base. But these errors are at most very slight, except when the fluctuations of the indexes reach a certain amplitude. Further, with this change of base, the period to which the weights used in the indexes relate has no longer any connection with the base period of the new indexes, whereas in the original indexes these two periods are as a rule so chosen as to be fairly close together. These disadvantages, however, seemed small compared with the advantages of a common base for purposes of international comparisons.

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[1] The indexes of the " miscellaneous " group, which is included in many general cost-of-living indexes, have not been reproduced, as they are in general of small importance, and their composition varies too much from one country to another to allow of any comparisons. For some countries the indexes given under (*b*) (food prices) include also heating and lighting.

[2] Spain, Dutch East Indies, Palestine, Portugal, as well as Czechoslovakia (whole country).

[3] Employment index numbers (table III); unemployment index numbers (table V); money and real wages index numbers (table IX).

It is obvious that these index numbers, even when reduced to a common base, cannot serve to compare the *level* of the cost of living in the different countries, but only its *fluctuations*. But even the fluctuations of the different index numbers are far from having the same significance, owing to the numerous divergences in the methods of compilation of the series (geographical scope of the indexes; groups represented in the general index and articles included in each group; weights attached to the various articles and groups; statistical basis for the determination of these weights and extent to which they are representative of the consumption of more or less extensive or clearly determined social groups, and date to which they relate; method of calculating average prices, group indexes, and the general index, etc.). International comparisons cannot therefore be more than approximate.

TABLE XIV

Table XIV gives the *average retail prices* for 26 articles of food and 6 articles of heating and lighting, of common consumption in 23 countries, in October 1934 (or some neighbouring date). The data are obtained by an enquiry of the International Labour Office to the competent statistical services—national or municipal—with a view to obtaining information which shall be as nearly comparable as possible. It has, however, not been possible to ascertain whether the prices everywhere relate to precisely similar qualities of articles.

The data relate either to one important town of the country (usually the capital) or a few towns of various regions of the country; in the latter case the simple arithmetic average of the prices of the different towns has been calculated by the Office (except, however, for Great Britain and Czechoslovakia, where weighted averages have been communicated by the competent statistical services, in order to take into account the importance of the capital towns in relation to the other towns).

TABLE XV

Table XV gives monthly *rents of different types of dwelling* in 52 towns in 20 countries.

These data have been obtained from the competent statistical services —national or municipal—through an enquiry of the International Labour Office carried out at the same time as the enquiry on prices (table XIV).

In principle, the data refer to 1934 (October or a neighbouring month, or an average for the whole year); in some towns, however, the data received in reply to the enquiry refer to 1933 (or even 1932); they have also been reproduced in the tables, but under a separate heading, as they are the latest data available.

Table XV (*a*) includes 12 countries for which the data refer only to working-class dwellings (i.e. inhabited by working-class families or situated in quarters mainly inhabited by working-class families); table XV (*b*) includes 12 countries for which the data are representative of the general level of rents in the whole of the area considered. In both parts of the table the dwellings have been classified by size, measured by the number of habitable rooms (including the kitchen), and the degree of " comfort ", measured by the presence or absence of a bathroom. This classification is, of course, a summary one and does

not take account of many other divergences in the type of the dwellings and their degree of comfort and amenity. In some cases, however, the available figures do not enable the distinction about the bathroom to be made. In some countries, too, the statistics record distinctions based on other criteria, which also throw some light on the quality of the dwellings and which have been retained in these tables (with or without central heating or an attic; whether situated in the centre or the suburbs of the town; whether in new or old buildings; whether rents are legally controlled or not).

The rent is taken to include the various additional payments (if any) collected by the landlord over and above the actual rent, as well as certain taxes which are, so to speak, attached to the rent and compulsorily paid by the tenant [1]. When either kind is given separately the amount has been added to the rent, estimates being made where necessary. Where the original data were expressed per week, the monthly amounts have been calculated by multiplying the weekly rents by 4.33.

Tables XVI and XVII

Table XVI gives the *percentages distribution of expenditure in working-class families* in 19 countries, at certain dates varying from 1924 to 1934. The information is drawn from recent family budget enquiries, but owing to the difference of the various enquiries with respect to methods of compilation, classification and the representativeness of the families included, the results are in general not strictly comparable internationally.

Table XVII gives the same information subdivided by income classes but for a more restricted number of countries.

[1] Additional payments such as charges to cover the cleaning and lighting of the common passages and staircase, the removal of household refuse, the use of a wash-house, or charges for drinking water or fire insurance; in Anglo-Saxon countries, certain "local rates"; and in countries where rent-restriction legislation is still in force, the special taxes charged on houses whose controlled rent is at an artificially low level.

TABLE XIII. — COST-OF-LIVING INDEX NUMBERS

(Series recalculated by the International Labour Office on the base 1929 = 100 [1])

(a) *Cost of Living*

Country	Germany	Argentina	Australia	Austria	Belgium	Bulgaria	Canada	Chile	China			Denmark	Danzig
Towns and localities	72	Buenos Aires	30	Vienna	59	12-67[6]	60	Santiago	Peiping	Shanghai	Tientsin	100	Danzig
Original base (=100)	1913-1914	X. 1933	1923-1927	VII. 1914	1921	1914	1926	III. 1928	1927	1926	1926	1931	VII. 1913
1913-14 [2] .	65	*	*	90	*	34	*	*	*	*	*	*	71
1927 . . .	96	*	97	96	93	96	98	*	94	99	91	102	98
1928 . . .	99[3]	*	98	97	95	98	99	99 [4]	95	95	95	101	99
1929 . . .	**100**	*	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
1930 . . .	96	*	95	100	104	92	99	101	103	113	103	95	95
1931 . . .	88	*	85	96	93	79	89	97	90	117	98	89	88
1932 . . .	78	*	81	97	84	73	81	105	86	110	91	89	80
1933 . . .	77	**100** [4]	78	95	83	68	78	129	76	99	80	93	77
1934 . . .	79	*94*	80 [5]	95	79	65 †	79	128	75	98	78	96	76
1934: Jan.	78	*96*	*	96	82	67	79	125	73	94	77	*	77
Feb.	78	*94*	*	95	81	67	80	124	74	96	78	*	77
March	78	*95*	79	95	79	67	79	125	72	92	77	95	76
April	78	*94*	*	95	78	65	78	126	74	92	75	*	76
May	78	*92*	*	94	76	65	78	128	70	91	75	*	76
June	78	*90*	80	95	77	64	78	130	71	91	74	96	78
July	79	*95*	*	95	77	65	79	131	74	99	74	*	76
Aug.	79	*93*	*	94	80	64	79	130	80	107	84	*	76
Sept.	79	*95*	80	95	80	65	79	132	80	110	83	97	75
Oct.	79	*93*	*	95	81	62	79	127	79	105	80	*	76
Nov.	79	*95*	*	95	81	63	79	132	75	101	79	*	76
Dec.	79	—	80	95	79	63	79	135	75	102	82	97	76

Country	Egypt	Estonia	United States		Finland	France		Great Britain and Northern Ireland	Greece	Hungary	India		
			B.L.S.	N.I.C.B.									
Towns and localities	Cairo	Tallinn	32-51	51-174	21	Paris	45	509	44	Budapest	Bombay	Ahmedabad	Rangoon
Original base (= 100)	I.1913-VII. 1914	1913	1913	1923	I-VI. 1914	1914	1930	VII. 1914	XII. 1914	1913	VII. 1914	VIII. 1926-VII. 1927	1931
1913-14 [2] .	66	86	59	*	8	18	*	61	*	85	68	*	*
1927 . . .	101	90	101	102	99	92	*	102	93	95	105	102 [4]	*
1928 . . .	101	96	100	100	101	93	*	101	97	100	99	99	*
1929 . . .	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	*	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	*
1930 . . .	98	89	96	96	92	105	**100**	96	88	91	91	90	*
1931 . . .	91	86	87	87	85	102	*97*	90	**100**[3]	86	74	77	**100**
1932 . . .	87	80	78	78	84	95	*91*	87	*106*	83	74	78	*98*
1933 . . .	83	75	77	75	82	94	*87*	85	*114*	77	69	74	*91*
1934 . . .	84	74	81 [7]	80	80	93 [5]	*83* [7]	86	*116*	76	66	73	*87*
1934: Jan.	82	76	*	78	80	*	*	86	*117*	75	65	72	*87*
Feb.	82	76	*	78	79	95	*	85	*117*	76	64	71	*88*
March	83	76	*	79	80	*	*	85	*115*	75	63	71	*86*
April	82	76	*	78	80	*	*	84	*115*	76	64	71	*87*
May	82	76	*	79	79	94	*84*	84	*114*	77	64	73	*88*
June	83	75	80	79	79	*	*	86	*115*	77	66	74	*90*
July	84	75	*	79	79	*	*	87	*114*	76	66	74	*88*
Aug.	85	74	*	80	80	92	*	87	*115*	76	68	73	*88*
Sept.	87	73	*	81	81	*	*	87	*116*	76	68	73	*90*
Oct.	87	72	*	81	81	*	*	88	*119*	76	68	73	*88*
Nov.	86	73	*	81	83	91	*82*	88	*117*	75	67	75	*85*
Dec.	86	73	81	81	82	*	*	87	*117*	75	66	74	*84*

For notes see next page.

TABLE XIII. — COST-OF-LIVING INDEX NUMBERS *(continued)*

(Series recalculated by the International Labour Office on the base: 1929 = 100 [1])

(a) *Cost of Living (concluded)*

Country	Irish Free State	Italy	Japan		Latvia	Lithuania	Luxemburg [8]	Norway	New Zealand	Netherlands	Peru [9]
Towns and localities	105	50	13	Tokyo [8]	Riga	104	9	31	4-25	Amsterdam	Lima
Original base (= 100)	VII. 1914	VI. 1927	VII. 1914	VII. 1914	1930	1913	1914	VII. 1914	1926-1930	X. 1923-IX. 1924	1913
1913-14 [2] .	57	*	*61*	55	*	79	11	60	*	*	57
1927 . . .	99	100 [4]	*	104	*	106	89	112	100	100	110
1928 . . .	99	99	*	102	*	102	93	104 [3]	100	101	103
1929 . . .	**100**	**100**	*	**100**	*	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
1930 . . .	97	96	*	86	**100**	89	101	97	98	96	96
1931 . . .	92	97	*98* [4]	75	*91*	83	89	92	90	90	90
1932 . . .	89	83	**100**	75	*79*	71	78	90	84	84	86
1933 . . .	86	80	*103*	80	*76*	61	78	89	79	83	84
1934 . . .	87	75	*106*	82	*72*	57	75	89	81	83	85
1934: Jan.	*	79	*103*	81	*68*	59	77	87	80	*	83
Feb.	86	79	*104*	82	*70*	60	76	87	80	*	83
March	*	79	*104*	82	*70*	60	75	87	80	84	84
April	*	74	*105*	82	*71*	59	74	89	81	*	84
May	85	74	*105*	82	*72*	58	74	89	81	*	84
June	*	74	*105*	82	*77*	58	74	89	81	83	86
July	*	73	*106*	81	*76*	58	75	89	81	*	85
Aug.	86	74	*108*	82	*71*	56	76	90	80	*	87
Sept.	*	74	*108*	82	*70*	54	76	90	80	83	86
Oct.	*	74	*110*	83	*78*	53	76	90	80	*	86
Nov.	89	75	*110*	82	*74*	53	76	90	81	*	87
Dec.	*	74	*109*	83	*69*	53	74	90	81	83	85

Country	Poland	Southern Rhodesia [10]	Rumania	Saar Territory [11]	Sweden	Switzerland	Czechoslovakia	Turkey	Union of South Africa	Yugoslavia	
Towns and localities	Warsaw	6	20	Sarrebruck	49	34	Prague	Istanbul	9	Belgrade [8]	3 (Croatia and Slavonia)
Original base (= 100)	1928	1914	1913	VII. 1914	VII. 1914	VI. 1914	VII. 1914	I-VI. 1914	1914	1926	VII. 1914
1913-14 [2] .	*	83	—	—	59	62	13	—	76	*	—
1927 . . .	98	95	90	96	101	99	100	*	100	103	*
1928 . . .	99	98	97	97	102	100	101	*	100	99	97 [4]
1929 . . .	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
1930 . . .	93	97	99	99	96	98	100 [3]	92	98	92	91
1931 . . .	85	96	71 [3]	94	94	93	96	87	94	87	84
1932 . . .	77	92	59	87	92 [3]	86	94	85	90	81	76
1933 . . .	70	88	55	83	91	81	93	76	88	79	65
1934 . . .	66	87	53	82	92	80	92	75	89	75	61
1934: Jan.	68	87	53	84	*	81	92	79	89	78	62
Feb.	68	87	53	84	*	81	91	78	89	77	62
March	67	87	53	83	91	81	91	77	89	77	63
April	68	88	52	84	*	81	91	77	89	76	62
May	66	88	52	83	*	80	92	76	89	76	62
June	65	87	52	83	92	80	93	74	89	76	61
July	65	87	52	83	*	80	93	75	89	75	61
Aug.	65	86	52	82	*	80	93	74	89	73	60
Sept.	65	87	53	81	92	80	92	72	88	74	59
Oct.	65	86	53	81	*	80	92	72	89	75	59
Nov.	63	87	53	81	*	80	92	72	88	75	59
Dec.	63	86	54	81	92	80	91	71	88	74	60

[1] Except for the series in italics: original base or recalculated on the nearest possible year to 1929. — [2] Period or date within the years 1913-1914, varying according to the country. — [3] Revised series. — [4] Average calculated for a period of less than one year. — [5] Quarterly averages. — [6] The monthly indexes relate to 12 towns. — [7] Half-yearly averages. — [8] The index does not include rent. — [9] Up to September 1933 inclusive, the index does not include heating. — [10] The index does not include clothing. — [11] Territory incorporated in Germany since 1 March 1935.

TABLE XIII. — COST-OF-LIVING INDEX NUMBERS *(continued)*

(Series recalculated by the International Labour Office on the base 1929 = 100 [1])

(b) *Food Prices*

Country	Germany	Argentina	Australia [5]	Austria	Belgium	Bulgaria	Canada	Chile	China			Denmark	Danzig
Towns and localities	72	Buenos Aires	30	Vienna	59	12-67 [6]	60	Santiago	Peiping	Shanghai	Tientsin	100	Danzig
Original base (= 100)	1913-1914	X. 1933	1923-1927	VII. 1914	1921	1914	1926	III. 1928	1927	1926	1926	1931	VII. 1913
1913-14 [2]	64	*	*	82	*	33	*	*	*	*	*	*	72
1927	98	*	96	98	95	92	97	*	93	108	92	103	99
1928	98 [3]	*	95	98	95	96	97	97 [4]	94	94	95	102	100
1929	**100**	*	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
1930	94	*	90	97	96	82	96	100	104	121	103	91	90
1931	84	*	79	89	81	64	75	89	86	109	94	81	79
1932	74	*	77 [3]	90	69	59	63	98	79	103	88	79	69
1933	73	**100** [4]	72	85	69	56	63	124	67	88	76	82	66
1934	76	*90*	75	83	65	58 †	68	125	65	88	72	89	65
1934: Jan.	76	*94*	73	85	69	58	68	116	63	79	72	*	66
Feb.	75	*90*	74	84	67	60	72	115	64	82	73	*	66
March	75	*91*	74	83	65	58	70	118	62	76	71	86	65
April	75	*90*	76	83	63	57	68	120	65	75	69	*	64
May	75	*86*	76	82	61	57	67	122	59	76	68	*	64
June	76	*83*	74	84	61	56	67	125	60	77	67	86	68
July	77	*90*	74	82	63	57	68	127	64	92	68	*	66
Aug.	78	*89*	75	82	66	57	68	126	73	105	79	*	65
Sept.	77	*92*	76	83	67	57	68	131	72	108	77	90	64
Oct.	77	*88*	77	83	68	57	69	126	70	101	72	*	65
Nov.	77	*91*	76	84	69	58	68	134	64	91	72	*	64
Dec.	77	*93*	76	82	66	58	68	141	65	92	76	90	65

Country	Egypt [7]	Spain [7]	Estonia	United States		Finland	France		Great Britain and Northern Ireland	Greece	Hungary	India		
				B.L.S.	N.I.C.B.									
Towns and localities	Cairo	Madrid	Tallinn	51	51	21	Paris	45	509	44	Budapest	Bombay	Ahmedabad	Rangoon
Original base (= 100)	I. 1913-VII. 1914	1914	1913	1913	1923	I-VI. 1914	1914	1930	VII. 1914	XII. 1914	1913	VII. 1914	VIII. 1926-VII. 1927	1931
1913-14 [2]	71	55	79	64	*	9	17	*	65	*	81	69	*	*
1927	106	104	89	99	99	99	92	*	103	93	101	103	102 [4]	*
1928	102	97	95	99	99	102	92	*	102	97	103	98	96	*
1929	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	*	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	*
1930	94	103	82	94	94	86	104	**100**	93	87	85	90	84	*
1931	85	108	71	77	77	77	105	*97*	84	**100** [3]	78	70	67	**100**
1932	79	103	64	65	65	80	94	*89*	81	*108*	74	69	69	*97*
1933	72	100	61	64	64	80	92	*84*	78	*118*	65	64	65	*87*
1934	80	—	60	71	71	78	91	*79* [9]	79	*120*	62	60	63	*84*
1934: Jan.	73	101	62	67	67	76	*	*	79	*120*	60	58	62	*84*
Feb.	76	103	63	69	69	75	94	*	78	*121*	61	58	60	*84*
March	76	103	62	69	69	77	*	*	77	*118*	61	57	59	*81*
April	75	103	63	69	69	76	*	*	75	*119*	61	57	59	*83*
May	75	101	63	69	69	76	93	*81*	76	*118*	65	58	63	*85*
June	77	100	61	69	70	76	*	*	79	*118*	64	60	65	*88*
July	84	100	61	70	70	76	*	*	80	*117*	62	60	65	*85*
Aug.	84	101	60	72	71	79	90	*	82	*118*	63	62	63	*85*
Sept.	89	—	58	74	75	79	*	*	81	*121*	63	62	64	*89*
Oct.	87	—	57	74	74	80	*	*	83	*125*	63	63	64	*85*
Nov.	83	—	57	73	74	84	88	*78*	83	*121*	61	62	66	*79*
Dec.	84	—	57	73	73	82	*	*	81	*121*	61	60	65	*78*

For notes see next page.

TABLE XIII. — COST-OF-LIVING INDEX NUMBERS *(continued)*

(Series recalculated by the International Labour Office on the base 1929 = 100 [1])

(b) *Food Prices* (concluded)

Country	Netherlands Indies [7]	Irish Free State	Italy	Japan		Latvia	Lithuania	Luxemburg	Norway	New Zealand	Palestine [7]	Netherlands	Peru
Towns and localities	Java and Madura	105	50	13	Tokyo	Riga	104	9	31	25	3	Amsterdam	Lima
Original base (= 100)	1913	VII. 1914	VI. 1927	VII. 1914	VII. 1914	1930	1913	1914	VII. 1914	1926-1930	I. 1922	X. 1923-IX. 1924	1913
1913-14 [2] .	64	59	*	*72*	49	*	76	12	63	*	*	*	63
1927 . . .	101	101	98 [4]	*	104	*	104	92	110	97	112	100	111
1928 . . .	95	100	98	*	100	*	101	94	106 [3]	99	106	103	101
1929 . . .	**100**	**100**	**100**	*	**100**	*	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
1930 . . .	97	95	94	*	85	**100**	80	100	96	96	89	93	99
1931 . . .	65	87	82	*94* [4]	74	*89*	71	85	88	83	80	84	93
1932 . . .	48	83	78	**100**	78	*75*	58	69	85	77	82	74	90
1933 . . .	39	78	73	*103*	79	*75*	49	70	83	72	79	74	87
1934 . . .	39	80	70	*110*	81	*69*	46	66	84	76	79	76	93
1934: Jan.	36	*	73	*102*	80	*60*	48	69	81	74	77	*	89
Feb.	37	79	72	*104*	81	*63*	50	66	81	75	81	*	89
March	38	*	72	*104*	82	*63*	51	64	81	76	78	77	91
April	39	*	69	*106*	82	*65*	51	63	82	77	79	*	91
May	38	76	68	*108*	82	*74*	49	63	82	77	77	*	91
June	38	*	68	*107*	80	*80*	49	64	84	77	77	76	94
July	38	*	68	*109*	79	*80*	48	65	84	77	79	*	93
Aug.	38	79	68	*113*	80	*72*	45	66	86	76	80	*	98
Sept.	39	*	68	*113*	80	*71*	42	67	85	76	82	76	95
Oct.	41	*	69	*118*	81	*75*	41	67	85	76	80	*	96
Nov.	41	85	70	*117*	81	*68*	41	67	85	77	82	*	96
Dec.	43	*	69	*116*	82	*61*	41	65	85	78	81	75	92

Country	Poland	Portugal [7]	Southern Rhodesia [7]	Rumania	Saar Territory [10]	Sweden	Switzerland	Czechoslovakia		Turkey	Union of South Africa	Yugoslavia	
Towns and localities	Warsaw	Whole country	6	20	Sarrebruck	49	34	Prague	Whole country	Istanbul	9	Belgrade	3 (Croatia and Slavonia)
Original base (= 100)	1928	VI. 1914	1914	1913	VII. 1914	VII. 1914	VI. 1914	VII. 1914	VII. 1914	I-VI. 1914	1914	1926	VII. 1914
1913-14 [2] .	*	4	90			67	64	12	11		87	*	
1927 . . .	105	*	99	95	94	101	101	105	103	*	103	101	*
1928 . . .	103	*	100	98	96	103	101	104	102	*	102	97	100 [4]
1929 . . .	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
1930 . . .	86	95	95	100	96	92	97	96 [3]	96 [3]	83	96	91	90
1931 . . .	76	84	89	69 [3]	90	86	90	88	87	72	91	87	83
1932 . . .	67	83	87	57	82	83 [3]	80	83	81	66	83	82	75
1933 . . .	60	83	84	53	77	81	75	80	78	55	86	79	64
1934 . . .	54	83	83	51	76	83	74	78	75	59	90	77	60
1934: Jan.	57	82	83	52	79	81	75	78	75	58	90	79	62
Feb.	57	82	83	52	79	81	74	77	74	59	90	78	62
March	56	82	84	51	78	81	74	77	74	58	90	78	62
April	57	82	85	50	78	82	74	76	74	58	92	77	62
May	54	82	84	51	76	82	74	78	74	58	92	77	62
June	53	82	84	51	77	83	74	80	76	59	90	77	60
July	53	81	83	51	77	83	74	80	76	59	90	77	59
Aug.	54	83	82	51	75	83	73	80	75	58	90	75	59
Sept.	53	87	82	51	73	84	73	78	74	60	89	76	57
Oct.	53	89	82	51	73	83	73	78	74	61	90	76	57
Nov.	51	86	83	52	74	84	74	77	74	58	89	76	58
Dec.	50	84	82	53	74	83	73	77	74	57	89	75	59

[1] Except for the series in italics: original base or recalculated on the nearest possible year to 1929. — [2] Period or date within the years 1913-1914, varying according to the country. — [3] Revised series. — [4] Average calculated for a period of less than one year. — [5] Lighting included. — [6] The monthly indexes relate to 12 towns. — [7] Heating and lighting included. — [8] Quarterly averages. — [9] Half-yearly averages. — [10] Territory incorporated in Germany since 1 March 1935.

TABLE XIII. — COST-OF-LIVING INDEX NUMBERS *(continued)*

(Series recalculated by the International Labour Office on the base 1929 = 100 [1])

(c) *Heating and Lighting*

Country	Germany	Argentina	Austria	Belgium	Bulgaria	Canada	Chile	China			Denmark	Danzig
Towns and localities	72	Buenos Aires	Vienna	59	12-67 [5]	60	Santiago	Peiping	Shanghai	Tientsin	100	Danzig
Original base (=100)	1913-1914	X. 1933	VII. 1914	1921	1914	1926	III. 1928	1927	1926	1926	1931	VII. 1913
1913-14 [2] .	71	*	96	*	39	*	*	*	*	*	*	75
1927 . . .	102	*	*	95	95	101	*	88	111	84	107	97
1928 . . .	97 [3]	*	*	87	92	100	103 [4]	88	97	87	100	97
1929 . . .	**100**	*	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
1930 . . .	101	*	100	105	89	99	106	102	104	106	96	102
1931 . . .	98	*	100	95	82	98	100	99	113	112	92	103
1932 . . .	90	*	100	89	76	95	106	94	113	100	91	97
1933 . . .	90	*101* [4]	103	85	70	91	*144*	85	103	83	94	89
1934 . . .	90	—	106	78	68 †	91	146	86	95	85	95	81
1934: March	91	*99*	108	80	69	91	143	83	103	79	95	81
June	88	*99*	105	78	68	90	148	80	86	76	95	81
Sept.	90	*99*	105	77	68	92	145	90	94	96	95	80
Dec.	90	—	105	77	65	92	144	89	95	96	95	80

Country	Spain	Estonia	United States		Finland	France		Great Britain and Northern Ireland	Greece	Hungary	India		
			B.L.S.	N.I. C.B.									
Towns and localities	Madrid	Tallinn	32	95-174	21	Paris	45	24-91	44	Budapest	Bombay	Ahmedabad	Rangoon
Original base (=100)	1914	1913	1913	1923	I-VI. 1914	1914	1930	VII. 1914	XII. 1914	1913	VII. 1914	VIII. 1926-VII. 1927	1931
1913-14 [2] .	58	105	57	*	7	18	*	58	*	74	70	*	*
1927 . . .	102	84	103	102	97	98	*	104	96	93	114	104 [4]	*
1928 . . .	100	87	101	100	99	93	*	98	97	91	104	102	*
1929 . . .	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	*	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	*
1930 . . .	100	102	98	100	96	111	**100**	100	97	96	99	95	*
1931 . . .	101	84	94	97	72	109	*98*	101	**100** [3]	98	101	89	**100**
1932 . . .	101	74	89	93	60	109	*95*	100	*104*	101	97	88	*101*
1933 . . .	102	63	87	91	61	108	*94*	99	*110*	97	93	85	*106*
1934 . . .	—	63	89	93	62	105 [7]	*92* [6]	99	*115*	99	93	84	*99*
1934: March	100	63	*	93	62	109	*	100	*116*	99	93	83	*95*
June	101	63	88	92	62	100	*92*	97	*113*	100	93	83	*98*
Sept.	—	65	*	94	62	102	*	99	*114*	99	93	84	*103*
Dec.	—	65	89	94	62	106	*92*	100	*117*	99	93	83	*103*

For notes see next page.

TABLE XIII. — COST-OF-LIVING INDEX NUMBERS *(continued)*

(Series recalculated by the International Labour Office on the base 1929 = 100 [1])

(c) *Heating and Lighting* (concluded)

Country	Irish Free State	Italy	Japan		Latvia	Lithuania	Luxemburg	Norway [9]	New Zealand	Netherlands
Towns and localities	105	Milan	13	Tokyo	Riga	104	9	31	4	Amsterdam
Original base (= 100)	VII. 1914	VI. 1927	VII. 1914	VII. 1914	1930	1913	1914	VII. 1914	1926-1930	X.1923-IX.1924
1913-14 [2] .	56	*	*63*	41	*	88	11	62	*	*
1927 . . .	108	118 [4]	*	107	*	112	95	88	101	104
1928 . . .	96	94	*	107	*	102	94	105 [3]	102	97
1929 . . .	**100**	**100**	*	**100**	*	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
1930 . . .	101	108	*	86	**100**	100	109	96	100	97
1931 . . .	96	97	*104* [4]	75	*97*	95	105	91	100	91
1932 . . .	97	93	**100**	65	*94*	78	99	90	97	89
1933 . . .	97	91	*107*	73	*95*	67	94	86	90	87
1934 . . .	94	89	*113*	75	*91*	61	91	85	85	84
1934: March [8]	95	91	*114*	75	*118*	64	94	85	85	86
June	93	88	*112*	74	*29*	60	90	85	84	83
Sept.	93	88	*113*	76	*44*	58	89	85	84	84
Dec.	93	88	*116*	75	*152*	58	89	86	84	83

Country	Poland	Portugal	Saar Territory [10]	Sweden	Switzerland	Czechoslovakia	Turkey	Yugoslavia	
Towns and localities	Warsaw	Whole country	Sarrebruck	49	34	Prague	Istanbul	Belgrade	3 (Croatia and Slavonia)
Original base (= 100)	1928	VI. 1914	VII. 1914	VII. 1914	VI. 1914	VII. 1914	I-VI. 1914	1926	VII. 1914
1913-14 [2] .	*	5		62	75	12		*	
1927 . . .	78	*	100	107	106	97	*	97	*
1928 . . .	86	*	98	101	102	98	*	94	83 [4]
1929 . . .	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
1930 . . .	102	100	107	98	99	99 [3]	87	96	90
1931 . . .	102	93	106	94	96	97	84	96	75
1932 . . .	99	90	104	90 [3]	91	95	83	89	69
1933 . . .	84	90	102	85	89	93	73	84	56
1934 . . .	78	89	103	84	87	93	69	82	54
1934: March	80	88	102	84	88	93	69	82	54
June	78	90	104	84	87	93	61	81	54
Sept.	75	89	103	84	86	93	66	81	54
Dec.	72	86	103	85	87	94	74	82	57

[1] Except for the series in italics: original base or recalculated on the nearest possible year to 1929. — [2] Period or date within the years 1913-1914, varying according to the country. — [3] Revised series. — [4] Average calculated for a period of less than one year. — [5] The monthly indexes relate to 12 towns. — [6] Half-yearly averages. — [7] Quarterly averages. — [8] The indexes relate to the months of February, May, August and November. — [9] Index for heating only. — [10] Territory incorporated in Germany since 1 March 1935.

TABLE XIII. — COST-OF-LIVING INDEX NUMBERS *(continued)*

(Series recalculated by the International Labour Office on the base 1929 = 100 [1])

(d) *Clothing*

Country	Germany	Argentina	Australia	Austria	Belgium	Bulgaria	Canada	Chile	China			Denmark	Danzig
Towns and localities	72	Buenos Aires	30	Vienna	59	12-67 [6]	60	Santiago	Peiping	Shanghai	Tientsin	100	Danzig
Original base (= 100)	1913-1914	X. 1933	1923-1927	VII. 1914	1921	1914	1926	III. 1928	1927	1926	1926	1931	VII. 1913
1913-14 [2]	58	*	*	55	*	31	*	*	*	*	*	*	56
1927	92	*	98	*	85	94	101	*	87	99	93	100	90
1928	99 [3]	*	100	*	95	96	101	100 [4]	92	97	98	103	96
1929	**100**	*	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
1930	95	*	96	99	102	96	96	98	99	102	99	90	101
1931	79	*	86	89	98	86	84	96	100	111	108	83	82
1932	65	*	81	90	92	77	75	134	99	105	95	85	69
1933	62	100 [4]	80	87	88	63	70	181	93	92	85	92	69
1934	65	—	79 [5]	86	84	56†	73	173	87	85	80	98	70
1934: March	64	*100*	80	86	86	57	72	171	89	85	82	98	70
June	64	*100*	80	86	84	56	72	173	90	85	81	98	70
Sept.	65	*100*	79	86	83	56	75	173	86	85	78	99	70
Dec.	68	—	79	86	83	55	73	171	83	85	78	98	69

Country	Egypt	Estonia	United States		Finland	France		Great Britain and Northern Ireland	Greece	Hungary	India		
			B.L.S.	N.I.C.B.									
Towns and localities	Cairo	Tallinn	32	90	21	Paris	45	81	44	Budapest	Bombay	Ahmedabad	Rangoon
Original base (= 100)	I.1913-VII. 1914	1913	1913	1923	I–VI. 1914	1914	1930	VII. 1914	XII. 1914	1913	VII. 1914	VIII. 1926-VII. 1927	1931
1913-14 [2]	*61*	67	62	*	10	17	*	46	*	76	63	*	*
1927	*	98	102	102	98	95	*	99	*	95	96	103 [4]	*
1928	*	100	101	103	99	98	*	101	*	102	99	97	*
1929	*	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	*	**100**	*	**100**	**100**	**100**	*
1930	*	99	97	93	99	104	**100**	97	*	96	84	92	*
1931	*	98	88	81	95	89	*91*	90	**100**	88	76	86	**100**
1932	**100**	94	78	67	93	83	*80*	87	*112*	84	75	81	*104*
1933	*95*	87	79	69	92	84	*76*	85	*122*	78	72	71	*92*
1934	*86*	86	85 [7]	79	91	83 [5]	*73* [7]	86	*120*	77	72	71	*89*
1934: March	*87*	87	*	79	91	84	*	85	*120*	77	70	71	*91*
June	*87*	86	85	78	91	84	*73*	86	*120*	77	71	71	*88*
Sept.	*86*	86	*	79	91	84	*	86	*121*	77	73	69	*88*
Dec.	*86*	86	85	78	91	82	*72*	86	*121*	77	72	74	*88*

For notes see next page.

TABLE XIII. — COST-OF-LIVING INDEX NUMBERS *(continued)*

(Series recalculated by the International Labour Office on the base 1929 = 100 [1])

(d) *Clothing* (concluded)

Country	Irish Free State	Italy	Japan		Latvia	Lithuania	Luxemburg	Norway	New Zealand	Netherlands
Towns and localities	105	Milan	13	Tokyo	Riga	104	9	31	4	Amsterdam
Original base (= 100)	VII. 1914	VI. 1927	VII. 1914	VII. 1914	1930	1913	1914	VII. 1914	1926-1930	X.1923-IX.1924
1913-14 [2] .	48	*	*83*	70	*	59	9	63	*	*
1927 . . .	92	110 [4]	*	107	*	112	78	111	104	97
1928 . . .	96	102	*	106	*	106	90	103 [3]	102	102
1929 . . .	**100**	**100**	*	**100**	*	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
1930 . . .	100	91	*	80	**100**	94	103	96	97	91
1931 . . .	96	76	*94* [4]	65	*89*	70	100	91	89	75
1932 . . .	96	68	**100**	65	*73*	62	97	91	83	64
1933 . . .	96	64	*115*	74	*65*	52	95	89	83	60
1934 . . .	96 [8]	60	*122*	77	*66*	48	95	91	85	59
1934: March	96	63	*121*	77	*72*	50	94	91	85	60
June	95	60	*123*	77	*56*	49	95	91	85	59
Sept.	96	60	*124*	78	*56*	47	95	91	85	59
Dec.	95	60	*121*	76	*76*	46	96	91	85	60

Country	Peru	Poland	Saar Territory [9]	Sweden	Switzerland	Czechoslovakia	Turkey [10]	Yugoslavia	
Towns and localities	Lima	Warsaw	Sarrebruck	49	34	Prague	Istanbul	Belgrade	3 (Croatia and Slavonia)
Original base (= 100)	1913	1928	VII. 1914	VII. 1914	VI. 1914	VII. 1914	I-VI. 1914	1926	VII. 1914
1913-14 [2] .	45	*		54	60	10		*	
1927 . . .	106	94	97	98	97	98	*	116	*
1928 . . .	103	99	99	101	99	102	*	109	99 [4]
1929 . . .	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
1930 . . .	88	99	99	97	96	88 [3]	100	96	89
1931 . . .	79	77	90	94	87	75	100	89	81
1932 . . .	72	68	76	91 [3]	77	68	100	86	68
1933 . . .	67	60	71	89	71	65	84	94	63
1934 . . .	71	58	72	91	69	66	79	93	57
1934: March	69	58	71	90	69	66	84	94	58
June	71	58	73	90	69	66	75	93	58
Sept.	71	57	71	91	69	66	75	91	55
Dec.	75	57	73	91	69	67	75	94	55

[1] Except for the series in italics: original base or recalculated on the nearest year possible to 1929. — [2] Period or date within the years 1913-1914, varying according to the country. — [3] Revised series. — [4] Average calculated for a period of less than one year. — [5] Quarterly averages. — [6] The monthly indexes relate to 12 towns. — [7] Half-yearly averages. — [8] The indexes relate to the months of February, May, August and November. — [9] Territory incorporated in Germany since 1 March 1935. — [10] Including furniture.

TABLE XIII. — COST-OF-LIVING INDEX NUMBERS *(continued)*

(Series recalculated by the International Labour Office on the base 1929 = 100 [1])

(e) *Rent*

Country	Germany	Argentina	Australia	Austria	Belgium	Bulgaria	Canada	Chile	China			Denmark	Danzig
Towns and localities	72	Buenos Aires	30	Vienna	59	12-67 [5]	60	Santiago	Peiping	Shanghai	Tientsin	100	Danzig
Original base (= 100)	1913-1914	X. 1933	1923-1927	VII. 1914	1921	1914	1926	III. 1928	1927	1926	1926	1931	VII. 1913
1913-14 [2] .	79	*	*	556	*	36	*	*	*	*	*	*	94
1927 . . .	91	*	96	*	82	102	96	*	121	99	96	97	100
1928 . . .	100	*	100	*	94	101	98	100 [3]	111	99	99	99	101
1929 . . .	**100**	*	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
1930 . . .	102	*	98	128	174	100	102	100	100	102	101	102	100
1931 . . .	104	*	85	144	180	92	99	100	102	104	100	104	108
1932 . . .	96	*	77	156	178	85	91	100	116	106	98	105	111
1933 . . .	96	**100** [3]	76	156	176	83	81	100	124	107	97	107	111
1934 . . .	96	—	77 [4]	161	175	78†	77	100	133	108	97	108	111
1934: March	96	*100*	76	156	175	82	78	100	128	108	97	107	111
June	96	*100*	77	161	175	79	77	100	133	108	97	107	111
Sept.	96	*100*	77	172	175	79	78	100	137	109	97	107	111
Dec.	96	—	77	172	175	72	78	100	137	109	97	110	111

Country	Egypt	Estonia	United States		Finland	France		Great Britain and Northern Ireland	Greece	Hungary	India		
			B.L.S.	N.I.C.B.									
Towns and localities	Cairo	Tallinn	32	173	21	Paris	45	29-39	28	Budapest	Bombay	Ahmedabad	Rangoon
Original base (= 100)	I.1913-VII. 1914	1913	1913	1923	I-VI. 1914	1914	1930	VII. 1914	XII. 1914	1913	VII. 1914	VIII. 1926-VII. 1927	1931
1913-14 [2] .	*67*	192	65	*	7	31	*	66	*	116	58	*	*
1927 . . .	*	77	106	106	95	82	*	99	*	77	100	100 [3]	*
1928 . . .	*	100	103	102	98	89	*	99	*	93	100	100	*
1929 . . .	*	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	*	**100**	*	**100**	**100**	**100**	*
1930 . . .	*	100	97	97	101	108	**100**	100	*	100	92	101	*
1931 . . .	*	198	91	90	96	109	*104*	101	**100**	100	92	107	**100**
1932 . . .	**100**	273	80	79	90	113	*107*	101	*100*	100	92	107	*98*
1933 . . .	*100*	231	70	69	81	115	*108*	102	*100*	100	92	107	*97*
1934 . . .	*100*	215	67 [6]	70	76	115 [4]	*107* [6]	102	*100*	100	92	107	*97*
1934: March	*100*	215	*	69	78	115	*	102	*100*	100	92	107	*97*
June	*100*	215	67	70	74	115	*107*	102	*100*	100	92	107	*97*
Sept.	*100*	215	*	72	74	115	*	102	*100*	100	92	107	*97*
Dec.	*100*	215	67	73	74	115	*107*	102	*100*	100	92	107	*97*

For notes see next page.

TABLE XIII. — COST-OF-LIVING INDEX NUMBERS *(concluded)*

(Series recalculated by the International Labour Office on the base 1929 = 100[1])

(e) *Rent* (concluded)

Country	Irish Free State	Italy	Japan	Latvia	Lithuania	Norway	New Zealand	Netherlands	Peru
Towns and localities	105	Milan	13	Riga	104	31	25	Amsterdam	Lima
Original base (= 100)	VII. 1914	VI. 1927	VII. 1914	1930	1913	VII. 1914	1926-1930	X.1923-IX.1924	1913
1913-14[2] .	78	*	*42*	*	100	57	*	*	50
1927 . . .	99	99[3]	*	*	100	103	98	97	121
1928 . . .	99	99	*	*	100	102[8]	100	99	108
1929 . . .	**100**	**100**	*	*	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
1930 . . .	101	102	*	**100**	100	99	99	101	94
1931	102	117	*101*[3]	*125*	122	98	94	104	85
1932 . . .	102	120	**100**	*129*	110	98	83	105	77
1933 . . .	103	120	*98*	*121*	100	97	75	105	75
1934 . . .	102[7]	109	*97*	*117*	93	95	74	105	72
1934: March	102	120	*97*	*119*	95	96	75	105	72
June	102	106	*97*	*120*	93	96	74	105	72
Sept.	102	106	*97*	*113*	93	94	74	105	72
Dec.	102	106	*97*	*115*	88	94	74	105	72

Country	Poland	Southern Rhodesia	Saar Territory[9]	Sweden	Switzerland	Czechoslovakia	Turkey	Yugoslavia
Towns and localities	Warsaw	6	Sarrebruck	49	27	Prague	Istanbul	3 (Croatia and Slavonia)
Original base (= 100)	1928	1914	VII.1914	VII.1914	VI.1914	VII.1914	I-VI.1914	VII.1914
1913-14[2] .	*	73		50	56	24		
1927 . . .	76	90	98	99	96	74	*	*
1928 . . .	81	95	98	100	98	83	*	100[3]
1929 . . .	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
1930 . . .	121	101	104	103	102	115[8]	100	100
1931 . . .	130	103	105	103	103	138	100	100
1932 . . .	130	95	105	103	104	152	100	96
1933 . . .	130	90	105	101	103	161	100	81
1934 . . .	130	89	108	101	102	168	93	75
1934: March	130	89	105	101	102	168	100	76
June	130	89	108	101	101	168	100	74
Sept.	130	89	108	101	101	168	80	74
Dec.	130	89	108	101	101	168	80	74

[1] Except for the series in italics: original base or recalculated on the nearest year possible to 1929. — [2] Period or date within the years 1913-1914, varying according to the country. — [3] Average calculated for a period of less than one year. — [4] Quarterly averages. — [5] The monthly indexes relate to 12 towns. — [6] Half-yearly averages. — [7] The indexes relate to the months of February, May, August and November. — [8] Revised series. — [9] Territory incorporated in Germany since 1 March 1935.

TABLE XIV. — AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES [1] OF CERTAIN ARTICLES OF ORDINARY CONSUMPTION (FOOD, HEATING AND LIGHTING) IN CERTAIN TOWNS IN OCTOBER 1934 [2]

Article	Unit	Germany [3]	Australia	Austria	Belgium	Canada	Denmark	Spain	Estonia	United States	Finland	France	Great Britain
		6 towns	2 towns	3 towns	Brussels	6 towns	Copenhagen	4 towns	2 towns	10 towns	Helsinki	6 towns	7 towns
		RM.	Pence	Sch.	Frs.	Cents	Kr.	Ptas.	E. Kr.	Cents	F. Mks.	Frs.	Pence
1. White bread	Kg.	0.72	4.9	1.55	1.39	13.2	0.77	0.70	0.44	18.4	9.95	1.92	4.1
2. Rye or "black" bread	,,	0.34	*	0.63	*	*	0.18	0.55 [4]	0.13	19.9	3.58	*	*
3. Flour (wheaten)	,,	0.48	3.3	0.72	1.57	7.9	0.28	0.82	0.25	11.4	5.32	2.73 [4]	4.3
4. Oatmeal	,,	0.50	5.6	*	*	11.6	0.60	*	*	15.9	3.58	*	6.2
5. Butter: fresh	,,	3.07	37.9	4.13	19.12	54.3	*	9.00	1.23	73.0	26.60	17.50	27.3
salt	,,	2.78 [4]	*	*	*	*	2.65	9.50 [4]	*	*	*	*	25.6
6. Margarine	,,	1.73 [5]	*	2.80	9.00	*	1.56	5.00 [4]	0.93	33.0	15.00	8.18 [4]	11.2
7. Lard	,,	2.13 [5]	*	2.50	6.80	30.7	1.76	3.61	0.80	33.0	*	6.20 [4]	14.1
8. Beef (home produce) 1st quality	,,	*	19.0	2.80	24.50	39.4	2.17	4.63	0.50	55.6	11.17	17.24	32.0
8. Beef (home produce) 2nd quality	,,	1.51	*	2.27	11.00	24.8	1.22	3.83	0.35	40.9	8.25	6.57	14.6
9. Mutton (home produce) 1st quality	,,	*	14.7	2.00	*	40.6	*	4.61	0.53	55.0	13.88	18.50	32.6
9. Mutton (home produce) 2nd quality	,,	1.90	*	1.73	*	*	*	3.60	0.49	37.7	*	7.58	15.0
10. Pork 1st quality	,,	*	23.4	2.87	17.15	46.9	1.71	6.97 [4]	0.66	63.1	13.04	12.17 [4]	30.1
10. Pork 2nd quality	,,	1.75	*	2.10	*	45.3	*	5.30	0.57	51.3	*	10.06 [4]	22.7
11. Veal 1st quality	,,	*	*	2.87	*	23.5	*	6.40	0.41	77.1	14.04	15.63	19.8
11. Veal 2nd quality	,,	1.74	*	2.50	*	*	1.38	5.13	0.35	*	7.63	9.41	12.8
12. Bacon	,,	2.25	32.7	2.47	8.00	79.3	2.66	3.60	0.69	79.3	16.67	6.62 [4]	29.1
13. Potatoes	,,	0.09	4.4	0.16	0.75	2.1	0.17	0.31	0.02	4.4	0.74	0.69	2.0
14. Sugar (white granulated)	,,	0.76	8.9	1.37	2.68	13.9	0.49	1.71	0.45	12.3	6.83	3.71	5.1
15. Coffee	,,	4.82 [5]	*	12.80	19.75	88.6	5.00	10.69	*	61.5	29.45	18.82	57.8
16. Tea	,,	*	61.0	24.73	33.00	115.1	9.07	19.50	7.50	157.5	*	*	47.2
17. Cocoa	,,	3.60 [5]	*	5.47	19.35	93.7	*	9.83 [4]	2.50	*	*	12.50 [4]	23.8
18. Cheese	,,	1.39 [5]	23.9	4.10	*	45.9	1.74	4.31	1.43	56.0	20.33	13.36	17.9
19. Milk (unskimmed)	Litre	0.23	5.8	0.44	1.26	9.2	0.28	0.60	0.07	12.0	1.53	1.37	6.1
20. Eggs (fresh)	1	0.12	1.1	0.13	0.40	2.7	0.12	0.24	0.04	3.1	0.96	0.69	1.6
21. Rice	Kg.	0.44	7.2	0.67	3.25	18.1	0.70	0.80	0.60	19.0	6.05	2.49 [4]	4.6
22. Macaroni or similar products	,,	0.81 [5]	*	1.95	6.20	*	*	1.39	0.83	34.2	*	4.86	9.3
23. Peas (dried)	,,	0.80	*	0.93	*	*	*	1.38 [4]	0.35	18.8	5.50	3.19	6.2
24. White or red haricot beans	,,	0.42	*	0.71	1.47	10.8	*	1.38	0.30	15.1	*	3.85	4.9
25. Prunes (dried)	,,	0.90 [5]	*	1.73	*	28.4	1.44	2.75 [4]	*	25.0	10.67	*	11.7
26. Olive oil	,,	*	*	5.00	12.89	*	*	1.80	*	*	*	4.03	*
27. Firewood (fir)	100 kg.	3.50 [5]	*	7.00	*	61.4 [7]	10.00	8.00 [4]	0.64 [7]	*	11.50 [7]	45.50 [4]	*
28. Bituminous coal (household)	,,	3.20	*	10.33	24.75	108.9	4.11 [8]	31.67 [4]	*	162.8 [4]	*	29.00	53.2
29. Coke	,,	4.57 [5]	*	11.20	*	131.8	5.06 [9]	13.59	*	*	55.00	27.00 [4 9]	45.3
30. Electricity (for lighting)	Kwh.	0.30 [5 6]	*	0.62	1.86	3.6 [6]	0.35	0.75	0.25 [4]	*	2.50	1.47	*
31. Gas	M³	0.16 [5 6]	*	0.28	0.90	*	0.15	0.54	*	*	1.30	0.84	1.5
32. Paraffin oil	Litre	0.35 [5]	4.1	0.31	*	6.1	0.21	0.94	*	*	1.50	2.12	2.3

For notes see following page.

TABLE XIV. — AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES [1] OF CERTAIN ARTICLES OF ORDINARY CONSUMPTION (FOOD, HEATING AND LIGHTING) IN CERTAIN TOWNS IN OCTOBER 1934 [2] *(continued)*

Article	Unit	Hungary	Irish Free State	Italy	Latvia	Norway	Netherlands	Poland	Sweden	Switzerland	Czechoslovakia	Yugoslavia
		Budapest	3 towns	6 towns	Riga	Oslo	4 towns	4 towns	3 towns	3 towns	3 towns	4 towns
		Pengös	Pence	Lire	Lats	Kr.	Fl.	Zloty	Kr.	Frs.	Kč.	Dinars
1. White bread	Kg.	0.40	5.1	1.46 [4]	0.51	0.80	0.23	0.83	0.81	0.33	2.20	2.88
2. Rye or " black " bread	,,	0.34	*	1.72 [4]	0.21	0.38	0.19 [4]	0.30	0.64	*	2.00	2.38
3. Flour (wheaten)	,,	0.33	3.7	1.72	0.61	0.33	0.20	0.40	0.35	0.31	2.90	2.06
4. Oatmeal	,,	2.20	5.9	7.90 [4]	0.43	0.34	0.25 [4]	0.69	0.34	*	7.70	1.50 [4]
5. Butter: fresh	,,	1.90	37.1	11.49	1.93	2.89	1.67	3.10	*	4.75	17.70	26.50
salt	,,	*	33.1	*	1.73	*	*	2.63 [4]	2.77	*	*	21.67 [4]
6. Margarine	,,	2.04	19.7	*	*	1.55	0.98	1.78	1.48	*	10.60	*
7. Lard	,,	1.32	16.9	5.41 [4]	1.59	*	0.78	1.82	1.05	1.80	12.10	15.50
8. Beef (home produce) 1st quality	,,	1.60	27.2	8.57	0.60	2.23	1.62	1.45	1.85	2.67	11.80	10.50
8. Beef (home produce) 2nd quality	,,	1.50	17.8			1.61	1.18 [4]		1.34	2.53	8.05	7.25
9. Mutton (home produce) 1st quality	,,	1.15	26.8	8.00 [4]	0.69	1.57	0.80 [4]	1.70 [4]	2.08	4.00	9.70	8.00
9. Mutton (home produce) 2nd quality	,,	0.80	18.0			1.29			*	*		6.00
10. Pork 1st quality	,,	1.38	22.1	9.10 [4]	0.96	1.78	1.13	1.24	1.62	3.23	11.50	15.75
10. Pork 2nd quality	,,	1.27	*			1.59	0.57 [4]		*		9.35	13.25
11. Veal 1st quality	,,	1.50	*	11.47 [4]	0.76	2.12	1.58	1.66	2.11	3.90	9.85	17.50
11. Veal 2nd quality	,,	1.20	*			1.20			1.14 [4]	3.23		11.75
12. Bacon	,,	1.60	27.6	5.62 [4]	1.27	*	0.71	1.34	1.51	3.73	13.55	14.88
13. Potatoes	,,	0.08	1.5	0.50	0.07	0.10	0.07	0.07	0.11	0.15	0.80	1.15
14. Sugar (white granulated)	,,	1.30	7.5	6.36	0.62	0.63	0.47	1.29	0.37	0.25	6.25	13.38
15. Coffee	,,	8.00	71.3	29.58	8.73	2.97	1.28	7.72	3.17	3.05	41.35	47.50
16. Tea	,,	16.00	83.8	*	12.47	10.19	2.07	22.29	8.50	7.60	78.50	78.75
17. Cocoa	,,	2.30	50.7	10.88 [4]	3.63	2.59	1.29	6.00 [4]	1.89	1.90	23.00	33.00
18. Cheese	,,	1.75	33.8	12.49	1.43	1.70	0.78	1.73	1.75	2.70	17.50	16.00
19. Milk (unskimmed)	Litre	0.32	4.4	0.97	0.17	0.28	0.12	0.23	0.23	0.31	1.85	2.44
20. Eggs (fresh)	1	0.07	2.3	0.32 [4]	0.12	0.11	0.05	0.10	0.13	0.11	0.70	0.67
21. Rice	Kg.	0.60	8.9	1.53	1.00	0.76	0.20	0.78	0.44	0.41	2.40	6.25
22. Macaroni or similar products	,,	1.08	16.2	2.36	*	1.12	0.37	1.37	0.52	0.55	8.20	10.50
23. Peas (dried)	,,	0.60	8.8	1.26 [4]	0.50	0.68	0.23	0.45	0.48	0.61	3.10	7.88
24. White or red haricot beans	,,	0.26	8.8	1.47	*	0.57	0.29	0.56	0.59	0.31	2.85	3.30
25. Prunes (dried)	,,	1.20	19.8	4.17 [4]	3.30	1.46	0.39	1.81	1.03	*	6.15	9.00 [4]
26. Olive oil	,,	1.60	*	6.34	*	*	*	5.74	2.22	0.89	18.85	19.17
27. Firewood (fir)	100 kg.	5.00	*	16.95	1.20 [7]	2.67 [7]	5.50 [4]	7.50 [4]	2.23 [7]	5.30 [4 7]	35.00	41.00 [7]
28. Bituminous coal (household)	,,	4.00	65.6	48.93	1.60	3.40	2.22 [8]	5.53	3.29 [8]	9.33	27.90	37.50 [4]
29. Coke	,,	6.00	49.9	20.03 [4]	*	4.50 [9]	1.55 [4 9]	5.51	3.92	6.60	50.80 [4]	58.50 [4]
30. Electricity (for lighting)	Kwh.	0.35	4.8 [4 6]	1.79	0.36	*	0.24	0.57 [6]	0.30	0.45	2.70	5.75
31. Gas	M^3	0.20	2.2	0.64 [4]	0.20	0.23	0.11	0.32 [6]	0.12	0.23	1.40	5.25 [4]
32. Paraffin oil	Litre	0.30	2.3	1.92	0.15	0.18	0.08	0.52	0.20	0.29	1.65	6.75

[1] Unweighted arithmetic averages of prices in the different towns of each country (calculated by the International Labour Office); for Great Britain and Czechoslovakia, averages weighted by the population of the different towns (official communication). [2] Except for Belgium (June 1934), Estonia and Italy (July 1934), France (5 towns), the Irish Free State, and the Netherlands (2 towns) (November 1934). [3] Data taken from the publications of the *Statistisches Reichsamt*, and corresponding to those for previous years. [4] Averages calculated for a smaller number of towns than indicated in the heading. [5] The prices are averages between Berlin and Hamburg, except for cocoa, prunes, and firewood, for which Berlin prices are given; prices taken from the statistical publications of these towns. [6] To these prices are added fixed annual charges for installation, rent of meter, etc., varying in the different towns. [7] Calculated on the basis of prices per m^3 at the rate of 500 kg. per m^3. [8] Calculated on the basis of prices per hectolitre at the rate of 75 kg. per hectolitre. [9] Calculated on the basis of prices per hectolitre at the rate of 50 kg. per hectolitre.

TABLE XV. — MONTHLY RENTS OF DWELLINGS OF DIFFERENT KINDS IN CERTAIN TOWNS, IN 1934 [1]

(a) *Working-Class Dwellings*

Country and town		Currency unit	1 room		2 rooms		3 rooms		4 rooms		5 rooms		6 rooms	
			Without bath room	With b. r.	Without bath room	With b. r.	Without bath room	With bath room	Without bath room	With bath room	Without bath room	With bath room	Without bath room	With bath room
AUSTRIA:	Vienna	Sch.	9.75	—	13.67	—	48.10	—	23.73	—	—	—	—	—
CANADA	Halifax	$	—	—	—	—	—	10.40-15.40	—	15.40-20.40	—	20.40-23.40	15.50-23.50	23.50-33.50
	Montreal	,,	—	—	—	—	—	8.40-12.60	—	14.70-18.90	—	15.75-21.00	14.70-18.90	18.90-29.40
	Ottawa	,,	—	—	—	—	—	9.00-15.00	—	13.00-19.00	—	17.00-23.00	16.00-22.00	20.00-30.00
	Toronto	,,	—	—	—	—	—	10.70-18.70	—	15.70-23.70	—	18.80-27.80	18.90-22.90	22.90-30.90
	Vancouver	,,	—	—	—	—	—	10.00	—	12.00	—	14.00	13.00-17.00	15.00-22.00
	Winnipeg	,,	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	12.80-20.80	—	13.00-26.00	14.20-23.20	23.20-31.20
DENMARK:	Copenhagen	Kr.	—	—	23.50		41.25		55.75		64.33		109.00	
SPAIN:	Barcelona	Pta.	—	—	—	—	25.00	—	35.00	—	55.00	65.00	75.00	85.00
	Bilbao [2]	,,	—	—	30.00	—	50.00	—	60.00	—	75.00	—	100.00	—
	Valencia [2]	,,	20.00	—	30.00	—	53.00	—	70.00	—	86.00	92.00	108.00	130.00
FRANCE:	Lille	Fr.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	160.20	—	—	—
	Lyons	,,	—	—	66.67-83.33	—	100.00-116.67	—	125.00-150.00	—	—	—	—	—
	Paris: Old dwellings	,,	—	—	68.75	—	91.67	—	123.75	—	—	—	—	—
	New dwellings	,,	—	—	93.28	—	127.97	—	153.47	—	—	—	—	—
GREAT BRITAIN [3]:	Birmingham	S. d.	—	—	—	—	30. 0	—	38. 0	48. 0	43. 0	65. 0	—	—
	Bristol	,,	—	—	—	—	—	—	32. 0	49. 0	41. 0	63. 0	—	—
	Glasgow	,,	—	—	34. 0	—	50. 0	57. 0	—	—	—	—	—	—
	Leeds	,,	—	—	22. 0	—	29. 0	—	39. 0	—	44. 0	—	—	—
	London	,,	—	—	43. 0	—	54. 0		63. 0		75. 0		—	—
	Manchester	,,	—	—	—	—	35. 0	49. 0	37. 0	57. 0	47. 0	65. 0	—	—
	Newcastle	,,	—	—	31. 0	—	44. 0	48. 0	49. 0	56. 0	—	—	—	—
IRISH FREE STATE:	Cork	S. d.	—	—	—	—	23. 5	—	28. 7	—	41. 6	—	—	—
	Dublin	,,	14. 5	—	19. 6	—	28. 2	—	49. 9	—	58. 3	—	—	—
	Dundalk	,,	—	—	—	—	14.10	—	20.10	—	34. 3	—	—	—
ITALY:	Florence	Lira	—	—	65.58	—	81.84	—	117.51	—	130.52	—	167.50	—
	Genoa	,,	—	—	128.36	—	143.23	—	154.31 [4]	—	233.10 [4]	—	—	—
	Milan	,,	40.21	—	87.49	—	135.23 [4]	—	201.10 [4]	—	—	—	—	—
	Rome	,,	—	—	153.86 [4]	—	227.71 [4]	—	315.38		400.89		520.52	
	Trieste	,,	—	—	—	—	147.13 [4]	—	209.26 [4]	—	292.62		379.78	
	Turin	,,	44.67	—	87.15	—	136.95	—	200.99 [4]	—	238.48 [4]	—	292.88	
NORWAY:	Oslo: Mostly old dwell.	Kr.	—	—	23.25		34.83		55.17		79.92		—	
	Mostly new ,,	,,	—	—	28.42		49.42		68.33		76.58		—	
NETHERLANDS:	Amsterdam	Fl.	—	—	12.17	—	13.86	—	20.05	—	24.12	—	32.65	—
	The Hague	,,	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	25.98	—	—	—
	Utrecht	,,	6.50-9.74	—	8.66-15.16	—	12.99-15.16	—	15.16-22.04	17.32-22.52	19.49-28.27	24.03-33.21	27.02-32.00	—
SWITZERLAND:	Basle	Fr.	—	—	—	—	57.00	78.00	75.00	102.00	95.00	123.00	111.00	178.00
YUGOSLAVIA:	Belgrade	Dinar	190.00	—	320.00	—	440.00	—	550.00	—	730.00	—	860.00	—
	Split	,,	300.00	—	400.00	—	550.00	—	700.00	900.00	850.00	1,000.00	1,000.00	1,200.00

[1] The data usually relate to October 1934 or a neighbouring month. — [2] Plus water rate. — [3] Monthly figures, calculated on weekly rents. — [4] A small number of the dwellings in question have bath rooms.

(b) *All dwellings*

Country and town	Currency unit	1 room		2 rooms		3 rooms		4 rooms		5 rooms		6 rooms	
		Without bath room	With bath room	Without bath room	With bath room	Without bath room	With bath room	Without bath room	With bath room	Without bath room	With bath room	Without bath room	With bath room
		Rents in 1934											
AUSTRALIA:													
Melbourne	S. d.	—	1	—	1	—	1	—	67. 7	—	89. 1	—	105.10
Sydney		—	1	—	1	—	1	—	71. 9	—	88. 3	—	106. 1
DENMARK:													
Copenhagen	Kr.	—	—	25.00		42.17		59.25		74.42		145.25	
ESTONIA:													
Tallinn	E. Kr	12.88	—	17.41	—	24.95		35.10		—	—	—	—
FINLAND:													
Helsinki	F.Mk.	275.14		464.25		775.91		905.07		—	—	—	—
LATVIA:													
Riga: Controlled dwellings	Lat.	—	—	14.00	—	28.83	—	36.40	—	—	—	—	—
Non-controlled dwellings	„	—	—	17.15	—	35.70	—	51.68	—	86.05	—	—	—
POLAND:													
Warsaw: Whole town	Zloty	24.78	—	44.13	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Suburbs	„	17.45	—	29.97	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Centre	„	27.94	—	48.42	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
SWITZERLAND:													
Basle	Fr.	—	—	—	—	58.00	80.00	77.00	103.00	102.00	143.00	129.00	195.00
Berne	„	—	—	—	—	67.00	93.00	88.00	128.00	113.00	170.00	—	—
Zurich	„	—	—	—	—	65.25	92.42	88.50	113.83	112.42	143.75	—	—
CZECHOSLOVAKIA:													
Prague: Controlled dwellings	Kč	—	—	—	113.00	—	192.00	—	—	—	—	—	—
Non-controlled dwellings	„	—	—	—	292.00	—	458.00	—	—	—	—	—	—
YUGOSLAVIA:													
Novisad	Dinar	160.00	—	300.00	—	—	800.00	—	1,000.00	—	1,300.00	—	1,700.00
Skoplje	„	150.00	300.00	350.00	400.00	600.00	750.00	800.00	1,000.00	1,000.00	1,400.00	1,500.00	2,000.00
Split	„	400.00	—	500.00	600.00	600.00	750.00	800.00	900.00–1,000.00	900.00	1,000.00–1,200.00	1,000.00–1,200.00	1,200.00–1,600.00
		Rents in 1933 [2]											
HUNGARY:													
Budapest	Pengö	21.82	74.59	34.84	71.60	57.31	92.27	81.87	129.89	114.58	175.03	173.81	238.17
NORWAY:													
Oslo: Whole town	Kr.	—	—	27.00		46.33		70.67		101.58		139.00	
Old dwellings	„	—	—	23.83		37.50		61.75		96.25		—	
New dwellings	„	—	—	45.17		67.33		96.33		120.75		—	
SWEDEN:													
Göteborg: Without central heating	Kr.	23.00		37.00		64.00		95.00		125.00		154.00	
With central heating	„	44.00		56.00		87.00		122.00		156.00		197.00	
Malmö: Without central heating	„	22.00		33.00		50.00		72.00		96.00		123.00	
With central heating	„	46.00		54.00		76.00		103.00		127.00		164.00	
Stockholm: Without central heating	„	33.00		50.00		77.00		111.00		143.00		181.00	
With central heating	„	61.00		78.00		115.00		159.00		204.00		255.00	
SWITZERLAND:													
Geneva: Whole town	Fr.	—	—	—	—	69.75		93.92		—	—	—	—
Old dwellings	„	—	—	—	—	61.25		85.08		—	—	—	—
New dwellings	„	—	—	—	—	97.00		129.75		—	—	—	—

[1] Average rent of dwellings of 1, 2, 3 rooms with bathroom: Melbourne: 49s. 3d.; Sydney: 57s. 10d.

[2] Except for Hungary, figures for 1932.

TABLE XVI. — SUMMARY OF RESULTS OF PRINCIPAL WORKERS' FAMILY BUDGET ENQUIRIES SINCE 1924

Percentage Distribution of Expenditure (per Average Family) on Chief Groups

Country (date of enquiry)	Number of families covered	Average expenditure, national currency	Percentage of average expenditure on:				
			Food	Housing	Fuel and light	Clothing	Miscellaneous
Germany, 56 towns (1927-1928)	896	3,255 RM.	46.3	14.2	3.7	13.0	22.8
Austria, Vienna (1932)	65	4,033 Sh.	46.9	9.9	4.5	9.8	28.9
Belgium (1928-1929)	809	20,067 Fr.	58.2	9.1	15.4	4.9	12.4
Bulgaria (1927-1928)	93	42,839 Lev.	51.0	16.2	6.0	12.5	14.3
China, Pekin (1926-1927)	48	203 $	72.2	8.0	11.3	6.8	1.7
Denmark [1] (1931)	—	3,100 Kr.	31.4	13.6	5.1	12.4	37.5
Estonia, Tallinn (1925)	283-322	114,410 EM.	60.0	14.4 [2]	—	18.2	7.4
United States, Detroit (1929)	100	1,720 $	33.4	27.8	6.0	12.5	20.3
Finland, 29 towns (1928)	581	25,266 FM.	50.3	16.7	3.9	13.7	15.4
Great Britain, Merseyside [3] (1929-1931)	332	—	47.8	19.5	9.3	9.2	14.2
India, Ahmedabad (1926)	872	472 Re.	57.9	12.9	7.0	9.5	12.7
Japan (1931-1932)	1,145	877,0 Yen	35.4	17.4	4.6	12.8	29.9
Latvia, Riga (1926-1927)	—	—	55.0	10.0	5.0	15.0	15.0
Mexico (1934)	281	1,142 $	56.4	9.7	—	6.6	27.3 [4]
Norway, 5 towns (1927-1928)	135	4,208 Kr.	44.3	14.4	4.8	13.6	22.9
Poland, 3 industrial localities (1929)	192	3,490 Zl.	58.0	7.5	4.7	16.9	12.9
Sweden (1933)	610	3,659 Kr.	35.8	17.8	4.0	13.1	29.3
Czechoslovakia (1929-1930)	262	6,447 Kc.	56.6	9.0	5.7	14.4	14.3
U.S.S.R. (1928)	500-3,000	—	49.2	10.4	5.1	20.2	15.1

[1] Provisional results.
[2] Including expenditure on fuel and light.
[3] Estimated percentage expenditure per "average family".
[4] Including expenditure on fuel and light, upkeep and furnishing of the home, laundry, etc.

TABLE XVII. — SUMMARY OF RESULTS OF PRINCIPAL WORKERS' FAMILY BUDGET ENQUIRIES

Percentage Distribution of Expenditure on Chief Groups according to Income Classes

Country (date of enquiry)	Income class	Average expenditure	Percentage of total expenditure on:				
			Food	Housing	Fuel and light	Clothing	Miscellaneous
Germany [1] (1927-1928)	Less than 800 RM.	703.8 RM.	47.2	14,3	4.8	13.8	19.9
	800-1,000 ,,	893.3 ,,	45.4	15.1	4.3	13.5	21.6
	1,000-1,200 ,,	1,075.2 ,,	42.6	15.1	4.2	14.3	23.8
	1,200-1,500 ,,	1,294.7 ,,	41.1	15.7	3.9	13.3	26.0
	1,500 RM. and over	1,695.7 ,,	38.4	16.0	3.4	13.5	28.7
	All families [3]	1,128.2 RM.	42.2	15.4	4.0	13.6	24.8
Belgium [2] (1928-1929)	Less than 15,000 Fr.	14,385 Fr.	60.0	8.6	13.7	6.7	11.0
	15,000-20,000 Fr.	18,777 ,,	60.1	10.7	14.7	4.5	10.0
	20,000-25,000 ,,	22,259 ,,	56.1	9.1	16.3	4.8	13.7
	25,000-30,000 ,,	25,029 ,,	59.2	6.6	17.2	5.0	12.0
	30,000 Fr. and over	34,995 ,,	52.3	7.6	16.1	3.0	21.0
	All families	20,067 Fr.	58.2	9.1	15.4	4.9	12.4
Japan [2] (1931-1932)	Less than 50 Yen	45.8 Yen	44.1	15.4	5.7	9.9	24.9
	50-60 Yen	51.3 ,,	40.3	18.2	5.5	11.6	24.3
	60-70 ,,	58.8 ,,	38.1	18.0	4.9	12.1	26.9
	70-80 ,,	65.8 ,,	36.6	17.4	4.8	12.6	28.7
	809-0 ,,	75.7 ,,	35.1	17.5	4.6	4.6	4.1
	90-100 ,,	81.7 ,,	35.2	17.3	4.6	12.9	30.0
	100 Yen and over	94.6 ,,	31.9	16.8	4.1	13.7	33.5
	All families	73.1 Yen	35.4	17.4	4.6	12.8	29.9
Sweden [1] (1933)	Less than 700 Kr.	2,033 Kr.	46.0	14.7	4.1	14.0	21.2
	700-1,450 Kr.	3,543 ,,	36.6	17.3	4.0	13.2	28.9
	1,450 Kr. and over	5,670 ,,	30.0	20.4	3.7	12.4	33.5
	All families	3,659 Kr.	35.8	17.8	4.0	13.1	29.3
Czechoslovakia [1] (1929-1930)	2,000- 6,000 Kč.	4,830 Kč.	64.1	6.2	5.8	13.2	10.7
	6,000-12,000 ,,	7,229 ,,	55.0	9.7	5.7	14.6	15.0
	12,000-20,000 ,,	10,994 ,,	39.3	15.2	4.8	18.1	22.6
	All families	6,447 Kc.	56.6	9.0	5.7	14.4	14.3

[1] Income *per unit of consumption.*
[2] Income *per family.*
[3] The difference between the percentages of expenditure in the preceding table and this one is due to the fact that in the former case expenditure is given by average family and in the latter by units of consumption; the units in this case are different for the food group and the other groups of expenditure.

V. — EMIGRATION AND IMMIGRATION

TABLE XVIII

Table XVIII gives annual *statistics of emigration and immigration* for the years 1927-1934 for some 60 countries and territories, distinction being made between nationals and aliens, and between continental and intercontinental migration. In some cases, however, the figures relate to movements of passengers and not to migrants and this is indicated in each case in the table.

The different kinds of statistics of migration are indicated against each country in the table headings, and the following categories have been distinguished[1]:

(1) *Port statistics.* — Based on returns from shipping agencies or ship-masters of the number of migrants (or passengers) embarked and disembarked at various ports.

(2) *Statistics of frontier control.* — Based on returns from the authorities at the points of entry or exit in the countries concerned responsible for the supervision of frontier traffic. Sometimes these statistics are based on individual forms filled up by the travellers themselves.

(3) *Statistics of registration coupons detached from certain documents.* — Based on special slips issued to the migrant in duplicate by the competent authorities at home and the consular officials abroad and detached at the points of exit or entry.

(4) *Statistics of transport contracts.* — Based on the number of tickets sold to certain categories of travellers by transport agencies. They give information only as regards certain forms of emigration.

(5) *Passport statistics.* — Based on the number of passports granted to certain categories of travellers, sometimes supplemented by information as to the number of such travellers having actually left the country. These statistics refer only to the emigration of nationals.

(6) *Statistics of local registers.* — Based on the system in force in certain countries whereby persons changing their residence are under a legal obligation to notify the local population registers of such changes.

(7) *Other statistics.* — In addition, there exist some secondary series referring to particular streams of migration. They are compiled generally in connection with the regulation of the immigration of alien labour, generally of a seasonal character, from neighbouring countries. Countries for which no indication as to the nature of the statistics is available (mostly British and French oversea possessions) also are included here; it may generally be assumed that they are either port statistics or some form of frontier control statistics.

TABLE XIX

Table XIX summarises for the principal countries the *net balance of overseas migration* movements (i.e. excess of emigrants or immigrants) in recent years. The object of this table is primarily to show the recent reversal of the migration stream.

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[1] For a general analysis of the methods of compiling migration statistics, cf. INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE: *Statistics of Migration: Definitions—Methods—Classifications*, Studies and Reports, Series N, No. 18 (Geneva, 1932). Cf. also: "An International Conference on Migration Statistics", in *International Labour Review*, Jan. 1933.

TABLE XVIII. — EMIGRATION AND IMMIGRATION

Europe

Year	Germany					Austria	
	Emigration			Immigration	Passengers (inwards)	Emigration	Immigration
	Intercontinental		Continental	Continental	Intercont.	Intercont.	Continental
	Nationals	Aliens	Nationals	Aliens	Nationals	Nationals	Aliens
	Port statistics			Identity card statistics	Port statistics	Passport statistics	Work permit statistics
1927 . . .	60,861	1,268	518	130,584	38,271	5,339	5,104
1928 . . .	56,566	992	675	135,923	45,075	4,589	6,053
1929 . . .	48,441	1,032	293	125,388	38,463	4,850	7,427
1930 . . .	37,199	4,998	200	109,421	43,097	4,181	8,172
1931 . . .	13,513	942	131	50,141	40,417	2,585	6,297
1932 . . .	10,255	614	70	9,800	39,704	2,129	6,691
1933 . . .	12,733	795	133	—	42,167	1,404	4,775
1934 . . .	13,853[1]†	837	—	—	45,810	2,172	10,267 [2]

[1] Including continental emigration of nationals and excluding emigrants *via* Antwerp since April 1934. — [2] Modified series.

Year	Belgium							
	Emigration				Immigration			
	Intercontinental		Continental		Intercontinental		Continental	
	Nationals	Aliens	Nationals	Aliens	Nationals	Aliens	Nationals	Aliens
	Local register statistics				Local register statistics			
1927 . . .	3,498	1,151	13,149	12,153	1,252	1,579	8,365	29,973
1928 . . .	2,497	788	12,181	12,837	1,476	1,880	7,587	31,034
1929 . . .	3,088	1,225	10,455	14,393	1,486	1,643	7,460	45,006
1930 . . .	2,564	1,054	9,901	16,048	1,732	1,765	7,695	43,217
1931 . . .	1,292	444	7,124	10,391	2,159	1,181	6,687	22,018
1932 . . .	1,318	460	5,979	10,529	3,019	1,044	7,268	14,881
1933 . . .	1,444	441	5,310	9,034	2,035	585	6,681	10,024
1934 . . .	2,334 †		16,152 †		1,790 †		14,204 †	

Year	Bulgaria				Denmark		Estonia	
	Emigration		Immigration		Emigration	Immigration	Emigration	
	Intercont.	Continental	Intercont.	Continental	Intercont. and Cont.		Intercont.	Cont.
	Nationals and aliens		Nationals and aliens		Nationals and aliens		Nationals	
	Registration coupon statistics		Registration coupon statistics		Local register statistics		Passport statistics	
1927 . . .	1,386	16,053	*	*	*	*	1,060	1,262
1928 . . .	2,095	8,196	*	*	*	*	415	878
1929 . . .	2,906	10,263	*	*	11,624	14,580	478	961
1930 . . .	1,889	9,721	61	2,113	14,700	14,180	389	616
1931 . . .	405	10,291	59	2,602	16,274	9,598	81	563
1932 . . .	132	6,711	132	3,231	13,608	8,282	63	265
1933 . . .	193	5,502	73	1,868	12,146	7,500	111	342
1934 . . .	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

TABLE XVIII. — EMIGRATION AND IMMIGRATION *(continued)*

Europe *(continued)*

Year	Spain						Finland	
	Emigration			Immigration			Emigration	
	Intercontinental		Continent.	Intercontinental		Continent.	Intercont.	Continent.
	Nationals	Aliens	Nationals	Nationals	Aliens	Nationals	Nationals	
	Port statistics		Safe conduct statistics	Port statistics		Safe conduct statistics	Passport statistics	
1927 . . .	46,799 [1]	—	8,338	41,517	—	12,481	5,696	392
1928 . . .	58,225	2,172	13,268	46,926	557	11,604	4,742	313
1929 . . .	63,354	3,140	18,974	40,931	783	11,357	6,119	264
1930 . . .	55,306 [2]	2,568	22,170	52,383	855	11,418	3,657	307
1931 . . .	14,355 [1]	2,374	—	53,937 [1]	1,872	—	333	408
1932 . . .	10,652	2,592	—	51,626	1,428	—	988	173
1933 . . .	—	—	—	—	—	—	232	445
1934 . . .	—	—	—	—	—	—	192	210

[1] Not including emigration to North Africa. [2] Not including emigration through foreign ports.

Year	France			Great Britain and Northern Ireland				
	Emigration		Immigr.	Emigration		Immigration		
	Intercont.	Continent.	Continent.	Intercontinental		Intercontinental		Continent.
	Nationals	Aliens	Aliens	Nationals	Aliens	Nationals	Aliens	Aliens
	Port statistics	Frontier control statistics	Frontier control statistics	Port statistics		Port statistics		Frontier control statistics
1927 . . .	3,610	89,982	64,325	153,505	1,504	55,715	1,940	7,020
1928 . . .	3,448	53,759	97,742	136,834	1,406	59,105	1,837	9,012
1929 . . .	3,531	38,870	179,321	143,686.	1,643	56,217	1,867	11,052
1930 . . .	2,970	43,789	221,619	92,158	1,486	66,203	1,719	11,979
1931 . . .	1,802	92,916	102,267	34,310	1,387	71,382	1,674	12,973
1932 . . .	984	108,513	69,492	26,988	1,060	75,595	1,678	11,210
1933 . . .	646	49,047	74,635	26,256	1,159	59,324	1,688	11,056
1934 . . .	—	—	—	29,230	1,140	49,843	1,725	—

Year	Greece							
	Emigration				Immigration			
	Intercontinental		Continental		Intercontinental		Continental	
	Nationals [1]	Aliens	Nationals	Aliens	Nationals	Aliens	Nationals	Aliens
	Frontier control statistics				Frontier control statistics			
1927 . . .	9,255	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
1928 . . .	8,850	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
1929 . . .	9,710	*	*	*	4,474 [1]	*	*	*
1930 . . .	6,278	*	*	*	5,074	*	*	*
1931 . . .	10,289	8,718	4,604	11,924	8,035	2,475	9,064	3,882
1932 . . .	13,582	7,237	6,130	8,917	8,551	1,754	8,694	2,466
1933 . . .	10,834	—	5,706	—	8,993	884	8,524	2,016
1934 . . .	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

[1] Until 1930, including tourists.

Year	Hungary		Irish Free State			
	Emigration	Immigration	Emigration		Immigration	
	Intercont.	Intercont.	Intercontinental		Intercontinental	
	Nationals	Nationals	Nationals	Aliens	Nationals	Aliens
	Transport contract statistics	Local register statistics	Port statistics		Port statistics	
1927 . . .	5,586	555	27,148	161	1,904	187
1928 . . .	6,654	576	24,691	109	2,153	737
1929 . . .	7,400	518	20,802	106	2,120	617
1930 . . .	5,023	813	15,966	236	2,597	698
1931 . . .	1,506	1,212	1,462	95	3,407	695
1932 . . .	718	1,417	811	60	4,059	955
1933 . . .	792	835	903	72	2,635	557
1934 . . .	874	548	1,034	144	1,739	490

TABLE XVIII. — EMIGRATION AND IMMIGRATION *(continued)*

Europe *(continued)*

Year	Italy				Lithuania		Luxemburg	
	Emigration		Immigration		Emigration		Emigration	
	Intercont.	Continent.	Intercont.	Continent.	Intercontinental		Intercontinental	
	Nationals		Nationals		Nationals	Aliens	Nationals	Aliens
	Registration coupon and port statistics		Registration coupon and port statistics		Passport statistics		Transport contract statistics	
1927	—[1]	—[1]	—[1]	—[1]	18,086		130	57
1928	70,794	79,173	49,751	49,001	8,491		120	35
1929	61,777	88,054	43,434	72,484	15,723	276	109	45
1930	59,112	220,985	46,562	82,461	6,118	310	84	14
1931	40,781	125,079	43,405	64,325	1,614	142	15	11
1932	24,803	58,545	33,705	39,470	959	42	16	13
1933	22,328	60,736	26,074	39,762	1,277	23	8	4
1934	26,125†	42,214†	21,072†	28,848†	1,496	25	—	—

[1] The figures for 1927 are not comparable with those for succeeding years owing to a change in method of compilation.

Year	Malta and Gozo[1]				Norway		
	Emigration		Immigration		Emigration	Immigration	
	Intercont.	Continental	Intercont.	Continental	Intercont.	Intercont.	Continental
	Nationals		Nationals		Nat. and al.	Nationals and aliens	
	Passport statistics		Passport statistics		Transport contract stat.	Local register statistics	
1927	2,571	566	1,936	136	11,881	236	673
1928	1,708	650	1,404	85	8,837	454	454
1929	2,546	734	1,774	115	8,029	617	493
1930	2,227	395	1,620	86	3,673	*	*
1931	963	298	866	152	825	*	*
1932	1,356	198	884	253	436	*	*
1933	1,105	231	753	134	406	*	*
1934	—	—	—	—	485	*	*

[1] Figures for the fiscal year ending March of the following year.

Year	Netherlands		Poland				Portugal	
	Emigration[1]	Immigration[1]	Emigration		Immigration		Passengers[2] (outwards)	Passengers[2] (inwards)
	Intercont. and cont.	Intercont. and cont.	Intercont.	Continental	Intercont.	Continental	Intercont.	Intercont.
	Nat. and al.	Nat. and al.	Nationals		Nationals		Nationals	Nationals
	Local register statistics	Local register statistics	Registration coupon statistics		Registration coupon statistics		Port statistics	Port statistics
1927	50,343	52,662	58,187	89,427	6,799	73,014	26,704	13,522
1928	53,741	53,970	64,581	122,049	6,159	112,921	29,591	12,756
1929	55,356	63,602	65,310	178,132	6,571	97,932	31,414	13,618
1930	62,940	72,976	46,534	171,853	7,625	93,459	15,800	15,979
1931	39,978	67,969	11,770	64,235	7,223	80,455	6,625†	14,779†
1932	42,872	60,181	9,667	11,772	5,868	32,706	8,146†	10,836†
1933	44,174	52,297	17,167	18,358	3,923	14,911	—	—
1934	46,307	45,531	20,783	21,750	2,253	31,635	—	—

[1] A small number of these probably went to or came from other places in the Netherlands. — [2] Travelling third class.

TABLE XVIII. — EMIGRATION AND IMMIGRATION *(continued)*

Europe *(concluded)*

Year	RUMANIA							
	Emigration				Immigration			
	Intercontinental		Continental		Intercontinental		Continental	
	Nationals	Aliens	Nationals	Aliens	Nationals	Aliens	Nationals	Aliens
	Registration coupon statistics				Registration coupon statistics			
1927 . . .	8,343	499	572	13,775	3,035	641	135	7,385
1928 . . .	11,445	233	528	12,166	3,904	109	264	7,555
1929 . . .	12,672	252	131	12,729	2,857	43	207	7,944
1930 . . .	9,477	106	150	6,281	2,891	37	135	5,491
1931 . . .	2,557	89	133	8,213	2,413	45	220	5,115
1932 . . .	1,303	136	74	4,051	1,812	116	185	3,829
1933 . . .	1,141	122	38	3,649	1 317	56	131	2,375
1934 . . .	1,356	128	15	3,639	939†	15	23†	4,314

Year	SWEDEN				CZECHOSLOVAKIA				
	Emigration		Immigration		Emigration			Immigration	
	Inter-cont.	Conti-nental	Inter-cont.	Conti-nental	Intercontinental		Conti-nental	Inter-cont.	Conti-nental
	Nationals and aliens		Nationals and aliens		Nationals	Aliens	Nationals	Nationals	
	Local register statistics		Local register statistics		Transport contract statistics		Passport statistics	Frontier control statistics	
1927. .	10,958	1,889	2,847	2,831	14,787	46	23,272	2,839	3,959
1928. .	11,683	1,767	2,952	2,656	15,192	269	28,845	2,800	2,640
1929. .	9,157	1,862	2,879	3,457	12,748	474	35,063	2,363	2,263
1930. .	3,719	1,963	4,649	2,866	8,833	394	39,972	2,973	1,769
1931. .	1,165	1,806	5,670	2,720	2,779		26,434	2,997	3,253
1932. .	647	1,470	6,491	2,499	1,571		17,410	2,390	3,122
1933. .	893	1,524	4,905	2,351	1,654		12,220	2,583	2,684
1934. .	—	—	—	—	2,403†		—	—	1,576

Year	SWITZERLAND			YUGOSLAVIA					
	Emigration	Immigration	Immigration	Emigration			Immigration		
	Intercontinental and continental		Interc. and cont.	Intercontinental		Conti-nental	Intercontinental		Conti-nental
	Nationals		Aliens	Nationals	Aliens	Nat. and al.	Nationals	Aliens	Nat. and al.
	Military control statistics		Resi-dence permit. stat.	Transport contract statistics			Frontier control statistics		
1927. .	7,888	8,296	45,629	19,506	2,470	6,560	3,706	2,047	*
1928. .	8,225	6,732	50,088	19,463	2,326	12,538	3,796	2,031	*
1929. .	8,345	6,754	61,801	15,730	2,459	19,425	4,237	1,755	*
1930. .	8,238	7,549	77,723	11,429	2,131	25,409	5,975	1,632	7,395
1931. .	5,746	8,133	78,491	3,377	1,431	10,560	7,625	464	10,046
1932. .	4,512	6,955	51,977	1,600	854	6,642	5,439	1,592	8,209
1933. .	4,339	5,351	37,083	1,438	783	7,508	3,136	249	3,895
1934. .	4,116	4,848	32,131	—	—	—	—	—	—

TABLE XVIII. — EMIGRATION AND IMMIGRATION *(continued)*

Africa

Year	British East Africa [1]				Portuguese East Africa	Algeria	
	Passengers (outwards)		Passengers (inwards)		Immigration	Passengers (outwards)	Passengers (inwards)
	Intercont.	Continental	Intercont.	Continental	Intercont. and cont.	Intercontinental	Intercontinental
	Nat. and al.		Nat. and al.		Aliens	Nationals	Nationals
	Port statistics		Port statistics		Port statistics	Port statistics	Port statistics
1927	12,737	2,820	17,328	3,434	413	36,073	21,472
1928	13,519	2,633	17,268	3,894	462	39,726	25,008
1929	14,707	2,445	19,803	3,408	398	42,948	42,227
1930	20,344	2,882	20,550	3,621	572	40,250	44,882
1931	21,581	2,360	17,111	2,393	5,559 [2]	20,847	32,950
1932	17,238	1,868	14,285	1,727	942	14,950	14,485
1933	*	*	*	*	—	16,684	15,083
1934	*	*	*	*	—	12,082	15,354

[1] Kenya, Uganda, Tanganyika. [2] Since 1931, including immigration to the districts of Monica and Sofala.

Year	Madagascar				French Morocco		Mauritius	
	Passengers (outwards)		Passengers (inwards)		Emigration	Immigration	Emigration	Immigration
	Intercont. and cont.		Intercont. and cont.		Intercont. and cont.	Intercont. and cont.	Intercont. and cont.	Intercont. and cont.
	Nationals	Aliens	Nationals	Aliens	Aliens	Aliens	Nat. and al.	Nat. and al.
	Port statistics		Port statistics		—	—	Port statistics	Port statistics
1927	22	951	27	1,637	2,062	4,895	4,489	4,213
1928	16	1,061	34	2,578	1,877	5,015	4,797	4,042
1929	14	1,555	483	3,288	1,772	6,294	4,283	3,772
1930	36	2,236	127	2,411	2,167	5,818	3,461	5,146
1931	71	1,896	156	2,098	1,788	5,422	4,452	3,662
1932	33	1,545	136	1,727	1,858	3,982	3,248	3,186
1933	63	1,590	105	1,751	2,111	4,272	4,011	3,444
1934	—	—	—	—	2,943	3,164	—	—

Year	Nyasaland				Southern Rhodesia		Northern Rhodesia
	Emigration		Immigration		Immigration		Immigration
	Intercont. and cont.	Continental	Intercont. and cont.	Continental	Intercont.	Continental	Intercont. and continental
	Aliens	Nationals	Aliens	Nationals	Aliens		Aliens
	—	—	—	—	Frontier control statistics		—
1927	1,253	7,340	1,165	5,615	3,691	1,391	1,038
1928	1,187	6,660	1,474	7,872	3,521	1,397	1,066
1929	1,132	3,068	1,315	3,357	1,918	1,960	1,861
1930	1,368	3,485	1,645	3,738	1,496	1,874	3,651
1931	2,742	5,740	2,903	6,904	929	964	1,702
1932	3,965	8,212	4,117	10,374	794	597	615
1933	4,912	9,966	4,802	9,996	831	839	801
1934	—	—	—	—	1,939		—

TABLE XVIII. — EMIGRATION AND IMMIGRATION *(continued)*

Africa *(concluded)*

Year	Swaziland			Union of South Africa			
	Emigration		Immigrat.	Emigration		Immigration	
	Intercont.	Continent.	Intercont.	Intercont. and cont.		Intercont. and cont.	Continental
	Aliens	Nationals	Aliens	Nationals	Aliens	Aliens	
	—	Passport statistics	—	Frontier control statistics		Frontier control statistics	Labour contract statistics
1927	57	13,205	175	2,205	5,050	7,341	46,187
1928	84	12,774	201	2,511	5,398	7,819	74,943
1929	107	12,415	205	2,111	2,936	8,838	166,784
1930	55	14,058	161	2,559	3,140	7,101	202,994
1931	100	11,412	120	1,217	3,530	5,023	197,749
1932	81	9,658	121	852	4,496	3,779	196,931
1933	60	—	128	800	2,613	3,611	209,480
1934	—	—	—	4,443 †		4,702 †	230,661

America

Year	Argentina		Brazil			
	Passengers [1] (outwards)	Passengers [1] (inwards)	Passengers [1] (outwards)	Passengers [1] (inwards)		
	Intercont. and cont.	Intercont. and cont.	Intercont. and cont.	Intercont. and cont.	Inter-continental	Continental
	Aliens	Aliens	Nat. and aliens	Nationals	Aliens	
	Port statistics	Port statistics	Port statistics	Port statistics		
1927	67,042	161,548	41,573	3,594	96,880	1,094
1928	54,262	129,047	39,702	3,933	76,586	1,542
1929	58,365	140,086	44,498	4,238	94,931	1,255
1930	67,504	133,183	53,860	4,456	61,099	1,517
1931	59,706	63,665	38,775	3,945	26,183	1,282
1932	48,926	37,334	24,234	1,925 †	21,296 †	1,004 †
1933	40,285	29,903	—	2,731 †	45,543 †	538 †
1934	—	26,124†	—	—	—	—

[1] Passengers travelling second and third class.

Year	Canada			Chile		Cuba	
	Immigration			Passengers (outwards)	Passengers (inwards)	Immigration	
	Inter-continental	Continental		Intercont. and cont.	Intercont. and cont.	Intercont.	Continental
	Aliens	Nationals	Aliens	Nat. and al.	Nat. and al.	Aliens	
	Frontier control statistics			Frontier control statistics		Port statistics	
1927	135,066	42,078	23,818	*	*	12,825	18,589
1928	136,849	34,120	29,933	*	*	10,570	16,744
1929	133,142	30,479	31,852	33,353	37,988	11,104	6,075
1930	79,174	31,608	25,632	37,860	39,270	5,911	6,308
1931	12,335	20,352	15,195	29,888	29,195	2,065	731
1932	6,882	18,220	13,709	25,878	25,151	1,249†	643†
1933	5,882	10,209	8,500	23,671	25,396	1,955†	736†
1934	6,405	7,272	6,071	26,901	26,550	2,876†	441†

Year	United States					
	Emigration				Immigration	
	Intercontinental		Continental		Intercont.	Continental
	Nationals [1]	Aliens	Nationals [1]	Aliens	Aliens	
	Frontier control statistics				Frontier control statistics	
1927	11,223	68,677	11,563	6,445	176,744	147,141
1928	6,074	69,384	15,358	8,215	170,470	119,467
1929	5,829	41,956	17,614	11,217	174,211	94,730
1930	4,128	42,947	16,611	9,983	135,437	48,794
1931	2,828	56,010	17,165	33,560	31,642	11,711
1932	3,887	66,425	30,100	31,082	19,206	8,802
1933	5,122	40,251	16,167	11,439	15,414	8,485
1934	4,206	—	7,080	—	—	—

[1] Figures for the fiscal year ending 30 June.

TABLE XVIII. — EMIGRATION AND IMMIGRATION *(continued)*

America *(concluded)*

Year	Mexico							
	Emigration				Immigration			
	Intercontinental		Continental		Intercontinental		Continental	
	Nationals	Aliens	Nationals	Aliens	Nationals	Aliens	Nationals	Aliens
	Registration coupon statistics				Registration coupon statistics			
1927 . .	—		—		—		—	
1928 . .	5,709		69,231		8,375		79,811	
1929 . .	1,063	4,734	30,623	6,917	925	5,610	69,003	9,614
1930 . .	726	4,596	18,343	8,096	988	5,424	68,582	10,196
1931 [1] . .	*	6,894†	8,787 †[2]	5,999†	*	4,547†	124,991 †[2]	6,356†
1932 . .	*	1,929†	3,002 †[2]	1,453†	*	1,029†	80,648†[2]	659†
1933 . .	—	889†	—	1,656†	*	529†	36,504†[2]	195†
1934 . .	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

[1] New series. [2] Including some intercontinental migrants.

Year	Paraguay	Uruguay				Venezuela	
	Immigration	Passengers (outwards)		Passengers (inwards)		Passengers (outwards)	Passengers (inwards)
	Intercont. and cont.	Intercont.	Continent.	Intercont.	Continent.	Intercont. and cont.	Intercont. and cont.
	Nat. and al.	Nationals and aliens		Nationals and aliens		Nat. and al.	Nat. and al.
	Frontier control statistics	Port statistics		Port statistics		Port statist.	Port statist.
1927 . .	405	4,698	178,688	11,641	190,827	20,260	23,805
1928 . .	404	5,071	175,583	15,310	185,612	18,630	19,068
1929 . .	284	4,983	179,531	11,608	190,173	20,015	21,899
1930 . .	1,800	5,165	198,014	12,107	218,357	19,297	20,891
1931 . .	520	4,817	137,977	9,917	147,503	15,514	16,058
1932 . .	876	4,001	142,570	4,664	146,553	11,202	11,033
1933 . .	361	3,716	133,236	2,939	135,700	10,633	9,986
1934 . .	—	3,312	150,108	3,687	155,267	—	—

Asia

Year	Ceylon		French Settlements in India [1]		British India			
	Emigration	Immigration	Passengers (outwards)	Passengers (inwards)	Emigration		Immigration	
	Continental	Continental	Intercont. and cont.	Intercont. and cont.	Intercont.	Continental	Intercont.	Continental
	Aliens	Aliens	Nat. and al.	Nat. and al.	Nationals		Nationals	
	Port stat.	Port stat.	Port stat.	Port stat.	Port statistics		Port statistics	
1927 . .	211,062	285,137	—	—	206	221,767	5,709	92,190[2]
1928 . .	216,061	271,869	4,389	1,903	527	109,651	7,385	135,932
1929 . .	241,972	238,141	4,818	1,711	979	137,910	4,998	134,453
1930 . .	241,216	206,091	4,223	2,109	769	82,336	3,772	164,052
1931 . .	195,505	169,191	2,469	2,132	704	31,720	4,526	148,050[2]
1932 . .	171,599	143,764	2,012	1,840	545	20,038	4,804	146,304
1933 . .	178,903	121,251	1,633	1,599	771	10,043	—	111,232
1934 . .	—	—	—	—	761	130,194	—	—

[1] Pondicherry and Karikal. [2] Incomplete figure.

Year	Hong Kong		Netherlands East Indies		Japan		
	Emigration	Immigration	Immigration		Emigration		Passengers[1] (inwards)
	Continental	Continental	Intercont.	Continental	Intercont.	Continental	Intercont.
	Nat. and al.	Nat. and al.	Aliens		Nationals		Nationals
	Port statist.	Port statist.	Entry permit statistics		Passport statistics		Port statist.
1927 . .	285,593	181,100	7,400	43,565	13,656	4,385	14,423
1928 . .	257,162	187,847	7,795	45,128	18,146	9,552	13,368
1929 . .	227,523	185,390	8,580	39,806	21,215	9,971	12,546
1930 . .	188,900	223,136	7,244	34,741	15,951	5,884	12,550
1931 . .	100,869	283,890	4,812	14,419	6,789	3,595	11,718
1932 . .	55,639	232,396	3,211	7,046	16,096	2,937	13,648
1933 . .	57,515	141,133	3,401	5,879	—	—	—
1934 . .	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

[1] Third-class passengers.

TABLE XVIII. — EMIGRATION AND IMMIGRATION *(continued)*

Asia *(concluded)*

Year	Indo-China						Malay Peninsula	
	Emigration			Immigration			Emigration	Immigration
	Intercontinental		Continental	Intercontinental		Continental	Continental	Continental
	Nationals	Aliens	Aliens	Nat.	Aliens	Aliens	Aliens	Aliens
	—			—			Port statistics	Port statistics
1927	1,528	3,077	27,841	226	4,021	59,867	243,916	515,394
1928	1,439	5,628	45,214	441	5,802	76,093	240,606	358,772
1929	2,199	5,020	52,887	553	5,027	82,284	216,616	407,419
1930	778	6,064	54,769	3,501	6,098	72,366	319,638	311,263
1931	0	5,992	63,993	4,323	5,809	58,836	316,082	98,717
1932	0	5,570	52,951	3,314	5,914	36,071	246,860	51,268
1933	894	5,894	45,827	761	5,484	36,878	119,846	48,030
1934	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

Year	Palestine				Syria and Lebanon	
	Emigration		Immigration		Emigration	Immigration
	Intercont. and cont.		Intercont.	Continental	Intercont.	Intercont.
	Nationals	Aliens	Aliens		Nationals	Nationals
	Frontier control statistics		Frontier control statistics		—	—
1927	2,274	4,704	2,858	737	9,390	5,320
1928	1,414	1,708	1,901	1,185	14,000	4,022
1929	1,591	1,244	4,689	1,877	7,941	3,515
1930	1,432	1,571	5,144	1,289	7,346	3,978
1931	282	1,064	4,330	1,203	2,352	3,135
1932	*	*	7,509	3,780	1,607	2,744
1933	*	*	28,945	3,032	2,236	1,951
1934	*	*	38,928†	5,215†	2,509	1,793

Year	Philippine Islands					
	Emigration		Passengers (outwards)	Immigration		Passengers (inwards)
	Intercont.	Continental	Intercont. and cont.	Intercont.	Continental	Intercont. and cont.
	Aliens		Nationals	Aliens		Nationals
	Frontier control statistics		Port statistics	Frontier control statistics		Port statistics
1927	313	561	21,589	1,080	12,835	7,594
1928	480	801	21,310	1,100	10,783	9,723
1929	468	1,219	21,924	1,161	9,718	9,352
1930	—	1,078	16,012	—	11,238 †	10,003
1931	—	—	11,502	—	6,495 †	10,610
1932	—	—	3,537	—	—	13,512
1933	—	—	4,231	—	—	10,282
1934	—	—	—	—	—	—

Oceania

Year	Australia				Hawaii		New Caledonia	
	Emigration		Immigration		Passeng.[1] (outwards)	Passeng.[1] (inwards)	Passeng. (outwards)	Passeng. (inwards)
	Intercont.	Continental	Intercont.	Continental	Intercont.	Intercont.	Interc. and cont.	Interc. and cont.
	Nationals and aliens		Nationals and aliens		Aliens	Aliens	Nat. and al.	Nat. and al.
	Port statistics		Port statistics		Port stat.	Port stat.	Port statistics	
1927	13,773	4,159	61,655	5,423	12,357	10,961	3,143	3,800
1928	15,446	4,202	43,933	4,300	11,850	15,809	2,288	3,344
1929	17,177	4,748	28,539	3,159	12,040	11,483	1,650	3,427
1930	21,553	6,212	15,301	2,236	10,644	12,054	4,484	2,145
1931	17,989	3,876	7,862	1,579	23,265 [2]	24,650 [3]	4,302	1,383
1932	12,362	2,324	7,750	2,118	18,514	17,290	2,943	1,521
1933	12,221		10,749		19,583	16,783	5,517	5,376
1934	12,166 †		11,778 †		25,646	22,770	—	—

[1] Steerage passengers. — [2] Since 1931, departures without distinction of country of destination. — [3] Since 1931, arrivals without distinction of country of departure.

TABLE XVIII. — EMIGRATION AND IMMIGRATION *(concluded)*

Oceania *(concluded)*

Year	New Guinea[1]				New Zealand			
	Emigration		Immigration		Emigration		Immigration	
	Inter-cont.	Conti-nental	Inter-cont.	Conti-nental	Inter-cont.	Conti-nental	Inter-cont.	Conti-nental
	Aliens		Aliens		Nationals and aliens		Aliens	
	Frontier control statistics		Frontier control statistics		Frontier control stat.		Frontier control stat.	
1927	136	890	101	1,148	1,188	2,957	9,818	1,509
1928	134	1,062	70	1,444	1,413	2,541	4,817	1,522
1929	143	1,199	85	1,451	1,387	1,706	4,321	2,022
1930	187	1,063	104	1,324	1,216	1,233	4,752	2,165
1931	251	1,051	132	1,142	1,968	724	1,563	1,673
1932	229	1,166	191	1,387	1,791	1,149	934	638
1933	270	1,138	221	1,514	3,200†		1,400†	
1934	197	1,275	210	1,473	—	—	—	—

[1] Figures for the fiscal year ending 30 June.

TABLE XIX. — NET INTERCONTINENTAL MIGRATION IN CERTAIN EUROPEAN AND EXTRA-EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1927-1934 (000's omitted)

(+ " net immigration "; — " net emigration ")

Country	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934
	I. — *NATIONALS*							
Germany[1]	— 22.6	— 11.5	— 10.0	+ 5.9	+ 26.9	+ 29.4	+ 29.4	+ 32.0
Belgium	— 2.2	— 1.0	— 1.6	— 0.8	+ 0.9	+ 1.7	+ 0.6	— 0.5[2]
Great Britain and Northern Ireland	— 97.8	— 77.7	— 87.5	— 26.0	+ 37.1	+ 48.6	+ 33.1	+ 20.6
Irish Free State	— 25.2	— 22.5	— 18.7	— 13.4	+ 1.9	+ 3.2	+ 1.7	+ 0.7
Italy		— 21.0	— 18.3	— 12.6	+ 2.6	+ 8.9	+ 3.7	— 5.1
Netherlands[2 3]	+ 2.3	+ 0.2	+ 8.2	+ 10.0	+ 28.0	+ 17.3	+ 8.1	...
Poland	— 51.4	— 58.4	— 58.7	— 38.9	— 4.5	— 3.8	— 13.2	— 18.5
Portugal	— 13.1	— 16.8	— 17.8	+ 2.0	+ 8.2	+ 2.7	+ ...	...
Rumania	— 5.3	— 7.5	— 9.8	— 6.6	— 0.0	+ 0.5	+ 0.2	— 0.5
Sweden[2]	— 8.1	— 8.7	— 6.2	+ 9.0	+ 4.5	+ 5.8	+ 4.0	...
Czechoslovakia	— 11.9	— 12.4	— 10.4	— 5.8	+ 0.2	+ 0.8	+ 0.9	...
Yugoslavia	— 15.8	— 15.7	— 11.5	— 5.5	+ 4.2	+ 3.8	+ 1.7	...
	II. — *ALIENS*							
Argentine[3]	+ 94.5	+ 74.8	+ 81.7	+ 65.7	+ 4.0	— 11.6	— 10.4	...
Australia[4]	+ 47.9	+ 28.5	+ 11.4	— 6.3	— 10.1	— 4.6	— 1.5	...
United States	+108.1	+101.1	+132.3	+ 92.5	— 24.4	— 47.2	— 24.8	...
New Zealand[4]	+ 8.6	+ 3.4	+ 2.9	+ 3.5	— 0.4	— 0.9	...	...
Union of South Africa	+ 2.3	+ 2.4	+ 5.9	+ 4.0	+ 1.5	— 0.7	+ 1.0	...
Uruguay[3]	+ 6.9	+ 10.2	+ 6.6	+ 6.9	+ 5.1	+ 0.7	— 0.8	+ 0.4

[1] Immigration: passengers inwards. — [2] Including aliens. — [3] Passenger movement. — [4] Including nationals.

VI. — INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS

Tables XX and XXI

Tables XX and XXI give *statistics concerning collective agreements* between employers' and workers' organisations for the period 1927-1934 in 10 countries. The first table (XX) relates to statistics of collective agreements in force on a given date in each year and shows the number of agreements and the number of workers covered by them, and where possible the number of establishments covered. The second table (XXI) gives statistics concerning agreements concluded, renewed or modified during each year, and classified into number of agreements, number of workers and number of establishments covered. Despite the importance of collective negotiations in the field of industrial relations, only a few countries compile statistics of this kind [1]. The meaning of the term " collective agreement ", however, is not always the same, and the definition may be based on the establishment as a technical unit, an economic unit or a geographical unit. The number of persons covered is sometimes taken to be the number of members of the trade unions party to the agreement, and sometimes the number of workers to whom the provisions of the agreement apply, either in law or at least in actual fact.

Table XXII

Table XXII gives *statistics of industrial disputes* for the period 1927-1934 in 33 countries, and shows the number of industrial disputes (strikes and lock-outs), the number of workers involved, and the number of working days lost.

The methods of compilation of the data and the definitions adopted vary from country to country. The number of disputes and of workers involved are calculated in varying ways; the number of working days lost, calculated by methods which differ from country to country, is usually a rough approximation only. The data, however, make it possible to compare in a general way fluctuations in the extent and importance of labour disputes within the various countries [2].

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[1] For a general analysis of the methods of compiling statistics of collective agreements, cf. International Labour Office: *Methods of Compiling Statistics of Collective Agreements*, Studies and Reports, Series N, No. 11 (Geneva, 1926).

[2] For a general analysis of the methods used in compiling statistics of industrial disputes, cf. International Labour Office: *Methods of Compiling Statistics of Industrial Disputes*, Studies and Reports, Series N, No. 10 (Geneva, 1926).

TABLE XX. — COLLECTIVE AGREEMENTS IN FORCE

Year	Germany			Austria		
	Agreements in force on 1 Jan.	Establishments covered	Workers covered	Agreements in force at end of year	Establishments covered	Workers covered
1927 . .	7,490	807,300	10,970,120	2,737	147,596	1,007,723
1928 . .	8,178	912,006	12,267,440	2,976	163,594	989,884
1929 . .	8,925	997,977	12,276,060	2,791	192,546	957,940
1930 . .	*	*	*	2,259	219,246	824,568
1931 [1] .	*	804,788 [2]	12,006,255	1,989	196,206	639,841
1932 . .	—	—	—	1,552	188,312	514,105
1933 . .	—	—	—	—	—	—
1934 . .	—	—	—	*	*	*

[1] For Germany, new series. — [2] This figure relates to establishments covered by manual workers' agreements only; the number of establishments covered by salaried employees' agreements was 266,207.

Year	Australia	Norway		Rumania	
	Agreements in force at end of year	Agreements in force at end of year	Workers covered	Agreements in force during the year	Workers covered
1927 . .	744	846	122,536	281	87,793
1928 . .	777	1,017	122,756	220	73,316
1929 . .	605	1,501	141,535	293	94,950
1930 . .	601	1,629	159,651	287	95,876
1931 . .	614	1,522	162,184	292	84,252
1932 . .	625	1,923	169,177	—	—
1933 . .	653	2,418	177,965	—	—
1934 . .	—	—	—	—	—

Year	Netherlands			Sweden		
	Agreements in force on 1 June	Establishments covered	Workers covered	Agreements in force at end of year	Employers covered	Workers covered
1927 . .	894	16,976	267,791	2,960	16,502	494,625
1928 . .	1,016	17,209	279,597	3,326	17,388	512,542
1929 . .	1,254	18,548	291,738	3,916	19,316	541,403
1930 . .	1,546	23,528	385,783	4,422	20,185	580,931
1931 . .	1,496	23,427	358,972	5,288	23,819	618,034
1932 . .	1,325	21,720	251,715	5,806	24,630	636,138
1933 . .	1,221	23,241	243,821	5,635	22,782	596,563
1934 . .	1,132	25,431	258,185	—	—	—

TABLE XXI. — COLLECTIVE AGREEMENTS CONCLUDED, RENEWED OR MODIFIED

Year	Germany			Australia	Austria		
	Agreements concluded or renewed	Establishments covered	Workers covered	Agreements notified	Agreements	Establishments covered	Workers covered
1927 . .	3,284	410,538	7,395,737	137	599[1]	53,620[1]	327,014[1]
1928 . .	3,377	470,384	5,376,009	128	925[2]	139,480[2]	451,346[2]
1929 . .	*	*	*	109	813[2]	42,033[2]	373,609[2]
1930 . .	*	*	*	110	572[2]	102,597[2]	276,240[2]
1931 . .	*	*	*	112	468[2]	20,922[2]	186,602[2]
1932 . .	*	*	*	53	551[2]	40,712[2]	186,152[2]
1933 . .	*	*	*	64	—	—	—
1934 . .	*	*	*	—	—	—	—

[1] Agreements concluded, not including renewals. — [2] Agreements concluded, including renewals.

Year	France	Italy		Latvia	Netherlands		
	Agreements concluded	National and inter-provincial agreements notified	Provincial agreements concluded	Agreements concluded	Agreements concluded[2]	Establishments covered	Workers covered
1927 . .	102	*	*	4	*	*	*
1928 . .	99	107[1]	1,744	40	512	8,266	74,272
1929 . .	112	71	1,156	17	344	9,979	185,496
1930 . .	72	103	1,535	32	1,034	16,691	283,748
1931 . .	17 †	119	1,484	1	295	9,903	137,319
1932 . .	23 †	166	1,517	27	471	6,428	63,336
1933 . .	17 †	91	1,538 †	—	398	9,103	47,623
1934 . .	—	—	—	—	434	16,245	124,701

[1] Agreements notified since 6 May 1928. — [2] Year between 2 June of the preceding year and 1 June of the year indicated.

Year	Poland		Rumania		Sweden		
	Agreements concluded	Workers covered	Agreements concluded	Workers covered	Agreements concluded	Employers covered	Workers covered
1927 . .	523	296,882	148	41,505	607	4,355	94,176
1928 . .	565	337,672	135	46,956	868	3,613	133,922
1929 . .	336	120,252	218	76,495	990	4,322	112,541
1930 . .	160	41,502	174	46,461	1,476	7,084	169,763
1931 . .	189	117,090	177	50,670	1,405	4,555	126,408
1932 . .	197	215,077	101	25,296	1,588	4,787	257,905
1933 . .	240	227,711	80	23,693	1,445	10,769	198,000
1934 . .	—	—	92	24,154	—	—	—

TABLE XXII. — INDUSTRIAL DISPUTES

Period	South Africa			Germany			Argentina		
	Disputes	Workers involved	Working days lost	Disputes	Workers involved	Working days lost	Disputes	Workers involved	Working days lost
1927 . .	12	5,158	9,126	871	503,217	6,043,698	56	26,888	363,492
1928 . .	10	5,746	10,535	763	780,396	20,288,211	137	73,989	251,054
1929 . .	10	2,962	*	441	234,543	4,489,870	116	53,101	543,939
1930 . .	12	5,050	2,600	366	224,983	3,935,977	127	38,299	853,219
1931 . .	19	6,284	54,575	504	178,223	2,001,978	42 †	8,442†	58,493†
1932 . .	12	4,011	26,034	642 †	127,587†	1,112,056†	122 †	165,376†	1,357,790†
1933 . .	10	1,585	16,081	*	*	*	52 †	3,321†	39,896†
1934 . .	—	—	—	*	*	*	42 †	25,940†	—

Period	Australia			Austria			Belgium		
	Disputes	Workers involved	Working days lost	Disputes	Workers involved	Working days lost	Disputes	Workers involved	Working days lost
1927 . .	441	200,757	1,713,581	216	35,300	686,560	186	45,071	1,658,836
1928 . .	287	96,422	777,278	266	38,290	658,024	192	77,785	2,254,424
1929 . .	259	104,604	4,461,478	226	30,446	388,336	168	60,557	799,117
1930 . .	183	54,222	1,511,241	88	7,173	49,373	93	64,718	781,646
1931 . .	134	37,667	245,991	68	10,264	132,757	74	23,010	399,037
1932 . .	127	32,917	212,318	33	6,646	190,163	63	162,693	580,670
1933 . .	90	30,113	111,956	*	*	*	87	39,136	664,044
1934 . .	154	50,794	370,386	*	*	*	79	36,525	2,441,335

Period	Bulgaria			Canada		
	Disputes	Workers involved	Working days lost	Disputes	Workers involved	Working days lost
1927 . . .	23	2,919	57,196	74	22,299	152,570
1928 . . .	21	493	2,382	98	17,581	224,212
1929 . . .	36	22,339	378,236	90	12,946	152,080
1930 . . .	15	3,995	2,581†	67	13,768	91,797
1931 . . .	34	9,003	83,622†	88	10,738	204,238
1932 . . .	19	1,449	7,021†	116	23,390	255,000
1933 . . .	85 [1]	3,107 [2]	—	125	26,558	317,547
1934 . . .	—	—	—	191	45,800	574,519

[1] Strikes only. — [2] Workers directly involved only.

Period	China (Greater Shanghai)			Denmark			Spain		
	Disputes	Workers involved	Working days lost	Disputes	Workers involved	Working days lost	Disputes	Workers involved	Working days lost
1927. .	117	881,289	7,622,029	17	2,851	119,000	107	70,616	1,311,891
1928. .	118	204,563	2,049,826	11	469	11,000	87	70,024	771,293
1929. .	108	65,557	711,921	22	1,040	41,283	96	55,576	313,065
1930. .	87	64,130	801,531	37	5,349	144,000	402	247,460	3,745,360
1931. .	122	74,188	685,941	16	3,692	246,000	734	236,177	3,843,260
1932. .	82	71,395	710,605	17	5,756	87,000	681	269,104	3,589,473
1933. .	—	—	—	26	492	18,000	1,046 †	843,303†	14,440,629†
1934. .	—	—	—	38	11,546	146,000	—	—	—

TABLE XXII. — INDUSTRIAL DISPUTES *(continued)*

Period	Estonia			United States		
	Disputes	Workers involved	Working days lost	Disputes	Workers involved	Working days lost
1927 . . .	5	218	3,067	734	349,434	37,799,394
1928 . . .	5	1,098	49,336	629	357,145	31,556,947
1929 . . .	16	1,915	6,395	903	230,463	9,975,213
1930 . . .	7	154	338	653	158,114	2,730,368
1931 . . .	3	700 [1]	20,000 [1]	894	279,299	6,386,183
1932 . . .	4	888	2,149	808	242,826	6,462,973
1933 . . .	8	162	339	1,562	812,137	14,818,847
1934 . . .	10	1,369	2,207	1,740	1,353,608	19,308,650

[1] Approximate figures.

Period	Finland			France			India		
	Disputes	Workers involved	Working days lost	Disputes	Workers involved	Working days lost	Disputes	Workers involved	Working days lost
1927 . .	79	13,368	1,528,182	404	112,634	1,046,019	129	131,655	2,019,970
1928 . .	71	27,226	502,236	823	210,488	6,376,675	203	506,851	31,647,404
1929 . .	26	2,443	74,887	1,217	241,040	2,764,606	141	532,016	12,165,691
1930 . .	11	1,673	12,120	1,097	584,579	7,209,342	148	196,301	2,261,731
1931 . .	1	53	106	261 †	35,723	—	166	203,008	2,408,123
1932 . .	3	284	2,301	330 †	54,088†	—	118	128,099	1,922,437
1933 . .	4	1,274	9,536	327 †	84,391†	—	146	164,938	2,168,961
1934 . .	—	—	—	—	—	—	159	220,808	4,775,559

Period	Great Britain and Northern Ireland			Hungary			Irish Free State		
	Disputes	Workers involved	Working days lost	Disputes	Workers involved	Working days lost	Disputes	Workers involved	Working days lost
1927 . .	308	108,000	1,170,000	84	24,803	294,941	53	2,312	64,020
1928 . .	302	124,000	1,390,000	31	10,289	131,174	52	2,190	54,292
1929 . .	431	533,000	8,290,000	63	15,065	149,204	53	4,533	101,397
1930 . .	422	307,000	4,400,000	35	5,770	79,596	83	3,410	77,417
1931 . .	420	490,000	6,980,000	38	11,195	189,781	60	5,431	310,199
1932 . .	389	379,000	6,490,000	20	4,925	32,914	70	4,222	42,152
1933 . .	357	136,000	1,070,000	31	10,367	125,178	88	9,059	200,126
1934 . .	471	134,000	960,000	49	12,762	92,156	—	—	—

Period	Italy [1]			Japan			Latvia		
	Disputes	Workers involved	Working days lost	Disputes	Workers involved	Working days lost	Disputes	Workers involved	Working days lost
1927 . .	169	18,660	*	383	46,672	791,599	95	5,273	60,267
1928 . .	77	2,999	*	393	43,337	323,805	179	13,431	62,254
1929 . .	83	3,252	*	571	77,281	678,679	362	26,462	45,838
1930 . .	82	2,863	*	900	79,791	1,049,474	38	1,547	12,077
1931 . .	67	4,141	*	984	63,305	960,774	42	2,903	14,261
1932 . .	23	598	*	870	53,338	513,249†	139	4,400	22,960
1933 . .	—	—	*	598	46,787	—	246	4,323	24,003
1934 . .	—	—	—	—	—	—	35	3,854	24,543

[1] *Italy*: Since 1926 strikes and lock-outs have been forbidden by law. The figures denote the number of offences and persons reported with a view to prosecution.

TABLE XXII. — INDUSTRIAL DISPUTES *(concluded)*

Period	Norway			New Zealand			Palestine		
	Disputes	Workers involved	Working days lost	Disputes	Workers involved	Working days lost	Disputes	Workers involved	Working days lost
1927 . .	96	22,456	1,374,089	38	4,476	12,485	20	562	13,469
1928 . .	63	8,042	363,844	39	9,258	21,997	22	886	4,379
1929 . .	73	4,796	196,704	47	7,151	25,889	45	679	8,773
1930 . .	94	4,652	240,454	38	5,467	31,669	22	393	9,234
1931 . .	82	59,524	7,585,832	24	6,356	48,486	31	1,385	6,786
1932 . .	91	6,360	394,002	23	9,335	108,528	47	1,300	10,060
1933 . .	93	6,306	364,240	15	3,558	65,099	57	2,050	19,100
1934 . .	—	—	—	24†	3,773†	10,393†	49	2,040	17,300

Period	Netherlands			Poland		
	Disputes	Workers involved	Working days lost	Disputes	Workers involved	Working days lost
1927 . .	230	13,500	220,500	625	236,552	2,483,165
1928 . .	205	16,930	647,700	776	354,498	2,787,775
1929 . .	226	21,310	990,800	510	221,673	1,071,816
1930 . .	212	10,970	273,000	330	53,136	427,127
1931 . .	215	28,210	856,100	363	109,074	636,921
1932 . .	216	32,010	1,772,600	517	315,146	2,134,150
1933 . .	184	14,800	533,800	649	347,460	3,843,631
1934 . .	152	6,200	114,200	954† [1]	372,018† [1]	2,365,631† [1]

[1] Strikes only.

Period	Rumania			Sweden			Switzerland		
	Disputes	Workers involved	Working days lost	Disputes	Workers involved	Working days lost	Disputes	Workers involved	Working days lost
1927 . .	51	6,933	58,291	189	9,477	400,000	26	2,058	34,160
1928 . .	57	10,801	109,666	201	71,461	4.835,000	45	5,474	98,015
1929 . .	127	31,456	411,572	180	12,676	667,000	39	4,661	99,608
1930 . .	101	17,337	184,002	261	20,751	1,021,000	31	6,397	265,695
1931 . .	71	14,473	184,593	193	40,899	2,627,000	25	4,746	73,975
1932 . .	102	19,154†	103,673	182	50,147	3,095,000	38	5,083	159,154
1933 . .	58	12,402	57,093	140	31,980	3,434,000	35	2,705	69,065
1934 . .	72	11,059	156,086	—	—	—	20	2,763	33,309

Period	Czechoslovakia			Uruguay			Yugoslavia		
	Disputes	Workers involved	Working days lost	Disputes	Workers involved	Working days lost	Disputes	Workers involved	Working days lost
1927 . .	208	172,043	2,466,045	13	4,737	53,350	*	7,588	239,183
1928 . .	282	101,517	1,728,419	3	289	420,600†	—	5,600	117,500
1929 . .	230	63,564	753,205	31	2,011	90,600†	—	2,246	12,897
1930 . .	159	30,808	423,126	8	1,361	11,100†	—	4,879	48,528
1931 . .	254	49,508	498,891	56	1,933	102,600†	5	1,253	14,204
1932 . .	317	103,219	1,255,576	6	2,262	—	4	418	2,254
1933 . .	209	36,636	289,409	—	—	—	10	2,827	14,530
1934 . .	216†	38,347†	239,347†	—	—	—	92	6,775	40,523

APPENDIX

Table showing the Population of the Different Countries of the World

This table gives estimates of the population of the principal countries of the world (given in the alphabetical order of their French titles, with the corresponding English titles) drawn from the last issue of the League of Nations *International Statistical Year-Book* (1933-34). Certain smaller States have been omitted, but the list includes all the States which on 31 December 1934 were Members of the International Labour Organisation. No figures are given for colonies, mandated territories, etc., except in a few cases, for which social statistics are available (e.g. Palestine, Netherlands Indies, etc.).

Pays	Estimated population	Country
Afghanistan	7,000,000	Afghanistan
Albanie	1,050,000	Albania
Allemagne (y compris la Sarre)	65,873,000	Germany (including Saar)
Argentine	11,857,000	Argentina
Australie	6,605,000	Australia
Autriche	6,740,000	Austria
Belgique	8,213,000	Belgium
Bolivie [1]	3,000,000	Bolivia [1]
Brésil	44,002,000	Brazil
Bulgarie	5,950,000	Bulgaria
Canada	10,590,000	Canada
Chili	4,402,000	Chile
Chine [1]	450,000,000	China [1]
Colombie	8,828,000	Colombia
Costa Rica	540,000	Costa Rica
Cuba	4,000,000	Cuba
Danemark	3,610,000	Denmark
Dantzig	410,000	Danzig
République Dominicaine	1,275,000	Dominican Republic
Egypte	15,070,000	Egypt
Equateur [1]	2,000,000	Ecuador [1]
Espagne	24,012,000	Spain
Estonie	1,124,000	Estonia
Etats-Unis d'Amérique	125,200,000	United States of America
Ethiopie [1]	5,500,000	Ethiopia [1]
Finlande	3,516,000	Finland
France	41,860,000	France
Grande-Bretagne et Irlande du Nord	46,440,000	Great Britain and Northern Ireland
Grèce	6,548,000	Greece
Guatemala	2,213,000	Guatemala

[1] Provisional or approximate figures.

Pays	Estimated population	Country
Haïti [1]	2,600,000	Haiti [1]
Honduras	900,000	Honduras
Hongrie	8,784,000	Hungary
Inde	359,400,000	India
Indes Néerlandaises	62,560,000	Netherlands Indies
Irak [1]	3,300,000	Iraq [1]
Iran [1]	9,000,000	Iran [1]
Irlande (Etat libre d')	2,983,000	Irish Free State
Italie	41,814,000	Italy
Japon	66,500,000	Japan
Lettonie	1,931,000	Latvia
Libéria [1]	2,500,000	Liberia [1]
Lithuanie	2,422,000	Lithuania
Luxembourg	301,000	Luxemburg
Mexique (Etats-Unis du)	17,320,000	Mexico, United States of
Nicaragua [1]	800,000	Nicaragua [1]
Norvège	2,845,000	Norway
Nouvelle-Zélande	1,534,000	New Zealand
Palestine	1,080,000	Palestine
Panama	475,000	Panama
Paraguay	890,000	Paraguay
Pays-Bas	8,183,000	Netherlands
Pérou [1]	6,600,000	Peru [1]
Pologne	32,638,000	Poland
Portugal [1]	7,000,000	Portugal [1]
Roumanie	18,540,000	Rumania
Salvador	1,522,000	Salvador
Siam	12,355,000	Siam
Suède	6,190,000	Sweden
Suisse	4,115,000	Switzerland
Tchécoslovaquie	14,925,000	Czechoslovakia
Turquie	14,920,000	Turkey
Union des Républiques soviétiques socialistes	165,700,000	Union of Soviet Socialist Republics
Union Sud-Africaine	8,310,000	Union of South Africa
Uruguay	1,975,000	Uruguay
Venezuela	3,260,000	Venezuela
Yougoslavie	14,296,000	Yugoslavia

Estimated population of the World: 2,041,000,000

[1] Provisional or approximate figures.

NOTES
on Sources and Methods of the Different Statistics given in the Volume

I. — UNEMPLOYMENT AND EMPLOYMENT

TABLES I TO IV

Unemployment and Employment: General Level and by Industrial Groups

Germany: *Reichsarbeitsblatt* (Reichsarbeitsministerium); *Arbeit und Arbeitslosigkeit* (Anzeiger der Reichsanstalt für Arbeitsvermittlung und Arbeitslosenversicherung); *Wochenbericht des Instituts für Konjunkturforschung* (Institut für Konjunkturforschung).

I. *Unemployment.*

A. *Returns of the German Labour Front.* These statistics were introduced in August 1933 and are based on returns from the federal trade associations *(Reichsbetriebsgruppen)* constituting the Labour Front; their scope has gradually been extended to cover workers in practically all industries and occupations, including agriculture, mining, building, and communications. The series at present covers more than 7 million workers. In order to assure comparability between the old trade union returns and the new series, the latter are as far as possible compiled according to the same methods as the former. It is pointed out, however, that because of the enlarged scope of the new statistics they are not strictly comparable with the earlier figures, and also that the comparability between the figures for different months in the new series is affected by the same circumstance. The figures relate to the end of each month.

B. *Employment exchange statistics.* Two series are given:

(1) *Unemployed.* This series refers to the total number of unemployed persons registered with private and public employment exchanges. It covers workers in all occupations, whether in receipt of benefit from unemployment insurance or public funds or not, but since July 1933 persons employed in the public " labour service " *(Arbeitsdienst)* are excluded. The same person may be registered at more than one exchange and the figures include a certain amount of duplication. The figures relate to the end of each month.

Since 1931 percentages of unemployment are calculated on the basis of the estimated number of persons covered by the statistics; these persons consist of the following groups:

(*a*) Number of persons insured against sickness *(Krankenversicherungspflichtige).*

(*b*) Persons excluded from sickness insurance, but compulsorily insured against unemployment (mainly salaried employees earning more than 3,600 RM. but not more than 7,200 RM. per year). This group includes a small number of persons who are employed abroad *(im Ausland (Grenzbezirk) Beschäftigte).*

(*c*) Persons in receipt of welfare relief *(Wohlfahrtserwerbslose)* and unemployed not in receipt of benefit or relief *(sonstige Arbeitslose)*.

(2) *Applicants for work.* This series gives the total number of persons registered with public and private employment exchanges and includes also persons employed in the public " labour service ". The figures relate to the end of each month.

II. *Employment.*

A. *Sickness insurance statistics.* The statistics are based mainly on the returns of employed members of the compulsory sickness insurance funds, which cover practically the whole of the working population. The yearly averages are based on monthly figures from January to November and on the half of the December figure of the current and of the preceding year.

B. *Employers' returns.* The statistics are based on returns from a great number of establishments (about 6,000) in manufacturing industries and building. Two series of data are reproduced here:

(*a*) The average number of workers employed during each month expressed as a percentage of the number of workers who could be employed if the factory was working at full capacity *(Arbeiterplatzkapazität)*.

(*b*) The actual number of hours worked during each month expressed as a percentage of the number of hours which could be worked during normal hours on the assumption that all the available places are filled *(Arbeiterstundenkapazität)*.

Australia: *Quarterly Summary of Australian Statistics* and *Labour Report* (Commonwealth Bureau of Census and Statistics).

I. *Unemployment.*

Trade union returns. This series covers workers in industry, mining, building, and transport, but excludes workers in permanent employment (such as railwaymen) and casual workers (such as dockers); it includes unions which do not pay unemployment benefit. Persons out of work owing to sickness or accidents (but not to labour disputes) are counted as unemployed. The figures relate to workers who were unemployed for three days or more during the week ending Saturday which includes the middle day of the second month of the quarter. The unemployed are subdivided yearly into the following groups: those out of work owing to lack of work, to sickness and accidents, or to other causes.

Austria: *Statistische Nachrichten* (Bundesamt für Statistik).

I. *Unemployment.*

A. *Compulsory unemployment insurance statistics.* Compulsory insurance covers practically all industrial workers (with the exception of those employed in districts expressly classified as rural); it excludes agricultural, forestry, and domestic workers. The unemployment figures, however, refer to persons in receipt of ordinary and extended benefit, or occupied on public relief works, and include a small number of agricultural and domestic workers; persons who have not completed their " waiting period " are excluded. The base figure on which the percentages are calculated is obtained by adding to the number of persons insured against unemployment the number of applicants for work registered.

B. *Employment exchange statistics.* These statistics, which are compiled in connection with the operations of the public employment exchanges and the compulsory unemployment insurance system, cover workers in all trades and occupations; they give the number of applicants for work registered at the end of each month.

II. *Employment.*

This series is based on the sickness insurance scheme and covers employed workers and salaried employees in industry, handicrafts, and commerce, but does not include agricultural workers.

Belgium: *Revue du Travail* (Ministère de l'Industrie, du Travail et de la Prévoyance Sociale).

I. *Unemployment.*

Voluntary unemployment insurance statistics. The voluntary unemployment insurance funds cover workers above 15 years of age engaged in mining, industry, building, transport, etc., but exclude those in agriculture and fishing; persons below 18 years of age, however, receive benefit only if they have been working for an employer during at least six months, and insured persons above 65 years of age only if they have been working for 150 days during the last twelve months. Separate figures are given for wholly and partially (" intermittently ") unemployed. As wholly unemployed are considered workers who are without work because of the definite ending of their contract of employment (whether oral or written) with the employer. As partially unemployed are considered workers who are temporarily working less than " normal " working days per week or month. Persons in their " waiting period ", or having exhausted their right to benefit, or receiving relief from the emergency relief funds *(fonds de crise)*, are considered as unemployed. The figures relate to the end of each month.

II. *Employment.*

Voluntary unemployment insurance statistics. These figures are based on the voluntary unemployment insurance statistics (see above) and are obtained in the following manner: the Belgian authorities calculate a " percentage of days lost by unemployment out of the total number of working days which could be worked by the insured workers if there had been no unemployment ". The International Labour Office subtracts these figures from 100 and converts the resulting figures into index numbers with the twelve-month average for 1929 as base (= 100).

Bulgaria: I. Communication to the International Labour Office (Central Statistical Office). II. *Bulletin mensuel de statistique* (Central Statistical Office).

I. *Unemployment.*

Official estimates. These statistics are compiled by the Central Statistical Office on the basis of figures furnished by the Labour and Social Insurance Council; they indicate the approximate number unemployed at the beginning of each month. The estimates are based on the number unemployed at the beginning of 1931 and on the movement of employment each month in some of the most important industrial establishments and other undertakings.

II. *Employment.*

Employers' returns. These statistics, based on information supplied by employers, relate to skilled and unskilled workers employed in factories employing (*a*) machinery of at least 5 h.p., and not less than 5 workers; or (*b*) at least 10 h.p. and less than 5 workers; or (*c*) no mechanical power, but more than 20 workers. The figures relate to the first of each month. The original base is the average number employed in 1929.

Canada: *Labour Gazette* (Department of Labour).

I. *Unemployment.*

A. *Trade union returns.* The trade unions reporting include workers in industry, mining, forestry, fishing, transport, shipping, and public services. Persons who are engaged in work outside their own trades or who are idle owing to illness are not considered as unemployed; unions involved in industrial disputes are excluded from the statistics. The figures relate to the end of each month.

B. *Employment exchange statistics.* These statistics cover workers in all trades and occupations; they give the number of applicants for work registered at the end of each month at the public employment exchanges.

II. *Employment.*

Employers' returns. The Dominion Bureau of Statistics receives reports as to the number of workers employed from most of the larger employers of labour throughout Canada, in all industries except agriculture, fishing, mining, and highly specialised business, the returns being from firms employing 15 workers or more. The figures relate to the first of each month. The original base is the average number employed in 1926.

Chile: *Estadística Chilena* (Central Statistical Office).

I. *Unemployment.*

Employment exchange statistics. These statistics cover workers and salaried employees in all trades and occupations in the whole country; they give the number of applicants for work registered at the end of each month at the public employment exchanges.

Denmark: *Statistiske Efterretninger* (Statistical Department); Social Tidskrift (Ministry of Social Affairs).

I. *Unemployment.*

A. *Trade union fund returns.* The statistics cover trade unions paying unemployment benefit and include workers in agriculture, industry, commerce, transport, and the building trade. The figures include persons in their " waiting period " and on ordinary and extended benefit, but exclude persons out of work owing to strikes and lock-outs; they relate to the end of each month.

B. *Employment exchange statistics.* The series refers to workers in all trades and occupations, and gives the number of applicants for work registered at the public employment exchanges at the end of each month.

II. *Employment.*

Employers' returns of hours worked. This series covers all kinds of industrial activity with the exception of earth and stone working, dairies, gas and electricity works, and a part of furniture manufacture and of building. The data are based on returns from about 400 employers, who in 1934 employed 61 per cent. of the workers in these industries (and 56 per cent. if small employers are also included). The figures for each branch are increased in proportion to the total figures of employment, allowance being made for the small non-reporting establishments. The figures represent the total number of hours worked per working day on an average during the month. In addition index numbers calculated by the Office on the basis of 1931 (= 100) are given.

Danzig (Territory of the Free City of): *Staatsanzeiger für die freie Stadt Danzig.*

I. *Unemployment.*

Employment exchange statistics. The figures refer to the number of unemployed registered by the employment exchanges in the City and in the region of the Free City, and relate to the end of each month.

Spain: *Boletín Informativo de la Oficina Central de Colocación obrera y Defensa contra el paro* (Ministerio de Trabajo y Previsión Social).

I. *Unemployment.*

Employment exchange statistics. The statistics are based on reports from the local employment exchanges, and, where such data are not available, on trade union returns; they cover workers in agriculture, mining, industry (including building), transport, commerce, banking, etc. Small proprietors and tenants, who are in need of additional employment during at least 100 days of the year, are covered by the statistics. Persons out of work owing to industrial disputes are excluded. Separate figures are given for wholly and partially unemployed. As wholly unemployed are considered persons who are out of work during the whole week; and as partially unemployed, persons who have had work for less than six days of the week or are working on a reduced daily schedule. The figures relate to the end of each month.

Estonia: *Recueil mensuel* (Central Office of Statistics).

I. *Unemployment.*

Employment exchange statistics. The figures, which cover all categories of workers, refer to the total number of unemployed persons registered by the public employment exchanges at the beginning of each month. The figures from 20 July 1934 onwards are not strictly comparable with those for the previous period owing to changes in the principles of registration at the employment exchanges.

II. *Employment.*

Employers' returns. The index numbers of employment are based on the reports of a large number of establishments employing more than five workers. The original base is the number employed on 1 January 1927.

United States of America: I. *American Federationist* (American Federation of Labor). II. Monthly Labor Review (Department of Labor); *Federal Reserve Bulletin* (Federal Reserve Board).

I. *Unemployment.*

A. *Trade union returns.* The American Federation of Labor compiles monthly information on the number of unemployed members in certain affiliated unions; the statistics cover organised trades, including factory workers, teachers, and building trade workers; they cover over 620,000 workers. The methods by which the unemployment of the workers is recorded are fixed by the local unions and vary for different unions. The " weighted " percentage of unemployment is calculated for identical unions in the current and the preceding month by allowing for the importance of the building trade; thus two figures are calculated for each month and the final figure for the month is the simple arithmetic average of the two.

B. *Estimate of the American Federation of Labor.* The estimate covers all workers including farmers, farm labourers, management, professional workers, public service, and all branches of industrial activity: mining, manufacture, building, transport, etc. The starting point in the calculation is the official census of unemployment in April 1930; to the number of unemployed at that date (3,180,000) is added the supposed number of new unemployed from month to month. This number, in turn, is obtained by deducting from the number employed in the various branches in 1930 the number employed at later dates and adding the supposed increase in the number of workers seeking employment on the labour market.

The changes in the number employed are obtained by the following methods:

(*a*) For the most important groups (covering about 75 per cent. of all gainfully occupied in 1930) the number employed in 1930 is carried up to date by means of index numbers of employment. Monthly indexes are furnished by the Department of Labor for manufacturing, mining, trade, public utilities, service industries, and building; monthly indexes are further available for: railroads, farm labour, Federal employees, army, navy, construction, etc. Yearly figures are used for certain groups: farmers and family workers on farms, teachers, professional workers, etc. The yearly change is here spread over the twelve-month period; and during the period before the yearly figure is available employment is carried as constant except where available information shows that a small monthly change is more accurate.

(*b*) A further group (covering about 17 per cent. of all gainfully occupied in 1930) and including domestic servants, automobile service, restaurants, banking, real estate, insurance, etc., is, in the absence of employment data, supposed to vary in the same proportion as the above group. An index is made for total known employment and applied to this group; in this index, however, farm labour is left out and retail trade adjusted for extra employment at Christmas.

(*c*) One group, management (covering about 8 per cent. of all gainfully occupied in 1930), is carried as constant.

The increase in the number of persons seeking gainful employment is calculated with reference to:

(*a*) The monthly reports of the Department of Labor showing the number of workers entering and leaving the country.

(*b*) Records of births and deaths; births of 16 years ago minus deaths up to the current year give those coming of working age; 40 per cent. of this figure is supposed to represent the normal percentage of the population seeking gainful employment.

Some groups are left out in the above estimate because of lack of data. Of these the following are counted as unemployed: (1) persons who have gone to the country to occupy deserted " shacks " and raise their own food; (2) persons working on farms for their board but who are not paid cash wages; (3) persons in forestry camps and relief works; (4) persons on odd temporary or " intermittent " jobs. Considered as employed are: (1) teachers who are teaching in school, but not being paid; (2) persons living with relatives on farms; (3) *rentiers* who are now forced to seek work.

II. *Employment.*

Employers' returns. The series given are compiled by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. Available details of the methods used in their compilation are given below.

(a) *Non-adjusted series.* The series are based on returns from establishments in 90 manufacturing industries employing approximately 50 per cent. of all factory wage earners in the country. The indexes, up to 1932, are adjusted by means of the figures as given by the biennial census of manufactures. Two separates series of indexes are reproduced here: (*i*) indexes of number of workers employed at the end of each month, and (*ii*) indexes of payrolls. The original base is the period 1923-1925.

(b) *Seasonally adjusted series.* The Federal Reserve Board adjusts the above series for seasonal variation by the ratio-to-moving-average method; adjusted indexes are first calculated for each industry and the index for manufacturing as a whole is obtained by a combination of these adjusted series by weighting the number of wage earners employed in the industry as shown by census reports.

(c) *Estimates of total number of wage earners and weekly payrolls.* These series give estimates of (*i*) the total number of wage earners at the end of each month and (*ii*) total weekly payrolls in manufacturing industries (excluding the manufactured gas and motion picture industries). These estimates are obtained by multiplying the weighting factor of the several groups of industries (number employed or weekly payroll in the base period of the index numbers, 1923-1925) by the index numbers of employment and payroll of the Bureau of Labor Statistics and dividing the product by 100.

Finland: *Social Tidskrift—Socialinen Aikakauskirja* (Ministry of Social Affairs).

I. *Unemployment.*

A. *Employment exchange statistics.* The figures show the number of unemployed registered at the employment exchanges at the end of the last week of each month. The majority of agricultural labourers and skilled industrial workers do not register at the public employment exchanges.

B. *Statistics of local unemployment commissions.* These statistics are based on the registers of the local unemployment commissions instituted in communes suffering from unemployment. They cover workers in all trades and occupations, including farmers and members of their families, who even during normal times are out of work four to six months of the year. As unemployed are considered persons willing and able to work who are in need of assistance and who are " involuntarily " unemployed. Persons employed on public relief works are included in the returns; some minor categories of unemployed persons are excluded. The figures are subject to variation as a result of changes in the rules and regulations for the granting of relief.

II. *Employment.*

Employment returns. These statistics are based on the returns from a large number of industrial establishments employing more than 10 workers. Two series are reproduced here: (*a*) indexes showing the number of workers

employed at a given date in each quarter; (*b*) indexes showing the total number of hours worked during the month. In each case the original base is the average for 1926.

France: *Bulletin du Marché du Travail* (Ministère du Travail et de la Prévoyance sociale, Office central de la Main-d'œuvre); *Bulletin de la Statistique générale de la France et du Service d'observation des prix* (Présidence du Conseil, Sous-Secrétariat d'Etat de l'Economie nationale).

I. *Unemployment.*

A. *Public Relief Fund Statistics.* Before 1932 these statistics relate to wholly unemployed in receipt of relief from departmental, communal, and inter-communal unemployment relief funds subsidised by the State. Since 1932 persons in receipt of relief from public charitable offices are also included. Admitted to relief are workers involuntarily unemployed, i.e. workers who have completely ended their relation with their former employer and are capable of working and prepared to accept new employment. Moreover, in order to be eligible for relief the workers should have been in regular employment during at least six months immediately before being unemployed and should have resided in the municipality in question prior to 1930 during at least six months, and after this date during at least three months. A "waiting period" of at least three days is also prescribed before the payment of relief. The payment was originally limited to 120 days per year but in 1931 it was extended first to 150 and then to 180 days per year. Since 1932 these limitations have been provisionally abandoned. Prior to 1932 extended benefit was, in certain circumstances, granted by the public charitable offices, but since the abandonment of the time limit for the payment of relief by the relief funds the public charitable offices are but little called in this respect. The funds, however, cover a part of the country only and their number varies with time and circumstances. The statistics relate to the week ending nearest to the end of each month.

B. *Employment exchange statistics.* The statistics relate to the applications for work registered by the public employment exchanges at the end of the week ending nearest to the end of each month. They cover all categories of workers, but although employment offices according to law should be created in all departments and all towns with more than 10,000 inhabitants, in normal times the majority of unemployed workers do not register with the exchanges; owing to the fact that the payment of unemployment relief is subject to such registration, however, in times of economic crises the registration is more complete.

II. *Employment.*

Returns of labour inspectors and mining engineers. These statistics are based on enquiries into the number of workers employed by establishments under the supervision of labour inspectors and mining engineers (thus including industry, mining, transport, commerce, etc.) and employing at least 100 workers; in branches, however, where establishments of this size are few or non-existent, the enquiry is extended to include establishments that are considered representative of their branch.

Two series are given showing: (*a*) the absolute number of workers employed in the establishments covered and (*b*) index numbers taking the number of workers employed in the same establishments in the same month of the year 1930 as base (= 100). As the number of establishments covered by the enquiry is slightly changing from month to month, the indexes for each month are first based on the number of workers employed in the same establishments in the same month of the preceding year; this index is then linked up with that of the corresponding month of the year 1930 = 100. The figures relate to the first of each month.

Great Britain and Northern Ireland: *Ministry of Labour Gazette* (Ministry of Labour).

I. *Unemployment.*

A. *Compulsory unemployment insurance statistics.* Compulsory insurance against unemployment covered until September 1934 substantially all employed persons between 16 and under 65 years of age (including non-manual workers whose salaries do not exceed £250 a year), except those employed in agriculture and private domestic service, and out-workers. Since that date the age limit has been lowered to 14 years; the category under 16 years of age is not yet included in these statistics. Persons employed permanently by local public authorities, railways, and public utility undertakings and certain minor groups of other workers are also generally excluded. From the numbers unemployed (calculated on the basis of unemployment books " lodged " with the public employment exchanges) are excluded those who are known to be working in an uninsured trade, the sick or deceased, and those known to have emigrated or gone abroad. In cases where information on these points is lacking the books remain in the " lodged " files, and are included in the unemployment statistics, for a period of two months from the date the insured person was last in touch with the Employment Exchange. Insured persons directly involved in a trade dispute are not counted as unemployed unless they are definitely maintaining registration for other employment.

Separate figures are given for those " wholly unemployed " (defined as persons " being definitely out of a job and waiting for new employment " and including " casuals ", i.e. workers not in regular or continuous employment but engaged in separate jobs of short duration which have no connection one with another), and those out of work owing to " temporary stoppages ". The latter group consists of those who are on short time or otherwise stood off or suspended on the definite understanding that they may return to their former employment within a period of six weeks from the date of suspension. The figures of unemployment relate to dates towards the end of each month; the number of insured persons is calculated each July in connection with the annual issue of new unemployment books.

B. *Employment exchange statistics.* This series covers insured and uninsured industries and gives applicants for work registered, *in Great Britain only*, at the Ministry of Labour Employment Exchanges and Branch Employment Offices, and also at Juvenile Employment Bureaux under the control of Local Education Authorities. It includes wholly unemployed, temporarily stopped, and also persons normally in casual employment. The figures relate to the end of each month.

II. *Employment.*

Compulsory unemployment insurance statistics. These indexes—which refer to *Great Britain only*—are based on the number of insured persons not recorded as unemployed, with a deduction of 3½ per cent. to represent those absent from work owing to sickness, accident, and other forms of unrecorded non-employment other than " recognised " holdays. Two series are published: one including persons directly involved in trade disputes, the other excluding such persons; the former series is given here, together with the figure for the absolute number on which the indexes are computed. The original base is the average number employed in 1924.

Hungary: I. *Magyar Statisztikai Szemle* (Central Office of Statistics). II: Communication from the Central Statistical Office.

I. *Unemployment.*

Employment exchange statistics. The statistics, which cover all categories of workers, give the number of applications for work registered with the public and private employment exchanges at the end of each month.

II. *Employment.*

Social insurance statistics. The statistics are based on data from the compulsory and voluntary social insurance system, which covers persons working for wages (workers and employees) in establishments in mining,

industry, commerce, finance, and transport, excluding public employees, agriculture, and domestic service. Information as to the fluctuations in the number of insured persons working is obtained by means of regular returns from the employers. The data relate to the end of each month; the original base is the number of persons employed at the end of 1927.

Netherlands East Indies: *Conjunctuurlijnen* (Report of the Secretary of the Small Commission on Welfare).

I. *Unemployment.*

Employment exchange statistics. The figures refer to the number of applicants for work registered by the public employment exchanges in some of the more important towns at the last day of each month, and cover Europeans, Natives, and Chinese.

Irish Free State: Communication from the Statistics Branch, Department of Industry and Commerce; *Quarterly Statistical Bulletin* (Currency Commission, Dublin).

I. *Unemployment.*

Employment exchange statistics. The statistics refer to applicants for work registered. Before May 1932 the series referred to persons registered at the public employment exchanges (and their sub-offices, the branch employment offices). Since that date unemployed persons in rural districts more than three miles from the nearest local office register at the Post Offices and Public Stations as well. This reform resulted in a considerable increase in the number of persons registered, and the figures before and after this date are not strictly comparable with each other. In April 1934 a further extension in the statistical figures took place, as from then on they include also persons being partially occupied with small farms or other businesses who are nevertheless free to take such work for wages as may be available. Two series are given in the table: (*a*) the number of applicants for work registered having current claims to unemployment benefit, and referring only to those previously employed in an insurable trade; (*b*) the total number of applicants for work registered, including unemployed persons previously employed in insured or uninsured trades. The figures relate to the last Monday of each month.

Italy: *Bollettino Mensile di Statistica dell'Istituto Centrale di Statistica del Regno d'Italia* (Central Institute of Statistics).

I. *Unemployment.*

A. *Social insurance fund statistics.* Until July 1933 the statistics were compiled by the Fascist National Institute of Social Welfare *(Istituto Nazionale Fascista di Previdenza Sociale)* on the basis of data collected by its dependent institutions, employment exchanges, etc. Separate figures were given for wholly and partially employed. The former figure covered workers in most trades and occupations, and related, in addition to insured trades, to certain other categories of workers, mainly agricultural and salaried employees *(personale non operaio)*; domestic servants were not included. These statistics covered workers classified in eleven categories.

B. *Employment exchange statistics.* Since July 1933 the statistics of unemployment have been transferred to the Ministry of Corporations; certain changes have been introduced in the methods of compiling and classifying these statistics, and the results are not strictly comparable with previous figures. The statistics are now based on returns from employment exchanges and co-ordinated by the offices of the Municipal Councils of Corporative Economy *(Consigli Provinciali dell' Economia Corporativa)*. In Italy unemployed persons are obliged to register with the employment exchanges, and the statistics cover substantially all trades (excluding domestic servants and most salaried employees). The classification of the various productive activities has been enlarged to cover 14 categories of workers. The figures relate to the end of the month.

II. *Employment.*

Employers' returns. Two different series of employment statistics are given:

A. *Ministry of Corporations.* These statistics are based on returns from about 6,500 industrial establishments covering about 42 per cent. of industrial workers. The figures relate to the last week of each month. The original base is the average number of persons employed in the first week of September 1926.

B. *General Fascist Confederation of Industries.* Two series of indexes are reproduced: (1) showing the fluctuations of the total number of workers employed; and (2) showing the fluctuations of the total number of hours of work in industrial establishments. The data used for the establishment of these series are: (*a*) returns showing the number of workers who are members of trade unions of organised establishments (including all industrial establishments); (*b*) returns obtained by a representative enquiry covering about 20 per cent. of the establishments, employing however about 50 per cent. of the workers.

The series B (1) of the number of workers employed is obtained by applying a " coefficient of employment " to the total number of organised workers. This coefficient is based on the proportion between the number of workers actually employed in the establishments covered by the representative enquiry and the total number of organised workers in these establishments. The series B (2) of the total numbers of hours of work is obtained by multiplying the number of workers employed, B (1), by the average number of hours worked by each worker during the month, as shown by the representative enquiry.

Japan: *Bulletin of Employment Exchanges—Shokugyo Shokai Koho* (Department of Home Affairs, Central Board of Employment Exchanges); *Statistics of Factory Labour* (Bank of Japan).

I. *Unemployment.*

Official estimates. The figures are based on monthly estimates by the governors of prefectures (on the basis of reports from employment exchanges, social workers, municipal authorities, etc.). They cover a majority of industrial workers (including casual workers) and wage earners. Students, salaried workers (with an income of more than 200 yen per month), foreigners, persons working on their own account, and agricultural workers are excluded. As unemployed are understood persons who are unable to obtain work in spite of efforts to do so; casual workers are counted only if they have been out of work for at least a fourth of the month previous to the estimate; persons incapacitated by age, sickness, or accident, or out of work owing to drunkenness, negligence, or labour disputes are also excluded. The total number of workers on which the percentage is based is an estimate and covers the same categories of workers as the estimated number unemployed. The figures relate to the first of each month.

II. *Employment.*

Employers' returns. The indexes are based on returns of employment in industry. The original base is the average number employed in 1926.

Latvia: *Menešа Biletens* (Bureau of Statistics).

I. *Unemployment.*

Employment exchange statistics. The statistics refer to the number of applicants for work registered by the public employment exchanges at the end of each month, excluding persons occupied on public works.

II. *Employment.*

Sickness insurance statistics. The statistics are based on the returns of employed members of the sickness insurance funds; these cover all wage earners, with the exception generally of State and agricultural workers. The figures are for the end of each month. The original base is the number of insured persons employed in 1930.

Luxemburg: *Bulletin Trimestriel* (Statistical Office).

II. *Employment.*

Employers' returns. The statistics cover all establishments in mining, industry, and transportation; the data are compiled by the local police, who visit all establishments once a month. A distinction is made between nationals and aliens. The total number of workers is given here, together with index numbers calculated by the International Labour Office with 1929 as base (= 100). The figures relate to the end of each month.

Mexico: *Revista de Economía y Estadística* (Secretaria de la Economía Nacional).

I. *Unemployment.*

Official estimates. The statistics are based on estimates of the municipal authorities and cover workers and employees in agriculture and fishing, mining, industry (including building), transport, commerce, etc.; they relate to the whole territory with the exception of the Federal District and the Isles.

Norway: *Statistiske Meddelelser* (Central Statistical Office).

I. *Unemployment.*

A. *Trade union fund returns.* These statistics cover ten representative unions in industry and the building trades which pay unemployment benefit to their members. The figures relate to the end of each month.

B. *Employment exchange statistics.* These statistics show the number of unemployed in all trades registered by the public employment exchanges on the 15th day of each month; persons employed on public relief works are included.

New Zealand: *Monthly Abstract of Statistics* (Census and Statistics Office).

I. *Unemployment.*

Employment exchange statistics. The series refers to applicants for work in the trades registered at the public employment exchanges. Since January 1931 these statistics include persons employed on the Unemployment Board's Scheme 5. Most of these are in partial employment only, but a small number are included although in full-time employment, part of their wages being paid under Scheme 5. Persons employed on relief works by the Public Works Department are also included. The number employed on public relief works is shown separately. The figures relate to the last week of each month.

Palestine: Communication to the International Labour Office.

I. *Unemployment.*

Official estimates. The statistics refer to the total number unemployed; they are based on estimates furnished to the Government by the village headmen, district officers, and immigration officials in Jerusalem, Haifa, Jaffa, and Tel-Aviv. As unemployed are considered those who have not more than three days' work a week. Separate figures are available for Arabs and non-Arabs. Fellahin working on their farms eight months of the year but seeking employment at other times are included when they are in need employment. The figures relate to the end of each month. In view of the reorganisation of these statistics the series is temporarily interrupted.

Netherlands: *Maandschrift van het Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek* (Central Bureau of Statistics).

I. *Unemployment.*

A. *Voluntary unemployment insurance statistics.* These statistics cover workers in agriculture, fishing, mining, industry, building, transport, etc.; they are based mainly on returns from the voluntary unemployment funds

(which are almost wholly composed of organised labourers), but include also a small number of workers who, although belonging to unions having such funds, are excluded from benefit on account of age, and workers who belong to unions having no unemployment funds.

Persons working part time, or who have not completed their " waiting period " or have exhausted their right to benefit in the insurance fund, are counted as unemployed; persons out of work owing to trade disputes, sickness, accidents, military service, etc., are excluded. The figures are weekly averages calculated for each month.

B. *Employment exchange statistics.* The figures show the number of unemployed in all trades registered by the public employment exchanges and their branch offices. As unemployed are considered persons who at the moment of registration (or renewal of registration) have been out of work for a whole week, and also persons occupied on public relief works; persons partially unemployed are not considered as unemployed. The figures relate to the end of each month.

II. *Employment.*

Voluntary unemployment insurance statistics. These figures, which are based on the unemployment insurance statistics (see above), are obtained in the following manner. The Dutch authorities calculate an " index of unemployment " representing the number of days lost by unemployment as a percentage of the number of days which could have been worked if there had been no unemployment. The " normal " working week is generally assumed to consist of six working days or 48 hours, but in seasonal industries another number is sometimes accepted. " Short time " as well as " overtime " is taken into account but not time lost through industrial disputes. The monthly figures are averages of 4 or 5 weeks. The International Labour Office subtracts these figures from 100 and converts the resulting figures into index numbers with the twelve-month average for 1929 as base = 100.

Poland: *Konjunktura Gospodarcza* (Institute for Economic Research); *Statistique du Travail* and *Informations statistiques* (Central Office of Statistics).

I. *Unemployment.*

Employment exchange statistics. These series include workers in agriculture, mining, industry, transport, etc.; they relate to the number of applications for work registered by the public employment exchanges. The percentages are based on the number of members of the compulsory sickness insurance funds, which cover the majority of workers, including those in Upper Silesia. In the year 1927 the figures refer to the last week of each month; since 1928 they represent monthly averages.

II. *Employment.*

Employers' returns.

(a) *Number employed.* This series is based on reports of a large number of establishments in mining, industry, public works and services, etc., employing normally 20 workers or more; new plants are added as they attain this limit. The figures relate to the end of the month. The original base is the average number employed in 1928.

(b) *Hours worked.* These statistics are based on the above series but relate to manufacturing industries only, and weeks which include holidays (other than Sundays) are excluded; workers absent on account of sickness, etc., are excluded. Monthly averages of the total number of hours worked per week are given; the original base is the twelve-month average for 1929.

Portugal: *Boletim mensal du Direcçao Geral de Estadistica* (Central Office of Statistics).

I. *Unemployment.*

Employment exchange statistics. These statistics are compiled by the Institute of Compulsory Social Insurance and General Welfare; they relate to the number

of unemployed registered in Continental Portugal, and since March 1932 also in the islands of Angra de Heroismo, Horta, Santa Delgada, and Funchal.

Rumania: *Bulletin d'information et de documentation* (National Bank of Rumania).

Unemployment

Employment exchange statistics. These figures, which are compiled by the Ministry of Labour, refer to all categories of workers registered as unemployed at the public employment exchanges established in the main industrial centres. Trade unionists, however, are excluded as they do not register with the public employment exchanges. The figures relate to the first of each month.

Saar Territory: *Bericht des Statistischen Amtes des Saargebietes* (Statistisches Amt des Saargebietes.)

I. *Unemployment.*

Employment exchange statistics. The figures include workers in mining, industry, building, commerce, transport, public utilities, etc., registered as unemployed at the public employment exchanges. They relate to the end of each month.

Sweden: I. *Sociala Meddelanden* (Social Board). II. *Industriförbundets Meddelanden* (Swedish Federation of Industries, Stockholm).

I. *Unemployment.*

A. *Trade union returns.* These figures include workers in mining, industry, building, and transport, and also, since 1929, workers in the union of forestry workers and timber floaters; they refer to unions which pay and which do not pay unemployment benefit. As unemployed are considered persons working for less than 24 working hours per week in their regular trade, and persons employed outside that trade who do not earn per week a sum corresponding to that paid for 24 hours' work in their own trade according to the collective agreement in force. Persons out of work owing to sickness, lock-outs, or military service are excluded. The figures relate to the end of each month.

B. *Employment exchange statistics.* The statistics cover workers in all trades and occupations; the series reproduced here is calculated by the International Labour Office by deducting the number of vacancies filled from the number of applications for work registered during the month, and thus relates to the number of applicants for work registered at the end of each month.

II. *Employment.*

Employers' returns.

(a) *Social Board.* This series is based on the returns from a large number of establishments in industry, transport, and commerce; it gives the number of employed persons each quarter as a percentage of the average number employed in the same establishments during the period 1926-1930.

(b) *Swedish Federation of Industries.* These statistics are based on returns from establishments (or industrial associations); they cover establishments of large and average size in mining and industry (excluding building). The figures for the various industrial groups are weighted according to the number of workers employed in them in 1930 as given by the official industrial statistics. The series is adjusted for seasonal variations by dividing the index for each month by the average for the years 1925-1930 for the same month. The base is the average for the period 1925-1930 (= 100).

Switzerland: *La Vie Economique* (Département fédéral de l'Economie publique).

A. *Voluntary and compulsory unemployment insurance statistics.* The unemployment funds cover workers in building, industry, commerce, etc. The figures, which are published by the Federal Labour Office, relate until

1929 to the end of each quarter and then to the end of each month. Separate figures are given for wholly and partially unemployed members of the funds. As partially unemployed are understood workers whose engagement is not definitely terminated. Persons out of work owing to sickness, accidents, etc., are not counted as unemployed: persons who have not completed the " waiting period " or have exhausted their right to benefit are included.

B. *Employment exchange statistics.* These statistics show the number of applications for work in all trades and occupations registered at the employment exchanges at the end of each month. The figures from July 1931 onwards are not strictly comparable with those for previous periods owing to changes in the principles of registration at the employment exchanges.

II. *Employment.*

Employers' returns. These statistics are compiled by the Federal Labour Office on the basis of returns from employers in manufacturing and building industries. They relate to the end of each quarter. The index numbers are established on the " chain system ". The original base is the average number employed in March 1925.

Czechoslovakia: I. *Zprávy Státního Úřadu Statistického Republiky Československé* (Central Statistical Office). II. *Věstník ústřední sociální pojišťovny* (Central Insurance Institute).

I. *Unemployment.*

A. *Trade union fund returns.* This series refers to the trade union unemployment funds in receipt of State subsidies under the laws of 1921 and 1933 and covers workers in agriculture, mining, industry, transport, commerce, domestic service, etc. The figures give the number of unemployed in receipt of trade union benefit with and without State subsidies, excluding unemployed who have not completed the " waiting period " (a period of 8 days prescribed for the receipt of State subsidies), or exhausted their right to benefit. Seasonal workers, persons out of work owing to sickness, accidents, or labour disputes, and persons who have lost their occupation through their own fault or left it without serious reason are not counted as unemployed. The percentages relate to the end of each month.

B. *Employment exchange statistics.* This series, which includes all categories of workers, gives the number of applicants for work registered by public, trade union, and private employment exchanges. The figures relate to the end of each month.

II. *Employment.*

Social insurance statistics. The returns of employed persons are obtained from the compulsory and voluntary sickness, insurance scheme, which covers all workers (including home workers) who perform work under a contract of employment, excluding miners, railway, State and municipal employees, casual workers. These statistics can, therefore, serve to measure fluctuations in employment. The figures refer to the average number of insured persons employed during each month. The original base is the average number of insured persons employed during 1928.

Union of South Africa: *Monthly Bulletin of Union Statistics* (Office of Census and Statistics).

II. *Employment.*

Employers' returns. This series refers to employment as reported by: (*a*) a selected number of firms in industry; (*b*) the South African Railways; (*c*) other transportation; and (*d*) mines and metallurgical works (exclusive of diamond diggings). In combining these figures, a double weight is given to (*a*). The index of total employment is subdivided into " Europeans " and " Others " (i.e. Natives). The series for Natives is not reproduced in the table. The original base is the number employed in July 1925.

Yugoslavia: *Radnička Zaštita* (Central Office for Workers' Insurance); *Quarterly Bulletin* (National Bank of the Kingdom of Yugoslavia, Economic Research Department).

I. *Unemployment.*

Employment exchange statistics. The statistics refer to all categories of workers registered as unemployed with the public employment exchanges at the end of each month. Persons out of work owing to sickness, accidents, or labour disputes are not considered as unemployed.

II. *Employment.*

Social insurance statistics. These series are based on compulsory sickness and accident insurance schemes; they cover all industrial workers in employment but exclude workers in railway service and in casual employment and the majority of workers in mining and agriculture. The original base is the year 1928.

II. — HOURS OF WORK

TABLES VI AND VII

GENERAL LEVEL OF ACTUAL HOURS OF WORK
and
ACTUAL HOURS OF WORK BY INDUSTRIAL GROUPS

Germany: (1) *Statistische Beilage zum Reichsarbeitsblatt* (Reichsarbeitsministerium; (2) *Wochenbericht* (Institut für Konjunkturforschung).

(1) *Returns of the German Labour Front.* These statistics are compiled by the German Labour Front in connection with its statistics of employment and unemployment and cover about 7 millions of workers in agriculture, manufacturing industry (including building), transport, hotels and restaurants, etc. Series are reproduced here showing the percentage of members working under 40 hours, 40 to under 48 hours, and 48 hours and more per week. It should be recalled that owing to changes in the membership the data are not always strictly comparable from month to month.

(2) *Employers' returns.* These statistics are compiled by the Federal Statistical Office in connection with its statistics of employment, and give the average number of hours of work per worker per day.

Austria: *Wirtschafts-Statistisches Jahrbuch* (Kammer für Arbeiter und Angestellte in Wien).

Employers' returns. These statistics are based on information from about 500 establishments, employing about 100,000 workers in mining and manufacturing industry and building, and give percentages of workers working 32 hours or less, over 32 to 36 hours, over 36 to 40 hours, over 40 to 44 hours, over 44 to under 48 hours, 48 hours, and over 48 hours per week; percentages of workers whose hours of work are unknown are also given. The International Labour Office has grouped these data in four principal groups. The figures relate to the first week of the month.

Estonia: *Eesti Statistika Kuukiri* (Central Office of Statistics).

Employers' returns. These statistics are compiled in connection with the statistics of wages and cover establishments in mining and industry (including building). The original statistics give two series, one relating to establishments employing 5-19 workers, the other to establishments with 20 or more workers. The International Labour Office calculates a general series relating to the whole of industry (table VI) by taking a weighted average of the two series, the weights used being the number of workers employed at each date in the two categories of establishments. Half-yearly figures only are available, which are averages of six-monthly figures.

United States: (1) *Monthly Labor Review* (Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics); (2) *Wages in the United States*, and *Conference Board Service Letter* (National Industrial Conference Board).

Employers' returns.

(1) *Series of the Bureau of Labor Statistics.* These statistics are compiled in connection with the statistics of employment and payrolls of the Bureau of Labor Statistics. The latter data cover 90 manufacturing industries and are based on information supplied by some 25,000 establishments employing about 3.5 million workers (in 1934). The data on hours have, however, a narrower scope as some establishments do not supply information on this question; average hours are presented only for those industries in which the information covers 20 per cent. or more of the total number of persons employed in the industry. The average for all the 90 manufacturing industries is obtained by weighting the average hours per worker in each industry by the total number of persons employed in the industry in the current month.

(2) *Series of the National Industrial Conference Board.* These statistics, compiled along with the wages and employment statistics of the Board, are based on reports supplied by some 1,400 establishments employing about 630,000 workers (in 1930). They relate to 25 branches of manufacturing industry. The average number of hours worked per week is obtained first for the various industries, by dividing the total hours worked during the week of the enquiry by the number of workers employed during the same week. The average number of hours worked for all industries is obtained by taking a weighted arithmetic average of the figures for the different industries, the weights being ascertained from the 1923 census of manufactures. The monthly data relate to the last week of the month.

France: *Bulletin du Marché du Travail* (Ministère du Travail et de la Prévoyance sociale, Office central de la Main-d'œuvre).

Returns of labour inspectors and mining engineers. These series, compiled in connection with the statistics of employment, cover some 8,600 establishments employing about 2.2 million workers (in March 1935) in manufacture, building, transport, commerce, banking, etc. They give percentages of workers working under 32 hours, 32 hours, over 32 to under 40 hours, 40 hours, over 40 to under 48 hours, and 48 hours and more per week. The International Labour Office has grouped these in three principal groups. The figures relate to the first of the following month.

Hungary: *Magyar Statisztikai Szemle* (Central Office of Statistics).

Employers' returns. These statistics, compiled in connection with the statistics of production and wages, are based on compulsory returns for all industrial establishments of a certain size employing together about 200,000 workers. They cover manufacturing industry and electric power stations and give the average number of hours of work per worker per day calculated for the whole year.

Italy: (1) and (2) *Bollettino Mensile di Statistica dell' Istituto centrale di Statistica del Regno d'Italia* (Central Institute of Statistics).

Employers' returns.

(1) *Ministry of Corporations.* These statistics, compiled in connection with the Ministry's statistics of employment, are based on returns supplied by some 6,500 establishments employing about 1 million workers (in 1934) in manufacturing industry. They show the percentage of workers working less than normal, normal, and more than normal hours. The length of the normal working week is considered to be 48 hours. The figures relate to the last week of each month.

(2) *Fascist General Confederation of Industry.* These statistics, compiled in connection with the Confederation's employment and wage statistics, are based on returns supplied by some 21,800 establishments employing about

1.1 million workers in industry (building included) and water and gas distribution. They show the number of hours of work per worker per month.

Japan: *Statistics of Factory Labour* (Bank of Japan).

Employers' returns. These statistics, compiled in connection with employment and wage statistics of the Bank of Japan, are based on returns supplied by some 4,000 establishments employing about 1 million workers (in 1934), in manufacturing industry. They show the average number of hours of work per worker per day during the month.

Latvia: *Menešа Biletens* (Bureau of Statistics).

Employers' returns. These statistics are based on returns of industrial establishments in Riga employing 20 workers and more, including industries, (building included), gas, water and electricity works, hygiene, etc. Percentages are given showing the percentage of workers actually working under 46 hours, 46 hours, and over 46 hours per week.

Poland: *Informations statistiques* (Central Office of Statistics).

Employers' returns. These statistics, compiled in connection with employment statistics, are based on reports supplied by some 3,900 establishments (of 20 workers or more), employing about 360,000 workers (in December 1934). They relate to manufacturing industries. They give the average number of hours of work per worker per week.

Sweden: *Sociala Meddelanden* (Board of Labour and Social Welfare).

Employers' returns. These statistics, compiled in connection with employment statistics, are based on returns supplied for one week in the month of November by some 1,800 establishments employing about 260,000 workers (in 1934). They relate mainly to manufactures, building and mining, and certain public services; and they show the average number of hours per worker per week.

Switzerland: *La vie économique* (Département fédéral de l'économie publique).

Statistics compiled in connection with the statistics of employment and industrial activity, based on reports supplied by some 2,300 undertakings employing about 200,000 workers. They relate to the principal branches of manufacturing industry (and also building). The data show the percentage of workers working under 36 hours, 36 to under 48 hours, 48 hours, and over 48 hours per week. The annual data have been calculated by the International Labour Office by taking the average of the figures for the second and third quarters (the only ones available for the two years considered).

III. — WAGES

TABLES IX AND X

INDEX NUMBERS OF THE GENERAL LEVEL OF WAGES (MONEY AND REAL)
and
MONEY WAGES BY INDUSTRIAL GROUPS OR OCCUPATIONS

General Note. — In most countries the series used by the International Labour Office for calculating the index numbers of money and real wages of table IX are the general averages of the statistics of wages by industrial or occupational groups given—together with other series—in table X. It is specified in the headings of the following notes whether they refer to both

tables or to one of the two only. As a rule, the index numbers of cost of living used for calculating the index numbers of real wages are those given in table XIII. For a few countries where more than one series of index numbers of cost of living is given in this table, the notes indicate which one has been used.

Germany

HOURLY RATES OF WAGES: Mines, industries, public services (IX and X): *Wirtschaft und Statistik* (Statistisches Reichsamt).

Statistics based on wage rates for adult time workers and basic time rates for adult piece workers as fixed by collective agreements; family allowances are included in cases where they are customary, on the basis of the average number of children per worker considered the most usual in each industry (from the results of the census of occupations for 1925 and other official information). The data refer to all towns, including those of average and small size. They cover the following 17 industrial groups (for women, only 11 groups): coal mines; lignite mines; metals; porcelain; building; wood; paper manufacture; paper goods; printing; textiles; clothing; boots and shoes; chemical products; food; breweries; railways; post office. The averages for each industrial group and the general averages are weighted by taking account both of the relative importance of the various methods of wage payment in the occupations considered and also of the relative importance of the various occupations. For the latter series of weights the number of workers actually in employment in the various occupations during the years 1928-1930 has been estimated by deducting from the total number of workers the percentage of unemployed given by the trade union statistics.

Australia

HOURLY AND WEEKLY RATES OF WAGES: Mines, industries, public services, commerce, various (IX and X): *Quarterly Summary of Australian Statistics, Labour Report* and *Official Year Book of the Commonwealth of Australia* (Commonwealth Bureau of Census and Statistics).

Statistics based primarily on arbitration awards or collective agreements; they are generally minimum rates for adult workers. Failing information of this kind, the ruling union or predominant rate of wages being paid is ascertained from employers and secretaries of trade unions. The data refer mainly to the metropolitan area of the capital city of each of the six States of the Commonwealth. They include wage rates in the following 12 industrial groups (for women, only 8 groups): mining; engineering and metal works; building; wood and furniture; books and printing; clothing and boots; food and drink; other manufacturing industries; rail and tram services; other land transport; domestic servants, hotels, etc.; miscellaneous (including commerce). The averages for each industrial group are unweighted arithmetic averages of the various occupations; the general averages are weighted by the number of workers in each group considered.

Austria

EARNINGS PER SHIFT: Mines (IX): *Mitteilungen über den österreichischen Bergbau* (Bundesministerium für Handel und Verkehr) and *Statistisches Handbuch* (Bundesamt für Statistik).

Statistics based upon an annual enquiry of the Mines Administration. They cover all mining districts of the country, and refer to all underground and surface workers employed in mines for the extraction of coal (hard coal and lignite), iron, and other minerals, and in salt works. The averages are obtained by dividing the total wages bill (taking into account all allowances and deductions) by the total number of shifts worked.

MINIMUM WEEKLY RATES OF WAGES: Industries, public services, commerce, various (X): *Statistische Nachrichten* (Bundesamt für Statistik).

Statistics based on conditions fixed in collective agreements concerning minimum rates for adult workers. For some of these occupations these rates may be considered as approximately equal to current rates of actual earnings;

details on this point have however only been obtained down to 1928. The data refer to Vienna only; they cover about 450 occupations, from which about 50 have been selected here. Neither general averages nor averages for industrial groups are calculated from these data.

Belgium

INDEX NUMBERS OF HOURLY EARNINGS: Mines, industries, public services, various (IX and X): *Bulletin d'information et de documentation* (Banque nationale de Belgique).

Index numbers based on the results of quarterly enquiries carried out in 160 large undertakings situated in most of the different parts of the country and covering the following 17 industrial groups: quarries, cement and marble works; metal working; pottery and brick works; glass works; building and construction; wood and furniture; paper; printing; textiles; leather and skins; chemicals; food; tobacco; transport; gas and electricity; arts; and precision instruments. The index numbers are first computed for each undertaking, and are based on the average wages actually paid (including the various cash bonuses and overtime allowances, but excluding social charges which have to be met by the undertaking) during two fortnightly pay periods, (*a*) to the whole of the workers (in some cases including foremen) and (*b*) to certain typical groups of skilled and of unskilled workers respectively. The index numbers for each industrial group are then obtained by taking the unweighted arithmetic average of the index numbers of the undertakings belonging to the group; the general index is an average of the index numbers for the different groups, weighted according to the number of the workers, as determined by the 1930 census of industry and commerce. The original index numbers are based on 1933 = 100.

CURRENT OR MINIMUM HOURLY RATES OF WAGES: Industries, public services, commerce, various (X): *Cote moyenne des salaires* (Bourse officielle du Travail de Bruxelles).

Statistics based on information collected by the Brussels Official Employment Exchange, and refering either to minimum wages fixed in collective agreements for adult workers, or, in their absence, to the wages currently offered by employers at the Employment Exchange or mentioned on unemployment certificates given to unemployed workers by the employers. The data refer to the Brussels district only; they cover more than 300 occupations, from which about 20 have been selected here. Neither general averages nor averages for industrial groups are calculated from these data.

Bulgaria

AVERAGE HOURLY WAGES: Industries (X): *Annuaire statistique du Royaume de Bulgarie* and Communication from the General Directorate of Statistics (General Directorate of Statistics).

Statistics based on information collected by the General Directorate of Statistics among undertakings having certain privileges under the Act for the encouragement of national industry, establishments under the control of the State, or stores for leaf tobacco manipulation. The data refer to the principal regions of the country and cover time workers of over 18 years of age, in various occupations of the following 9 industrial groups: coal mining; metals; wood (saw-milling); ceramic and cement; textiles and clothing; hide and skin; chemicals; food and drink; tobacco. The scope of these statistics has been enlarged from time to time. The wages paid per week or per month, including deductions for the occupational tax, and in some cases for the social insurance fund, are converted into hourly wages by dividing them first by 6 or 25, and then by the average daily number of hours worked during the month in the establishments covered. The averages for each industrial group and the general averages are weighted by the number of workers in each industry.

Canada

INDEX NUMBERS OF HOURLY RATES OF WAGES: Mines, certain industries, public services (IX and X): *Wages and Hours of Labour in Canada*, supplement to the *Labour Gazette* (Department of Labour).

Index numbers based on provisions of collective agreements and on reports received each year from a number of representative employers and trade unions, supplemented by reports from officers of the Department of Labour and local correspondents of the *Labour Gazette*. The data refer to 13 large towns, the chief mining centres, and the main railway systems; they relate almost exclusively to male occupations, and among these mainly to skilled occupations; they cover the following 6 industrial groups: coal mining; metal trades; building trades; printing trades; electric railways; steam railways. The index numbers for the different groups are obtained by taking the arithmetic average of the indexes of wages in some important occupations (the number of which has been gradually increased since the war); the general index number is an unweighted arithmetic average of the indexes for the separate groups. The original index numbers are based on 1913 = 100.

INDEX NUMBERS OF HOURLY RATES OF WAGES: Various industries (other than those of the preceding series) (IX): *Ibid.*

Index numbers based on information received from employers for a number of factories selected as representative, or taken from the available collective agreements. The data refer to the chief industrial centres of the country; they cover a large number of skilled and unskilled occupations in 31 industrial groups covering the following 7 branches of industry: metal; wood; paper; textiles; clothing; skin, leather and rubber; food and drink. The general index number is an unweighted arithmetic average. The original index numbers are based on 1913 = 100.

INDEX NUMBERS OF HOURLY RATES OF WAGES: Industries: labourers (unskilled) (IX and X): *Ibid.*

Index numbers based, as for the preceding series, on information received from employers or taken from collective agreements. The data refer to the chief industrial centres and relate exclusively to unskilled workers. The index number is an unweighted arithmetic average. The original index numbers are based on 1913 = 100.

INDEX NUMBERS OF HOURLY RATES OF WAGES: Wood (logging and sawmilling) (X): *Ibid.*

Index numbers based, as for the preceding series, on information received from employers or taken from collective agreements. The data cover logging in the principal districts in Eastern Canada and sawmilling in both large and small centres. Furthermore, in logging the data are for the season beginning in the autumn of the preceding year and ending in the spring of the year indicated. The index number is an unweighted arithmetic average. The original index numbers are based on 1913 = 100.

Denmark

HOURLY EARNINGS: Industries, public services, commerce, various (IX and X): *Statistiske Efterretninger* (Department of Statistics).

Statistics based on information supplied by the Danish Association of Employers and relating to time and piece workers. The data refer to the capital and to the provinces; they cover nearly 200 occupations in the following 16 industrial groups (for women, only 12 groups): metals; stone, pottery, and glass; building and construction; wood; paper; books, newspapers, and printing; textiles; clothing; leather and leather goods; chemical and allied industries; food and drink; tobacco; transport and commerce; electricity, gas, and water supply; public services; various. The scope of these statistics has been enlarged from time to time. For the various occupations quarterly averages are first calculated by dividing the total amount of wages paidduring the quarter by the number of man-hours worked during the same period; for some occupations in which piece work is almost the invariable rule the rates in force in the last week of the quarter have been taken. Annual averages are then calculated for each occupation, with some adjustment for occupations having considerable seasonal or temporary unemployment. The general averages are weighted by the numbers belonging to the various occupations, which are determined by means of the membership figures of the trade unions in 1924. The data in table X refer to Copenhagen only, and are a selection of about 35 industries or occupations among those covered y bthese statistics.

Estonia

HOURLY EARNINGS: Mines, industries, public services, various (IX and X): *Eesti Statistika Kuukiri* (Central Bureau of Statistics).

Statistics based on information supplied by employers in undertakings employing at least 20 workers and relating to payments for time and piece work, including allowances of all sorts and payments in kind. They refer to different parts of the country and cover the following 13 industrial groups: extractive industries; metals; transformation of minerals; wood; paper; printing; textiles; ready-made clothing and manufacture of haberdashery; skins and leather; chemical products; food and drink; electricity, gas, and water works; cleaning. The figures given for each industrial group are unweighted arithmetic averages.

United States

INDEX NUMBERS OF WEEKLY EARNINGS (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics Series): Mines (IX): *Monthly Labor Review* (United States Department of Labor).

Index numbers based on the payroll reports supplied (in December 1934) by 1,474 representative establishments in the bituminous coal-mining industry employing 254,058 workers. The index numbers have been computed by the International Labour Office, by dividing the index numbers of the total amount of payroll for a week nearest to the 15th of each month by the index numbers of the total number of workers (part-time as well as full-time) occupied during the same week. The original index numbers are based on 1929 = 100.

INDEX NUMBERS OF WEEKLY EARNINGS: Industries (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics Series) (IX): *Ibid.*

Index numbers based on the payroll reports supplied (in December 1934) by about 25,300 representative establishments employing about 3,600,000 workers, or more than 50 per cent. of all factory wage earners of the country; they cover 90 manufacturing industries grouped in the following 14 industrial groups: non-ferrous metals; iron and steel; machinery; transportation equipment; railroad repair shops; stone, clay, and glass; lumber; paper and printing; textiles; leather; rubber; chemicals; food and drink; tobacco. The index numbers have been computed by the International Labour Office by dividing the index number of the total amount of payroll for a week nearest to the 15th of each month by the index numbers of the total number of workers (part-time as well as full-time) occupied during the same week. The original index numbers are based on 1923-1925 = 100.

HOURLY EARNINGS: Industries (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics series) (X): *Ibid.*

Statistics based on data taken from the same sources as the index numbers in table IX (see above) and relating to the same industrial groups, the number of establishments and of workers covered being smaller. The averages for each industry are obtained by dividing the total amount of payroll by the total number of man-hours worked.

HOURLY AND WEEKLY EARNINGS: Industries (N.I.C.B. series) (IX and X): *Wages in the United States* and *Conference Board Service Letter* (National Industrial Conference Board).

Statistics based on data supplied by a large number of establishments in manufacturing industries, employing about a quarter of the total number of workers in these industries. The data refer to different parts of the country; they cover the following 25 industrial groups: iron and steel; foundries; machines and machine tools; heavy equipment; hardware and small parts; other products of foundries; automobiles; electrical manufacturing; agricultural implements; lumber and mill work; furniture; paper and pulp; paper products; printing (book and job); printing (news and magazine); cotton (Northern States); silk; wool; hosiery and knitted goods; boots and shoes; leather tanning and finishing; rubber; chemicals; paint and varnish; meat packing. The average earnings in the various industrial groups are obtained by dividing the total amount of wages paid by the total number of man-

hours worked during the pay period for hourly earnings, and by the number of workers employed for weekly earnings. The weights used in calculating the general averages are proportional to the importance of the various industries as determined by the 1923 Census of Manufactures.

HOURLY AND WEEKLY EARNINGS: Public services (IX): *Wage Statistics* (Inter-State Commerce Commission) and *Wages in the United States* (National Industrial Conference Board).

Statistics collected each month by the Inter-State Commerce Commission. They relate to Class I Steam Railways, of which the operating revenue in 1919 amounted to at least a million dollars, and which include almost all railways in the United States. The averages have been computed by the National Industrial Conference Board, and apply solely to workers, i.e. excluding employees. The first is obtained by dividing the total payroll for one week by the total number of man-hours worked; the second, by dividing the total payroll by the average number of workers on the payroll at the middle of the month.

HOURLY RATES OF WAGES: Certain industries, public services, various (Union rates) (IX and X): *Monthly Labor Review* (United States Department of Labor).

Statistics based on informations obtained by agents of the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics from secretaries or other officials of local unions. The data refer to representative cities in different parts of the country; they cover the following 6 industrial groups: granite and stone trades; building; printing and publishing; bakers; land transport; various (longshoremen, linemen, laundry workers, barbers). The averages for the various industrial groups and the general averages are weighted by the membership of the trade unions in the occupations and cities considered. The figures show the situation at 15 May of each year and are regarded as representative of the whole year, the union rates being as a rule settled in the spring.

The *index numbers of real wages* given in table IX have been calculated by taking the cost-of-living index number of the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics for all series of the U.S. Department of Labor, and the cost-of-living index number of the National Industrial Conference Board for all series of that organisation.

France

DAILY EARNINGS: Mines (IX and X): *Bulletin de la Statistique générale de la France* (Statistique générale de la France).

Statistics based on data supplied by the *Comité central des houillères de France*. They refer to the principal mining districts of the country, and cover all workers, underground and surface, in coal mines. The average is obtained by dividing the total amount of wages paid by the number of man-shifts worked.

HOURLY AND DAILY RATES OF WAGES: Industries, various (IX and X): *Ibid.*

(*a*) Paris:

Statistics based on information supplied by the *conseils de prud'hommes* or collected with the collaboration of certain employers' organisations. The data refer to the whole Paris district; they cover adult male workers in 23 occupations (for 1934) in small-scale industry representing the following 7 industrial groups: quarries; metal working; stone and pottery; building; wood; printing; clothing. The general averages are unweighted arithmetic averages of the rates for the various occupations.

(*b*) Towns other than Paris.

Statistics based on information collected by means of a questionnaire sent to the *conseils de prud'hommes*, and to the mayors of large towns where there is no *conseil de prud'hommes*. The data refer to towns with over 10,000 inhabitants other than Paris. They cover (for 1934), 43 adult male and 7 adult female occupations in small-scale industry. The male occupations represent 12 industrial groups, the same 7 groups as the Paris statistics (but including

a larger number of occupations) and 5 other groups: textiles; skins and leather; breweries; transport (from 1932); various The female occupations are in the clothing industry and laundry work. The general averages are obtained by the same method as in the Paris statistics.

HOURLY RATES OF WAGES: Metal industry (X): *Ibid.*

Statistics based on the result of annual enquiries of the *Groupe des industries métallurgiques, mécaniques et connexes de la région parisienne* carried out in about 1,050 establishments (members of the *Groupe*) employing about 200,000 workers, e.g. nearly 25 per cent. of all wage earners in metal industry of the whole country. The data refer to the Paris area only and cover all metal trades: metallurgy, tools and apparatus, mechanical and electrical engineering, vehicle construction and repairing. They represent average hourly wages paid to skilled, semi-skilled and unskilled workers (including premiums and bonuses, but excluding family allowances).

WEEKLY OR MONTHLY WAGES: Clothing (X): *Ibid.*

Statistics based on information supplied by the *Service de placement des industries du vêtement.* The data refer to Paris only and cover dressmaking and linen industry as well as first-class millinery. No general averages are calculated from these data.

The *index numbers of real wages* given in table IX have been calculated by taking the official cost-of-living index number for Paris, for all series relating to that town, and the official cost-of-living index number for the whole country, for all other series.

Great Britain and Northern Ireland

INDEX NUMBERS OF WEEKLY RATES OF WAGES: Agriculture, mines, industries, public services (IX): *Ministry of Labour Gazette* (Ministry of Labour).

Index numbers based mainly on recognised minimum or standard rates fixed by collective agreements or embodied in arbitration awards, Statutory Orders under the Trade Boards Acts, etc. In some cases in which no agreements, awards, or Orders exist, rates recognised by the trade unions concerned have been used. In other cases in which the rates in force are not available, the percentage increases or decreases on the basic time or piece rates accepted by the employers' organisations and trade unions have been used. The index numbers refer to the principal districts of Great Britain and Northern Ireland. They refer to adult workers in the following 15 industrial groups, represented by one or more occupations: agriculture; mining; metal; stone, pottery and glass; building and construction; wood; paper and printing; textiles; clothing; chemical industry; food, drink, and tobacco; land transport; shipping; water, gas, and electricity supply; local authorities. The occupations and districts covered have not been the same throughout the whole period, but the change in wages between each two consecutive dates is calculated for the same group of occupations and districts, and the partial variations so obtained are then combined into a continuous index by the " chain system ". These estimated movements of wages in the different occupations are considered as representative of the movement of wages in the whole of the industry concerned. In calculating the general index number, weights proportional to the importance of the industry are attached to the figures for each industry. The original index numbers are based on 1924 = 100.

EARNINGS PER SHIFT OR PER WEEK: (*a*) Coal mining; (*b*) engineering; (*c*) railways (X): *Ibid.*

(*a*) Statistics compiled by the Mines Department; they are based partly on returns made for the purpose of wages ascertainments for certain districts and partly upon other returns supplied by individual colliery owners. The data denote average earnings per man-shift, for all workers, including young persons; they include the value of allowances in kind.

(*b*) Statistics compiled by the Engineering and Allied Employers' National Federation. They relate to adult males on time and piece work employed by federated firms.

(*c*) Statistics compiled by the Ministry of Transport. The data given here relate to grades covered by the Conciliation Scheme in operation before the

war, i.e. mainly traffic and goods staffs, and also shop and artisan staff, but exclude staff in ancillary businesses (docks, hotels, refreshment rooms, etc.). The figures include residual bonus (if any), war wage, piece-work payments, tonnage bonus, payments for overtime, Sunday duty, and night duty, commuted allowances, and any other payments for work performed; they exclude compensation allowance, travelling and out-of-pocket expenses, and meal and lodging allowances.

All these statistics refer to the principal centres for each industry concerned. No general averages are calculated from these data.

DAILY, WEEKLY OR MONTHLY RATES OF WAGES: Industries, public services (X): *Ibid.*

Statistics representing a selection among the basic data used for the compilation of the index numbers of weekly rates of wages given in table IX.

Hungary

HOURLY AND DAILY EARNINGS: Industries, public services (IX and X): *Annuaire Statistique Hongrois, Bulletin Statistique Mensuel Hongrois* and Communication from the Royal Hungarian Central Office of Statistics (Royal Hungarian Central Office of Statistics).

Statistics based on the pay sheets of undertakings of a certain size (excluding small handicraft undertakings), which are legally obliged to furnish these data to the Central Office of Statistics. The data refer to the various parts of the country and cover the following 12 industrial groups: iron and metal working; machinery; stone, pottery and glass; wood and bone; paper; printing and artistic industries; spinning and weaving; clothing; leather, hair, and feathers; chemical industry; food industry; electrical generating stations. The averages for each group and the general averages are obtained by dividing the total amount of wages paid each year by the total number of days, on the one side, and the total number of hours, on the other side, actually working during the corresponding year.

HOURLY EARNINGS: Mines, industries, public services (X): *Ibid.*

Statistics based on the result of half-yearly enquiries carried out in about 120 undertakings employing nearly 5,500 workers. The data refer to Budapest and certain centres of the province; they cover 70 occupations (from which 40 have been selected here) of the following 18 industrial groups (for women, only 9 groups): mines and blast furnaces; iron and other metallurgy; mechanical engineering; electrical engineering; stone, ceramics and glass; building; wood and bones; paper; printing; textiles; clothing; leather, hair and feather; food; trams; cartage; railways; electric power distribution; local authorities. The data represent the actual wages paid, excluding payments for overtime. Neither general averages nor averages for industrial groups are calculated from these data.

Italy

HOURLY EARNINGS: Mines, industries, public services, various (IX and X): *Bollettino dei Prezzi* and supplementary information (Central Institute of Statistics).

Statistics based on the wage records of the establishments covered by the enquiry. The data refer to various parts of the country, and cover the following 11 industrial groups: mines and quarries; engineering and metal working; building materials; road construction and public works; wood; paper and printing; textiles and clothing; chemical and allied industries; food; public services; miscellaneous. (From 1934, the data for each industrial group have been subdivided in a certain number of branches, but without modification in the general scope of these statistics.) The averages for each industry and the general averages are obtained by dividing the total amount of wages paid by the total number of man-hours worked. As the number of establishments covered by the enquiry varies from month to month, the results obtained directly are adjusted by an appropriate method, akin to the chain system, so as to produce a homogeneous series.

Japan

DAILY EARNINGS: Mines (Imperial Cabinet Series) (IX and X): *Chingin Bukka Tokei Geppo — Monthly Report on Wage and Price Statistics* (Bureau of Statistics, Imperial Cabinet).

Statistics based on the results of monthly enquiries carried out among 85 undertakings (with at least 50 workers) employing a total of more than 95,000 workers (in December 1934) and specially chosen by the Directors of the five general Mining Directorates. The enquiries cover the extraction of coal, metals, petroleum and other minerals. The data are obtained by dividing the total amount of wages (including allowances and bonuses) paid to all workers during the month by the total number of man-days actually worked.

DAILY EARNINGS: Industries (Imperial Cabinet Series) (IX and X): *Ibid.*

Statistics based on information supplied to the prefects by the employers of about 970 firms (with at least 30 workers), employing a total of more than 475,000 workers (in December 1934). They refer to 23 of the 47 prefectures of Japan proper and cover 109 branches of industry, grouped together into the following 14 industrial groups: metal working; machines and tools; shipbuilding and vehicles; precision instruments; ceramics; building; wood and bamboo; paper and printing; textiles; clothing; leather, bones, feathers, etc.; chemicals; food and drink; gas, electricity, and water works. The average daily earnings are obtained by dividing the total amount of wages (including allowances and bonuses) paid during the month by the total number of days worked.

INDEX NUMBERS OF DAILY EARNINGS: Industries (Bank of Japan Series) (IX and X): *Statistics of Factory Labour* (Bank of Japan).

Index numbers based on information collected from 4,100 establishments (with at least 40 workers) employing about 1,000,000 workers (in December 1934). They refer to different parts of the country and cover the following 17 industrial groups: metal work; machinery; tools and instruments; vehicles; shipbuilding; ceramics, glass work, etc.; timbering and woodwork; paper-making; printing and bookbinding; spinning; weaving; dyeing; braiding and knitting; rubber; medical; artificial manure; food and drink. The averages used in calculating the index numbers are obtained by dividing the total amount of wages (including allowances and bonuses) paid during the month by the number of days worked.

DAILY EARNINGS: Public services (Imperial Cabinet Series) (X): *Monthly Report on Wage and Price Statistics* (Bureau of Statistics, Imperial Cabinet).

Statistics based on the results of monthly enquiries carried out among 443 undertakings employing a total of more than 155,000 workers (in December 1934). They refer to 23 of the 47 Prefectures of Japan proper and cover 18 branches grouped together into the following six groups: tramways; street buses; railways; navigation; transport agents; post, telegraph and telephone. The averages are obtained by dividing the total amount of wages (including allowances and bonuses) paid during the month by the total number of days actually worked during the same month.

The *index numbers of real wages* given in table IX have been calculated by taking for all series the cost-of-living index numbers for 13 towns compiled by the Economic Department of the Osaka Asahi Shimbun Company.

Latvia

HOURLY EARNINGS: Industries, public services, commerce (IX and X): *Bulletin mensuel* (Bureau of Statistics of the Latvian State).

Statistics based on conditions in private industrial undertakings employing more than 20 workers. They refer to the city of Riga only, and cover adult workers in the principal occupations in the following 13 industrial groups (for women 12 only): iron and steel, and construction of machinery, tools and apparatus; pottery, stone goods, chalk, lime, cement, etc.; building and road construction; wood; paper; printing industry; textiles; clothing and

toilet; skins and leather; chemical industry; food, drink, condiments, and tobacco; gas, electricity, etc.; hygiene and cleaning. The data represent net earnings, taking into account payments for overtime and piece work, but excluding sickness insurance contributions.

Norway

HOURLY OR DAILY EARNINGS: Mines, industries (IX and X): *Annuaire statistique de la Norvège* (Central Office of Statistics).

Statistics based on information supplied to the Central Office of Statistics by the Norwegian Employers' Association and other employers' organisations. They cover the principal regions of the country, and refer to adult workers in the following 4 industrial groups: ore mining, metal working, sawmilling, paper industry. Distinctions are drawn within these groups, either between branches of the industry or between the occupations involved. The data give hourly earnings in some industrial groups and daily earnings in others, taking piece work into account; they do not all refer to exactly the same date. Two partial averages are calculated, weighted according to the number of workers covered by the statistics in each industry: the first for export industries, the second for other industries. The general average is the unweighted arithmetic average of these two.

WEEKLY RATES OF WAGES: Industries, public services (X): *Ibid.*

Statistics supplied by the employment exchanges and are based either on rates fixed in collective agreements, or, in their absence, on wages paid to workers who have obtained employment through the employment exchanges, or on figures obtained by special enquiries, the data being in any case verified in collaboration with the trade unions. They refer only to adult time workers. The data cover 40 localities and 9 occupations and may be considered for these occupations as representative of the whole country; they are weighted according to the population of each town. No general averages are calculated from these data.

New Zealand

INDEX NUMBERS OF MINIMUM WEEKLY RATES OF WAGES: Agriculture, mines, industries, public services, commerce, various (IX): *Monthly Abstract of Statistics*, *Statistical Report on Prices, Wage Rates and Hours of Labour, etc.*, and *Official Year Book* (Census and Statistics Office).

Index numbers based mainly on awards of the Arbitration Court, except for agriculture and railways, the data for which are based on information provided by the Department of Labour for the former and the Department of Railways for the latter. They refer to the industrial districts and cover adult workers in 275 occupations for men and 14 for women in the following industrial groups: (1) for men: agricultural and pastoral; mining; metal works and engineering; building; wood manufacture; paper manufacture, printing, etc.; textiles and weaving; clothing, boots, etc.; food, drink, etc.; other manufactures; land transport; shipping and cargo working; hotel, restaurant, and other personal service; miscellaneous; (2) for women: paper manufacture, printing, etc.; textiles and weaving; clothing, boots, etc.; hotel, restaurant, and other personal service; miscellaneous. The index numbers for each group are weighted averages of the rates for the different occupations, the weights being proportional to the importance of each occupation and industry as determined by the occupation statistics of the 1926 census and the annual factory production statistics; the general index numbers are weighted averages of the group index numbers, the weights being proportional to the membership of the trade unions for the groups concerned. The original index numbers are based on 1914 = 100.

MINIMUM WEEKLY RATES OF WAGES: Mines, industries, public services, commerce, various (X): *Ibid.*

Statistics representing a selection among the basic data used for the compilation of the index numbers of weekly rates of wages given on table IX.

Netherlands

INDEX NUMBERS OF HOURLY EARNINGS: Mines, industries (IX): Communication from the Central Bureau of Statistics of the Netherlands.

Index numbers calculated by the Central Bureau of Statistics on the basis of information supplied by employers' associations. The data relate to various centres, according to industry; the branches covered are: coal mining; metal manufacture, mechanical engineering, etc.; building (Amsterdam); wool spinning and weaving (North Brabant). The indexes for mining, metal industries, and building are weighted averages; those for the woollen industry are simple averages for six important occupations; and the general index an unweighted average of the indexes for each branch of industry. The original index numbers are based on 1926-1930 = 100.

HOURLY, DAILY OR WEEKLY EARNINGS: Mines, industries, public services (X): *Maandschrift van het Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek* and *Jaarcijfers voor Nederland* (Central Bureau of Statistics of the Netherlands)

Statistics based on data supplied by an employers' organisation in each industrial group considered; they have therefore no absolute uniformity of method. The figures refer (*a*) to the principal districts of the country and to general categories of workers for coal mining and the metal industry, and (*b*) to the city of Amsterdam and certain specified occupations for building and harbours. No general averages are calculated from these data.

WEEKLY RATES OF WAGES: Industries, public services, commerce (X): *Ibid.*

Statistics based on conditions fixed in collective agreements. The data therefore refer only to workers employed by employers who are members of an employers' association that is party to the agreement or who have themselves signed it. In fact, the rates fixed by individual agreements in other undertakings differ from those recorded in the statistics by amounts varying with the date and industry concerned. The data refer to about 40 localities; they cover about 27 occupations, from which 14, in Amsterdam, have been selected here. No general averages are calculated from these data.

Poland

HOURLY EARNINGS: Mines, industries (IX and X): *Statistique du travail* (Central Office of Statistics).

Statistics based on the results of a monthly enquiry, carried out, from January 1932 onwards, into the working conditions of all workers employed in the mining and metal-working industries and of the workers employed in about 1,000 undertakings in manufacturing industries, each employing more than 20 workers. The data relate to the following 17 industrial groups: coal mining; iron mining; zinc and lead mining; iron and steel founding; zinc and lead founding; metal working; mechanical and electrical engineering; minerals; building; wood; paper; printing; textiles; clothing; skins and leather; chemical products; food industry. The averages are obtained by dividing the total amount of wages (including bonuses, payments for piece or contract work and overtime, and family allowances, but disregarding any deductions, by the total number of man-hours worked during the month.

The data previous to 1932 have been obtained by applying to the earnings the movement of the index numbers of wage rates compiled before that date. These index numbers of daily wage rates (for an 8-hour day) were obtained by taking the weighted average of two series of index numbers, the weights used being 4 for the first and 6 for the second).

The first series was based on information taken from collective agreements, or, where none exist, on rates fixed by unilateral decision of the employers' organisations. The data referred to one or more centres; they covered the following 10 industrial groups: coal mines; oil industry; iron and steel; metal working; cement; building; printing; textiles; skins and leather; sugar refineries and bakeries. The index numbers for the various industrial groups were obtained by taking first the geometric mean of the index numbers of wages in the different occupations in a single centre, and then the geometric mean of the indexes for the different centres weighted by the number of workers in the occupations considered in each centre. The general index number was

the geometric mean of the indexes for the various industrial groups, weighted by the total number of workers in each group.

The second series was based on estimates made by the Central Office of Statistics, partly from information concerning wage reductions in different industries and private undertakings published by the Institute for the Study of the General Movement of Business and Prices, and based mainly on particulars provided by the labour inspectors of the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare, and partly from statistics of earnings published by the Central Office of Statistics, which indicated the actual movement of earnings in certain industrial centres, and especially in the textile and engineering industries.

Rumania

INDEX NUMBERS OF MONTHLY EARNINGS: Agriculture, mines, industries, public services, commerce, various (IX and X): *Mişcarea Salariilor* and *Buletinul Muncii şi Asigurărilor Sociale* (Ministry of Labour, Public Health and Social Insurance).

Index numbers based on information obtained from a certain number of representative establishments. The data refer to 45 important industrial centres in different parts of the country; they cover about 100 occupations in the following 15 industrial groups: agriculture; mining; metals; watch-making and jewellery; pottery and glass; building; wood and furniture; books; textiles; clothing; leather and skins; chemical products; food; transport; commerce. The industrial index numbers as well as the general index number are obtained by taking the unweighted arithmetic average of the index numbers for the different occupations and groups respectively. The original index numbers are based on 1914 = 100.

Saar Territory

DAILY EARNINGS: Mines (IX): *Bericht des statistischen Amtes des Saargebietes* (Statistisches Amt).

Statistics based on information supplied by the Administration of the State Mines of the Saar Basin. The data relate to average earnings (including family allowances) of all underground and surface workers employed in the coal mines. The averages are obtained by dividing the total wages paid by the total number of man-days worked. From 1 March 1935 this Territory is part of Germany.

Sweden

HOURLY AND DAILY EARNINGS: Mines, industries, public services, commerce, various (IX and X): *Lönestatistisk Årsbok för Sverige* and *Sociala Meddelanden* (Department of Labour and Social Welfare).

Statistics based on information supplied by the employers in about 6,000 undertakings employing some 350,000 workers and employees. The data refer to the principal centres in the country; they cover the following 13 industrial groups (which are in turn further subdivided into several sub-groups) (for women, only 11 groups): mining and metal working; stone and pottery; building and construction; wood; paper and printing; textiles and clothing; skins, leather, and rubber; chemical products; food, drink, and tobacco; transport; municipal undertakings; commerce and warehousing; miscellaneous. The averages for the various industrial groups (and their sub-groups) and the general averages are obtained by dividing the total amount of wages paid (including overtime earnings and payments in kind) by the total number of man-hours or man-days worked.

Switzerland

HOURLY AND DAILY EARNINGS: Mines, industries, public services, commerce (IX and X): *La vie économique* (Département fédéral de l'Economie publique).

Statistics based on information collected by the Swiss National Accident Insurance Office on the actual earnings (including all allowances) of workers

who have been victims of accidents. The data refer to the whole country; they cover the following 17 industrial groups (for women, only 11 groups): extraction of minerals and stone-working; metals and machinery; watch-making; stone and pottery; building; forestry; wood; paper; printing; textiles; boots and shoes; chemical products; food, drink, and tobacco; road transport; production and distribution of electricity; gas and water supply; warehouses and commercial houses. The averages for the various industrial groups and the general averages are unweighted arithmetic averages.

Czechoslovakia

EARNINGS PER SHIFT: Mines (IX): *Rapports de l'Office de Statistique de la République tchécoslovaque* (Statistical Office of the Czechoslovak Republic).

Statistics based on the results of an annual enquiry organised by the Statistical Office. They cover all mining districts of the country, and refer to all underground and surface workers employed in mines for the extraction of coal (hard coal and lignite), iron, and other ores and minerals. The averages are obtained by dividing the total wages bill (taking into account all bonuses and allowances in cash and in kind, holidays with pay, etc., but without subtracting deductions) by the total number of man-shifts worked.

MINIMUM HOURLY AND WEEKLY RATES OF WAGES: Industries (Prague) (IX): *Ibid.*

Statistics based on the provisions of collective agreements. They relate to the city of Prague only, and cover 32 occupations or industries belonging to the following 9 industrial groups: metal working and engineering; brick-making; building; wood; printing; textiles; clothing; skins; drink. The general average is weighted by the number of workers in each occupation or industry.

INDEX NUMBERS OF MINIMUM HOURLY RATES OF WAGES: Industries (Prague) (X): *Ibid.*

Index numbers representing a selection among the data used for the compilation of the statistics of minimum rates of wages given in table IX. The original index numbers, based on 1914 = 100, are reproduced without alteration.

Union of South Africa

INDEX NUMBERS OF WEEKLY RATES OF WAGES: Mines, industries, public services, commerce (IX and X): *Monthly Bulletin of Union Statistics* (Office of Census and Statistics).

Index numbers based on information supplied chiefly by trade unions and employers. They cover 9 important industrial centres in the Union, and relate to adult European workers in the principal occupations in the following 8 industrial groups: gold mining; diamond mining; engineering and metal working; building; printing and bookbinding; general manufacturing; transport and communications (railways, tramways, harbours, posts); trading. The index number for each industrial group is an arithmetic average of the figures for the different occupations, but using for each town the weight which was utilised for the calculation of the monthly index of retail prices. The general index numbers are calculated by using a series of fixed weights attached to the various industries, and based on the population census of 1926. The original index numbers are based on 1910 = 100.

U.S.S.R.

MONTHLY WAGES: Mines, industries (IX and X): *L'économie nationale de l'U.R.S.S.* and *Recueil de statistiques pour 1932* (Central Office of Economic and Social Statistics of the U.S.S.R.).

Statistics based on information collected by the Central Office of Economic and Social Statistics. They refer to wages paid to adult workers in undertakings covered by the industrial census, i.e. those using machinery and

employing at least 16 workers, or not using machinery and employing at least 30 workers. The data refer to the various industrial districts of the territory of the U.S.S.R.; they cover the following 18 industrial groups: coal mining; oil wells; oil refineries; minerals (extraction and working); iron and steel; metal works; engineering (including electrical engineering); wood working; paper; printing; cotton; wool; linen; clothing; boots and shoes; skins and leather; chemical products; food (excluding sugar).

Yugoslavia

MONTHLY EARNINGS: Mines, industries, public services, commerce (IX and X): *Index* (Chamber of Labour for Croatia and Slavonia).

Statistics based on the results of enquiries carried out directly in about 65 undertakings regarded as representative, and situated in the old provinces of Croatia and Slavonia; at the end of 1933 more than 35,000 workers were employed by them. The data cover the following 16 industrial groups: mining; metal working; ceramic; building; wood; paper and printing; textiles; clothing; chemicals; food (including drink and tobacco); transport; navigation; gas, electricity and water supply; post, telegraph and telephone; commerce; hotels. The averages for the various industries are obtained by dividing the total amount of wages paid by the total number of workers employed during the last normal working week (48 hours) in each quarter. The monthly earnings are taken to be equivalent to the earnings of four normal weeks, representing a total of 24 working days. The general average is weighted according to the number of workers employed in each branch of industry.

The *index numbers of real wages* given in table IX have been calculated by taking the cost-of-living index number for Croatia and Slovenia compiled by the Chamber of Labour mentioned above.

TABLE XI

MONEY WAGES OF CERTAIN INDUSTRIAL OCCUPATIONS IN DIFFERENT COUNTRIES (OCTOBER 1934)

Australia

Rates: Minimum time rates of wages, as fixed by the latest arbitration award, etc., or by collective agreements in force, and which may be taken as fairly representative of average earnings.

Austria

Rates: Minimum time rates of wages as fixed by collective agreements or other decisions in force, and generally equivalent to predominant rates.

Earnings: Average actual earnings of time workers. Figures in parentheses: average hourly earnings of piece workers.

Belgium

Rates: Minimum time rates of wages, as quoted by the official employment exchange in Brussels, in accordance with collective agreements or employers' offers.

Canada

Rates: Predominant time rates of wages; for most of the occupations under the headings building and printing, and for transport, the figures given are trade union rates.

Denmark

Rates: Minimum time rates or " minimum payment " on time work (especially in mechanical engineering) fixed by collective agreements; the rates actually paid are generally higher.

Earnings: Average earnings per hour worked on time and piece work.

Spain

Rates: Minimum time rates of wages embodied in contracts of employment established by joint labour boards or fixed by arbitration, or by employers, but representing as a rule the predominant wages or those most usually paid.

Estonia

Rates: Medians of time rates of wages, determined from individual contracts of employment (collective agreements being almost entirely lacking). Figures in parentheses: average of minimum rates guaranteed to piece workers.

Earnings: Medians of average earnings per normal hour of work of time and piece workers, family allowances being taken into account.

France

Rates: Average time rates of wages. Figures in parentheses: basic time rates for piece workers.

Great Britain

Rates: Time rates of wages embodied in collective agreements or recognised by organisations of employers and workpeople, or rates usually paid; however, in a certain number of cases (indicated by note [3]), the rates are those described as minimum rates in collective agreements.

For mechanical engineering, the figures are based on comprehensive returns obtained from its members by the Engineering and Allied Employers' National Federation. The time rates quoted represent the predominant rates actually paid to men on plain time work, inclusive of basic rates and bonus of 12s. per week. The collective agreements in force in this industry provide that piece-work prices shall be such as will enable a workman of average ability to earn at least 25 per cent. over time rates, excluding " war bonus ".

Hungary

Earnings: Weighted averages of normal hourly earnings for time work.

Irish Free State

Rates: Minimum time rates of wages fixed by collective agreements; these are almost invariably typical or standard rates, except for trams, which pay in many cases rates considerably higher than the minimum rates quoted.

Italy

Rates: Minimum rates of wages for time and/or piece work (including cost-of-living bonus and other allowances, if any) generally fixed by collective agreements; however, in a certain number of cases (indicated by note [3]) the figures represent predominant rates, or those most usually paid.

Latvia

Rates: Weighted arithmetic mean of typical time rates of wages.

Earnings: Weighted arithmetic mean of earnings per hour worked.

Norway

Rates: Standard rates or average wages actually paid for time work; however, in a certain number of cases (indicated by note [4]), the figures represent minimum time rates fixed by collective agreements.

Earnings: Average earnings per hour worked on time and piece work.
For mechanical engineering, the figures given for both rates and earnings are those communicated by the Norwegian Iron and Metal Workers' Union, Oslo. They relate to all skilled workers and to all unskilled workers respectively, engaged in this branch of industry.

Netherlands

Rates: Time rates of wages fixed by collective agreements, or by Government or local authorities, according to employers' regulations or the scales in force. Generally they are minimum rates, but may nevertheless be considered as representing in most cases the rates currently applied, and, in some cases, typical rates noted by the Labour Exchange. Figures in parentheses: average hourly wages earned by piece workers.
Earnings: Average earnings per hour worked on time and piece work.

Poland

Earnings: Average earnings per hour worked.

Sweden

Rates: Typical or predominant time rates of wages; however, in a certain number of cases (indicated by note [2]), the figures are minimum time rates of wages fixed by collective agreements.
Earnings: Average earnings per hour worked on time and piece work, account being taken of the value of allowances in kind and payments for overtime.

Switzerland

Rates: Predominant time rates of wages fixed by collective agreements, salary scales, or other agreements; however, in a certain number of cases (indicated by note [2]), the figures are minimum time rates of wages fixed by collective agreements.

Yugoslavia

Rates: Typical time rates of wages. Figures in parentheses: basic time rates for piece workers.

TABLE XII

Money Wages and Index Numbers of Wages in Agriculture

Australia: *Labour Report* and *Quarterly Summary of Australian Statistics* (Commonwealth Bureau of Census and Statistics).

Statistics based on periodical information taken from awards, determinations, or collective agreements, or collected from employers or trade union secretaries. They cover the 6 States of the Commonwealth and relate to various occupations described as agricultural, pastoral, gardening, etc. (adult males only, but with no indication of their age). The value of the board and lodging usually supplied is obtained on the basis of an estimate made by the Bureau of Statistics. The general average is not weighted.

Canada: *Monthly Bulletin of Agricultural Statistics* (Dominion Bureau of Statistics, Agricultural Branch).

Statistics based on periodical estimates made by crop correspondents of the Bureau of Statistics. They cover the 9 chief provinces and relate to "farm help", i.e. permanent workers engaged by the year and seasonal

workers engaged for the summer half-year (May to September inclusive). The value of board and lodging received by these workers is also estimated by the crop correspondents. The general averages for men are weighted by the number of permanent or seasonal farm labourers in each province as given by the decennial censuses. The averages for women are not weighted

Chile: Information supplied by the Ministry of Labour (General Inspectorate of Labour).

Statistics based on information collected every year by the labour inspectors. They cover the different provinces of the country and relate to 2 important categories of salaried employees in agriculture. (The category of regular day labourers, described as " voluntary workers ", includes several occupations, among them farm servants, stablemen, cowmen, shepherds, and some not entirely agricultural occupations.) The data represent the wages actually paid to the workers. The value of board, lodging, and other allowances in kind (land, wood, etc.) is estimated by the inspectors. The averages are not weighted.

Denmark: *Meddelelser fra Det landökonomiske Driftsbureau* (Reports of the Danish Bureau of Rural Economy).

Statistics based on the results of an annual enquiry carried out by the Bureau of Rural Economy (a semi-official institution) among a certain number of small, medium, and large agricultural undertakings, employing several thousand workers. They cover various parts of the country and relate to workers not under 17 years of age. The averages are not weighted.

Estonia: *Annuaire de la Statistique agricole* (Estonian Central Office of Statistics).

Statistics based on the results of an annual enquiry carried out among its agricultural correspondents by the Central Office of Statistics. They cover 11 districts and relate to workers between the ages of 18 and 50 years. The data, obtained on the basis of contracts of employment (usually individual), are an average between the wages of workers paid solely in cash and those of workers on " mixed " wages, in which account is taken of certain allowances in kind, granted in addition to board and lodging; these allowances consist principally of cloth, wheat, and other agricultural products, and represent about one-fourth of the wage. Account is in no case taken of the value of board and lodging. In order to obtain the general averages, the average wage is first calculated for each of the 11 districts by dividing the sum of the wages as fixed by the contract, by the sum of all the hours of work fixed; the unweighted arithmetic mean of these average wages is then taken.

United States of America: *Crops and Markets* (United States Department of Agriculture).

Statistics based on information collected every three months by the Department of Agriculture from its crop reporters by means of a questionnaire. They cover the various States grouped in 9 geographical divisions and relate to: (*a*) hired farm labour (males, usually over 18 years of age), paid by the month and engaged either for the whole year (about a third of the whole number) or from planting time to the end of the harvest (April to November in the principal agricultural regions), (*b*) day workers, engaged usually at planting and harvest time or during the rush seasons. The data represent either the wages actually paid by the crop reporters on their own farms, or estimates based on their general knowledge of conditions on neighbouring farms; the rates are ordinarily fixed by individual bargaining. The value of board is based on estimates. The value of lodging, where supplied, is in no case taken into account in the statistics. The general averages are weighted by the number of agricultural workers in each State as given by the decennial censuses. The annual figures are obtained by taking an average of the

quarterly figures for April, July, and October of the year indicated and January of the following year; for the daily wages, the weights assigned to these quarters are 1, 5, 5, and 1 respectively; for the monthly wages, a simple average is taken.

Finland: *Revue sociale* (Ministry of Social Affairs).

Statistics based on the results of an annual enquiry made among its agricultural correspondents by the Ministry of Social Affairs. They cover 63 communes, in each of which 10 undertakings have been selected, and relate to 3 representative occupations. The value of allowances in kind granted to " deputatists " is estimated on the basis of current prices in each commune; in the case of farm servants, the data are averages of wages paid solely in cash (to about two-thirds of the workers) and wages a part of which is represented by certain allowances in kind (clothing, boots, etc.), the value of which (hardly more than 10 per cent. of the total wage) is included in the statistics. The general averages are unweighted arithmetic averages of the figures for the 63 communes.

France: *Journal officiel de la République francaise*, and *Bulletin de la Statistique générale de la France* (Statistique Générale de la France).

Statistics based on estimates made every two years by the prefects of the various Departments, after enquiries and consultations prescribed by the Act of 15 December 1922 on agricultural accidents. They cover the 87 Departments of the pre-war territory. The value of board and lodging, included in the total wages, is also estimated by the prefects, and frequently shows considerable variations between one Department and another. In general, the average accepted since 1930 has been, for board, 10 francs (men) and 8 francs (women) per day; for lodging, from 200 to 400 francs per year. The general averages are unweighted arithmetic averages of the figures for the various Departments.

Great Britain

ENGLAND AND WALES: *Report of Proceedings under the Agricultural Wages (Regulation) Act, 1924; Orders of the Agricultural Wages Board* (Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries).

Monthly statistics based on the statutory minimum rates fixed from time to time by the Agricultural Wages Committees established under the Act of 7 August 1924. Statistics are available for the 47 areas in which these Committees operate and refer to the category of " ordinary (permanent) adult male workers of 21 years of age and over ". The figures express the minimum rates payable in respect of a specified number of hours, excluding overtime payments and additional earnings at special seasons. The value of allowances in kind (including free cottage, board, lodging, and various food products), which, where provided, may be reckoned in part payment of minimum rates, is also fixed by the Wages Committees. The general average is an arithmetical average of the minimum weekly wages fixed for the various areas, weighted by the number of agricultural workers in each area.

Hungary: *Les salaires agricoles et industriels en Hongrie*, and information supplied by the Royal Hungarian Central Office of Statistics.

Statistics based on the results of an annual enquiry carried out among its agricultural correspondents by the Ministry of Agriculture. They cover the various regions of the country (divided into *comitats*), and relate to day labourers (adults, and young persons not employed on work ordinarily done by children). The value of board (and lodging, if any) is not taken into consideration for the purposes of the enquiry. The general averages, which are calculated by the Central Office of Statistics, are weighted according to the number of day labourers in the various *comitats*.

India (Bombay Presidency): *Labour Gazette* (Labour Office, Government of Bombay).

Statistics based on information collected monthly by the Labour Office in the various *Talukas* of the Presidency. They cover either the political divisions or the " economic circles " of the Presidency and relate to agricultural day labourers (field labour, engaged usually for urgent work, and in particular the harvest). As a rule labourers are generally paid either partly or entirely in kind, but these statistics concern only wages paid in cash. The averages are weighted.

Irish Free State: *Irish Trade Journal* (Department of Commerce and Industry).

Statistics based on returns collected from farmers or from labourers by the police (*Garda Siochana*) in July of each year; they cover the four chief divisions of the country and apply to several thousand permanent workers of 21 years of age and over. In order to ensure that the " examples " returned are representative of the conditions of employment in each Enumeration District, the returns relate as far as possible to the same persons working on the same farms as in the previous years. The figures do not take into account the value of board and lodging in respect of the rates for workers receiving such allowances. The general averages computed by the Statistics Office are averages of the wages in each country, weighted according to the total number of permanent agricultural labourers over 18 years. This number is obtained each year as part of the annual agricultural statistics (for females since 1931, the average of the four last preceding years is used).

Italy: *Bollettino mensile di Statistica agraria e forestale* and *Bollettino dei Prezzi* (Central Institute of Statistics).

Statistics based on information collected monthly by the directors of the itinerant schools of agriculture in each province. They cover the different agricultural zones (plain, hill, mountain) of 92 provinces grouped in 18 regions, and relate to the category of agricultural day labourers (*braccianti*) over 17 years of age employed on ordinary work, as a rule without board or lodging, but sometimes with certain allowances in kind (agricultural products and foodstuffs). The data are averages of the wages actually paid in the various provinces; these coincide very generally with the rates fixed by collective agreements. The value of allowances in kind, included in the wages, is calculated by the directors of the itinerant schools. The average for each region is an unweighted arithmetic mean of all the figures denoting the maximum and minimum wages paid in the various agricultural zones (plain, hill, mountain) of each province. The general average is an unweighted arithmetic mean of the averages for the different regions.

Japan: *Statistique des salaires des ouvriers agricoles* (Statistical Section of the Ministry of Agriculture and Forests).

Statistics based on an annual enquiry carried out by the departmental agricultural associations. They cover a certain number of agricultural centres (villages) in 14 departments or prefectures, and relate to adult workers, but with no indication of their age. The data represent the average of minimum and maximum wages, paid partly in cash and partly in kind (generally in the form of meals, clothing, etc.). The value of these allowances is calculated from market prices. The averages are not weighted. The yearly wages of permanent workers (engaged by the year) have been recalculated by the International Labour Office on the base of daily wages given in the statistics.

Latvia: *Etat de l'agriculture en Lettonie* and *Annuaire statistique de la Lettonie* (Bureau of Statistics of the Latvian State).

Statistics based on the results of an annual enquiry carried out by the Bureau of Statistics among its 2,000 agricultural correspondents, each of whom collects information from a certain number of agricultural undertakings

in his area. They cover the different districts of the country grouped in 4 provinces, and relate to workers, most of whom are over 20 years of age. The data, based on contracts of employment, express the wages paid partly in cash and partly in kind. The value of board and lodging is not taken into account in the statistics. (By way of indication it may be noted that the daily cost price of an adult worker's keep was 0.70 lat for the period 1932-33.) The averages are not weighted.

Lithuania: *Annuaire statistique de la Lithuanie* and *Statistikos Biuletenis* (Central Statistical Office).

Statistics taken from the results of periodical enquiries carried out by the Central Statistical Office among its agricultural correspondents, and based on the experience of their own undertakings, which represent about 1 per cent. of all agricultural undertakings. The statistics cover the different districts of the country, and relate to " adult " workers (with no indication of their age). The data express the wages paid by the correspondents themselves. The total wages of permanent workers include, in addition to the cash wage, the value of certain allowances in kind (agricultural products) calculated on the basis of market prices, either by the agricultural correspondents or by the Statistical Office. The statistics do not, however, take into account the value of board, lodging, or working clothes supplied to these workers. The averages relating to the wages of permanent workers are not weighted; those relating to the wages of day labourers are weighted by the number of them in each district.

Mexico: Information supplied by the Department of Economic Studies (Ministry of National Economy).

Statistics based on information from various sources (National Agrarian Committee, Agricultural and Cattle Census, 1930, Departments of Labour and of Agricultural Economy) compiled and unified by the Department of Economic Studies. They cover (with one exception) the various States and Territories of the United States of Mexico, and relate to agricultural day labourers (*peones del campo*). Up to 1933 the data represent average wages paid in cash; for 1934 the figures given here are taken from a plan for fixing minimum wages, due to the initiative of the President of the Republic, and in conformity with the Federal Labour Code of 1931. The value of board, which is usually supplied, and of lodging, if any, is not included. The averages for the States and Territories are unweighted arithmetic means of the wages recorded in the various municipalities. The general averages are weighted by the number of agricultural workers in each State or Territory as given by the 1930 census.

Norway: *Arbeidslönnen i jordbruket*, *Statistiske Meddelelser* and *Annuaire statistique de la Norvège* (Central Statistical Office).

Statistics based on the results of an annual enquiry carried out by the Central Statistical Office among farmers, by means of questionnaires sent to at least three farmers in each rural commune. They cover all the rural communes of the country and relate to adult male workers (with no indication of their age). The data do not take into account the value of board and lodging received by permanent workers. The averages are not weighted.

New Zealand: *Monthly Abstract of Statistics* and *Statistical Report on Prices, Wages and Hours of Labour, etc.* (Census and Statistics Office).

Index numbers based on periodical information collected by the officers of the Labour Department in the 4 principal centres of the country. They cover the 4 most important districts, and relate to various agricultural and pastoral occupations (adult workers only, but with no indication of their age). The data represent in general the rates offered in the employment bureaux, or fixed by arbitration awards. The value of board and lodging is based

on the results of a special enquiry carried out in 1928 into the difference between the cash wages of workers with and without free board and lodging; the average difference was found to be 30s. For other years the value was computed by increasing or decreasing this sum in the same ratio as an official index number of the cost of food, fuel and light, with 1928 = 100 as base. The index numbers are an arithmetic average of the wages of the occupations covered, weighted in proportion to the importance of each occupation (as determined by the occupation statistics of the 1926 census and the annual factory production statistics). The original index numbers are based on 1914 = 100.

The data on the wages of general farm hands are one of the series taken for the compilation of these index numbers.

Poland: *Statistique du Travail* (Central Office of Statistics).

Statistics based on the provisions of regional collective agreements, collected and compiled yearly by the Office of Statistics. They cover the different departments of the country, grouped in 4 regions, and relate to " permanent workers ", aged 15 years at least, including farm servants, stablemen, cattlemen, ox drivers, shepherds, field workers, etc.). The data express the total remuneration, including the value of allowances in kind (lodging, cereals, fuel, keep of cattle, use of land, potatoes, use of carts and other vehicles). This value is calculated on the basis of the average prices paid each year to producers in the various departments. The general averages are not weighted.

Sweden: *Lönestatistisk Årsbok för Sverige* and *Sociala Meddelanden* (Department of Labour and Social Welfare).

Statistics based on estimates made on the spot by authorities or private persons acquainted with the conditions of work in agriculture. They cover the different departments of the country, grouped in 5 regions, and relate to various typical groups of adult agricultural workers (with no indication of their age). The data express the wages actually in force in various localities. The value of board and lodging received by permanent workers is calculated by the investigators on the basis of the prices paid for their keep by workers in a similar position, or, in certain cases, by using the assessments of the taxation authorities. The averages for each occupation are weighted by the number of parishes covered by the data collected. As the number of parishes per square kilometre in the agricultural districts properly so called is higher than in the other districts (forest, etc.), this method of weighting makes it possible to take account indirectly of the number of the agricultural wage earners in the different districts. The general averages (for all workers) are weighted in proportion to the importance of the respective occupational categories covered.

IV. — COST OF LIVING, RETAIL PRICES, FAMILY BUDGETS

TABLE XIII

INDEX NUMBERS OF COST OF LIVING

Germany. *Wirtschaft und Statistik.* (Statistisches Reichsamt.)

(a) *Cost of living* (monthly). The general index is obtained by taking the ratio of the sum of the expenditures calculated for the four group indexes below and for an index of " miscellaneous expenditure " to the corresponding figure for the original base period: 1913-1914 = 100. (Before 1928, the weights of the indices is a little different, but this difference only affects slightly the level and fluctuations of the indices.)

(b) *Food* (monthly). The prices of 37 articles are collected once a month by the municipal authorities in collaboration with representatives of workers' and employers' organisations, distributive co-operative societies, etc. In calculating the average of the prices collected for each article account is taken of the distribution of the population of the whole country among towns of different size. These prices are then used to calculate the aggregate expenditure according to a theoretical budget for a family of 5 persons (including 3 children) based on the family budget enquiry of 1927-1928.

(c) *Heating and lighting* (monthly). The index includes 3 articles chosen according to local consumption habits, with allowance for their calorific value.

(d) *Clothing* (monthly). The index includes 13 articles representative of the annual consumption of the family of 5 persons.

(e) *Rent* (monthly). The index relates to the monthly rent of a dwelling of two rooms and a kitchen, including supplementary charges (rates, etc.).

Argentina (Buenos Aires). *Boletin Informativo.* (National Department of Labour.)

(a) *Cost of living* (monthly). The general index is obtained by taking the ratio of the sum of the expenditures calculated for the four group indexes below and for an index of " miscellaneous expenditure " to the corresponding figure for the original base period: October 1933 = 100.

(b) *Food* (monthly). The average prices of 22 articles are multiplied by quantities representing the annual consumption of a family of 5 persons (including 3 children under 14) according to a theoretical budget based on the results of a family budget enquiry carried out in October 1933. The index is obtained by taking the ratio of the sum of these products to the corresponding figure computed for the original base period.

(c) *Heating and lighting* (monthly). The index is based on 3 articles (coal, paraffin oil, and soap); it is calculated by the same method as the food index.

(d) *Clothing* (monthly). The index is based on the estimated expenditure for clothing of a family of 5 persons.

(e) *Rent* (monthly). The index is obtained by taking the ratio of the monthly rent of a one-room dwelling (including cost of lighting) to the corresponding expenditure for the base period.

Australia. *Quarterly Summary of Australian Statistics.* (Commonwealth Bureau of Census and Statistics.)

(a) *Cost of living* (monthly). The general index is obtained by taking the ratio of the sum of the expenditures calculated for the three group indexes below and for an index of " miscellaneous expenditure " (including heating and lighting, household ustensils, drapery, crockery) to the corresponding figure for the original base period: 1923-1927 = 100.

(b) *Food* (monthly). The average prices of articles (including soap, candles and kerosene) are collected for 30 towns from about 10 retailers in each town and an average price calculated for each town; these average prices are multiplied by quantities representing the annual average consumption per head for household purposes during the year 1927-1929 and the ratio of this sum to the corresponding sum for the later period gives the index for each town. The Dominion index is then obtained by weighting the towns indexes according to population.

(c) *Clothing* (quarterly). The predominant prices of clothing articles are collected and an aggregate expenditure is computed from them, using a large amount of information as to the duration of the articles included. The index is obtained by relating the figure thus arrived at to the corresponding figure computed for the base period.

(d) *Rent* (quarterly). Rents paid for all occupied houses of 4 and 5 rooms that conform to a certain standard of quality are collected quarterly from house agents in each of the 30 towns. An average rent for each town is computed by weighting the average rent for each class of house according to the relative number of houses of that class in the particular town, as shown by the Census

of 1921. The ratio of these averages to the corresponding figure for the base period gives the town indexes, which are then combined by weighting according to population.

Austria (Vienna). *Statistische Nachrichten.* (Bundesamt für Statistik.)

(a) *Cost of living* (monthly). In addition to the four group indexes below, the general index includes an index of beverages (including coffee, tea, and cocoa) and tobacco and an index of " miscellaneous expenditure ". It is obtained by relating the sum of the expenditures calculated for the six group indexes to the corresponding figure for the original base period: July 1914 = 100.

(b) *Food* (monthly). The most usual prices of 18 articles are collected once a month by the Vienna Markets Office, and are used to calculate the cost of the theoretical food budget per consumption unit.

(c) *Heating and lighting* (monthly). The index includes the quantities of 4 articles consumed monthly per consumption unit.

(d) *Clothing* (monthly). The index covers 3 articles representative of the monthly consumption per consumption unit. The prices are collected with the help of the Vienna Chamber of Commerce.

(e) *Rent* (monthly). The index relates to the monthly rent of a dwelling consisting of one room, a kitchen, and a water closet, including all supplementary charges (rates, etc.).

Belgium. *Revue du travail.* (Ministère du Travail et de la Prévoyance Sociale.)

(a) *Cost of living* (monthly). Cost-of-living indexes are calculated separately for working-class families having an income in 1921 of less than 20, 20-30, 30-40, and over 40 francs per quet per fortnight, and for lower middle-class families with small incomes. The index for the second category of working-class families has been adopted in the tables. It is obtained by combining the four groups indexes below and an index of " miscellaneous expenditure ", weighted by the proportion of the total expenditure recorded for each group according to the family budget enquiry carried out in 1921. Original basis: 1921 = 100.

(b) *Food* (monthly). The unweighted averages of the prices of 33 articles collected on the 15th of each month in 59 localities are multiplied by the quantities consumed per quet per fortnight according to the enquiry of 1921. The ratio of the sum thus calculated to the corresponding expenditure for the base period gives the index.

(c) *Heating and lighting* (monthly). The average quantities of 7 articles consumed in 1921 are multiplied by the average prices collected, and the sum thus calculated is related to the corresponding expenditure for the base period.

(d) *Clothing* (monthly). The relative prices of 25 articles are weighted by the proportions of the expenditure on them during the base period.

(e) *Rent* (monthly). The relative prices of 14 items (rent and furniture) are weighted by the proportions of the expenditure on them in 1921.

Bulgaria. *Bulletin de statistique.* (General Directorate of Statistics.)

(a) *Cost of living* (monthly). The general index is obtained by combining the four indexes below, together with an index of " miscellaneous expenditure ", the weights representing the consumption of an average household of 5 to 6 persons, as ascertained from data relating to the years 1908-1912. For all indexes given in the tables, the monthly data refer to 12 towns and the yearly data to 67 towns. Original basis: 1914 = 100.

(b) *Food* (monthly) the retail prices of 35 articles are multiplied by quantities representing the average consumption of a household of 5 to 6 persons; the ratio of the sum of these products to the corresponding sum for the base year gives the index.

(c) *Heating and lighting* (monthly). The index, which is based on 5 articles, is calculated by the same method as the food index.

(d) *Clothing* (monthly). The index, which is based on 5 articles or groups of articles, is calculated by the same method as the food index.
(e) *Rent* (monthly). An average monthly rent is calculated for dwellings of 3 rooms and kitchen, weighted according to the population of each town; the index is obtained by taking the ratio of this average rent to the corresponding figure for the base period.

Canada. *Prices and Price Indexes.* (Dominion Bureau of Statistics.)

(a) *Cost of living* (monthly). The four group indexes below are combined with an index of " miscellaneous expenditure " by weighting as follows: food 30, housing 20, fuel and light 6, clothing 18, and miscellaneous items 26. Original basis: 1926 = 100.
(b) *Food* (monthly). The average prices for 46 articles secured from retail traders in 60 cities by the Department of Labour are weighted by the aggregate Canadian consumption of the base year.
(c) *Heating and lighting* (monthly). Average price relatives, weighted according to population, are computed for each of 5 kinds of articles and combined in an index weighted according to their relative importance in consumption of the base year.
(d) *Clothing* (quarterly). Separate Dominion indexes are computed from quotations supplied mainly by departmental stores for men's clothing (25 items), women's clothing (23 items), and women's dress goods (7 items), and then weighted, $^1/_2$, $^1/_3$, and $^1/_6$ respectively.
(e) *Rent* (half-yearly). Rentals for several types of dwellings are obtained separately for dwellings of lower and medium grade; averages are computed for each city and combined into a Dominion index.

Chile (Santiago). *Estadistica Chilena.* (Central Statistical Office.)

(a) *Cost of living* (monthly). In addition to the four group indexes below, the general index includes an index of miscellaneous expenditure. The following weights are used: food 270, rent 120, heating and lighting 45, clothing 90, miscellaneous 75. Original basis: March 1928 = 100.
(b) *Food* (monthly). The retail prices of 26 articles are collected in Santiago and the relative prices are weighted by the proportion of the total food expenditure accounted for by each as shown by a family budget enquiry covering 74 persons.
(c) *Heating and lighting* (monthly). The index includes 6 articles, whose relative prices are weighted by the estimated proportions in which they are represented in the total expenditure on this group.
(d) *Clothing* (monthly). The index includes 5 articles; its method of construction is similar to that of the preceding index.
(e) *Rent.* The index has provisionally been left unaltered since the base period, pending the results of an enquiry to be carried out by the Central Statistical Office in collaboration with the Technical Housing Department.

China.

(1) PEIPING. *Monthly Index Numbers of the Cost of Living in Peiping.* (Institute of Social Sciences.)

(a) *Cost of living* (monthly). The general index is obtained by taking the ratio of the sum of the expenditures calculated for four group indexes below, together with the expenditure on 3 miscellaneous items (including tea) to the corresponding figure for the original base period: 1927 = 100.
(b) *Food* (monthly). The average prices of each of 23 articles are obtained from material collected twice a month from representative retailers in Peiping and used to compute the cost of a food budget representing the annual consumption of a family of 3.38 " men ", as ascertained in a budget enquiry carried out in 1926-1927. The ratio of the expenditure thus computed to the corresponding figure for the base year yields the index.
(c) *Heating and lighting* (monthly). The collection of the prices of 4 articles and the computation of the index takes place in the same way as for food.

(d) *Clothing* (monthly). The prices of 7 kinds of clothing material are collected and used in the same way as those of foodstuffs.

(e) *Rent* (monthly). The movement of typical rents in the various districts of the city is approximately ascertained.

(2) SHANGHAI. *Prices and Price Indexes in Shanghai.* (National Tariff Commission.)

(a) *Cost of living* (monthly). The four group indexes below, together with an index of 6 miscellaneous items (including tea), are combined by weighting according to the relative importance of each group in the total expenditure of a family of 3.78 " men ", as ascertained by a family budget enquiry carried out in 1927-1928 amongst cotton mill worker's families. Original basis: 1926 = 100.

(b) *Food* (monthly). The retail prices of 24 foodstuffs are collected twice a month from markets in Shanghai and the relative prices of these articles are weighted by the percentage of total food expenditure accounted for by the various articles, as ascertained by the family budget enquiry of 1927-1928.

(c) *Heating and lighting* (monthly). The collection of the prices of 4 articles and the method applied to them are the same as for the food index.

(d) *Clothing* (monthly). The index, which is based on 8 items, is obtained by the same method as that used for the food index.

(e) *Rent* (at irregular intervals). The ratio of the unweighted average of rents (including rates) for about 3,000 one-story houses to the corresponding figure for the base period is taken as index.

(3) TIENTSIN. *Prices and Price Indexes in Shanghai.* (National Tariff Commission.)

(a) *Cost of living* (monthly). The general index compiled by the Nankai Institute of Economics, Nankai University, Tientsin, is obtained by taking the ratio of the sum of the expenditures for the four groups below to the corresponding figure for the original base period: 1926 = 100.

(b) *Food* (monthly). The average prices of 25 articles are multiplied by quantities representing the annual consumption of a family of 3.40 units of consumption, based on a family budget enquiry carried out in 1927-1928, and covering 132 working-class families in Tientsin. The index is obtained by taking the ratio of the sum of these products to the corresponding figure for the base period.

(c) *Heating and lighting* (monthly). The index is based on 5 articles (including water). It is calculated by the same method as the food index.

(d) *Clothing* (monthly). The index is based on 6 articles; it is calculated by the same method as the food index.

(e) *Rent* (monthly). The index is based on the rents of one type of dwelling

Denmark. *Statistiske Efterretninger.* (Statistical Department.)

(a) *Cost of living* (quarterly). The general index is obtained by taking the ratio of the sum of the expenditures calculated for the four group indexes below, together with two other indexes (" taxes " and " miscellaneous expenditure ") to the corresponding figure for the original base period: 1931 = 100.

(b) *Food* (quarterly). The retail prices of 44 articles are reported by the local authorities of Copenhagen, the provincial towns, and more than 100 rural communes, and the average prices (obtained by eliminating seasonal influences) are used to compute the cost of the food consumption of a Copenhagen worker's family of 3.5 persons (2 adults and 1.5 child), as found in a budget enquiry carried out in 1931. The ratio of the figure thus arrived at to the corresponding figure for the base year gives the index.

(c) *Heating and lighting* (quarterly). The prices of 5 articles are collected, together with the prices of food. The method is the same as for the food index.

(d) *Clothing* (quarterly). The prices are supplied by large commercial and manufacturing firms throughout the country, and are used to find the cost of a fixed set of articles of clothing, representing the consumption of a worker's family, as in the case of food. Laundry expenses are also included.

(e) *Rent* (yearly). Rents are collected every year in November and the ratio of the average rent to the corresponding figure for the base year gives the index.

Danzig (Free City of). *Staatsanzeiger für die Freie Stadt Danzig.* (Statistisches Landesamt der Freien Stadt Danzig.)

The methods of calculating the index numbers are the same as those adopted by the *Statistisches Reichsamt* (see note on Germany above). Original basis: July 1913 = 100.

Egypt (Cairo). *Monthly Agricultural and Economic Statistics.* (Ministry of Finance, Statistical Department.)

(a) *Cost of living* (monthly). The three group indexes below, together with three other index numbers showing the cost of transport, education, and " miscellaneous " items, are weighted by the following percentages of total expenditure for a junior clerk's family of 6.3 persons (5 units of consumption) as shown by a budget enquiry conducted in 1920: food 51.9, housing 11.7, clothing 16.7, other items 19.7 per cent. Original basis: January 1913-July 1914 = 100.

(b) *Food* (monthly). The index is based on the prices of 23 articles (including fuel and soap), obtained from forms filled in by Government employees in Cairo Governorate who indicate the cost to them as consumers of the different articles. The medians of these prices for each article are weighted according to the budget of junior clerks' families as shown by the enquiry of March 1920.

(d) *Clothing* (monthly). The index is the unweighted arithmetic average of the relative prices of 32 articles which are supplied by retail dealers.

(e) *Rent* (monthly). The increase of rents over pre-war figures as fixed by legislation is taken as the index.

Spain (Madrid). *Boletin del centro de investigationes especiales o laboratorio de Estadistica.* (General Directorate of the Institute of Geography, Land Survey, and Statistics.)

(b) *Food* (monthly). The index is an unweighted arithmetic average of the relative prices of 27 articles, including 10 foodstuffs of animal origin, 9 foodstuffs of vegetable origin, and 8 articles for heating and lighting (including salt and soap). Original basis: 1914 = 100.

Estonia (Tallinn). *Eesti Statistika.* (Central Statistical Office.)

(a) *Cost of living* (monthly). The general index is a weighted geometric mean of the four group indexes below and of an index of " miscellaneous expenditure "; the weights, which are based on the consumption of workers' families in Tallinn as ascertained from a budget enquiry of October 1925, are as follows: food 58.5, rent 7.5, heating and lighting 5.8, clothing 15.7, other expenses 12.5 per cent. Original basis: 1913 = 100.

(b) *Food* (monthly). The prices of 51 articles in the Tallinn retail market are expressed in terms of corresponding prices at the base period. The index is obtained by taking the geometric mean, weighted according to the consumption of working-class households in Tallinn as shown by the family budget enquiry in October 1925.

(c) *Heating and lighting* (monthly). The index includes 4 articles, and is constructed in the same way as the food index.

(d) *Clothing* (monthly). The index includes the prices of 4 articles collected in ready-made clothing shops. The methods are similar to those used for the other group indexes.

(e) *Rent* (half-yearly). Since the repeal of the Rent Restriction Act in May 1931 the rents of four categories of dwelling, covering more than 1,000 dwellings, are collected by the Tallinn housing inspector. An index is computed from them twice a year, in January and July, by taking the geometric mean of the relative prices, weighted by the number of dwellings of each category noted in the family budget enquiry of 1925.

United States of America

(1) BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS Index: *Monthly Labor Review.* (United States Bureau of Labor Statistics.)

(a) *Cost of living* (half-yearly). The general index includes the four group indexes below, together with two further indexes relating to "miscellaneous" items and to furniture and house furnishings. It is obtained by weighting the group indexes by the following percentages of family expenditure as ascertained in a family budget enquiry carried out in 1917-1919: food 38.2, housing 13.4, fuel and light 5.3, clothing 16.6, other items 26.4 per cent. Original basis: 1913 = 100.

(b) *Food* (monthly). Prices of 43 foodstuffs are supplied by retail dealers in 51 cities, and the average price for each commodity is weighted by its consumption weight as ascertained in the family budget enquiry of 1917-1919. The sum of these products is then related to the corresponding expenditure for the preceding month and the monthly percentages of change are linked to give the current index.

(c) *Heating and lighting* (half-yearly). Prices of 6 articles are collected every month by questionnaire at the same time as food prices. An index is computed from those relating to 32 cities every six months, using the same method as for the food index.

(d) *Clothing* (half-yearly). Prices of various articles are secured by special agents from four or five large stores in each of 32 cities. The method used is the same as for the food index. The list of articles considered in summer is different from the winter list.

(e) *Rent* (half-yearly). Information on rents in houses and apartments is secured quarterly by special agents in 32 cities.

(2) NATIONAL INDUSTRIAL CONFERENCE BOARD Index: *Conference Board Service Letter.* (National Industrial Conference Board.)

(a) *Cost of living* (monthly). The general index is obtained by combining the four group indexes below and an index for "miscellaneous expenditure", weighted as follows: food, 33; rent, 20; heating and lighting, 5; clothing, 12; miscellaneous, 30 per cent. The group indexes are first of all computed on the base December 1928 = 100 (for gas and electricity: June 1928 = 100). They are then linked up with indexes arrived at by somewhat different methods, so as to establish the series on the base 1923 = 100. The data previous to 1929 are therefore not entirely comparable with those after that date.

(b) *Food* (monthly). The food index is that computed by the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, whose base has been shifted to 1923 = 100.

(c) *Heating and lighting* (monthly). (*a*) Coal. The prices of three varieties of coal (bituminous, and two varieties of anthracite) are collected monthly in 95 towns; the average price of each quality in all the towns considered is then determined, and the percentages of change from month to month are calculated. An average of these percentages for the three varieties, weighted in the proportion of 2 : 1 : 1, is then calculated. (*b*) Gas and electricity. The prices of gas and electricity are collected twice a year (in January and July) in 174 towns, and percentages of change are calculated every six months. Separate indexes are computed for gas and for electricity by the same methods as for the rent index; an average index is then obtained by taking the arithmetic mean, weighted for gas by 2 and for electricity by 1. The final index for this group is obtained by taking the arithmetic mean, weighted for coal by 2 and for gas and electricity by 1.

(d) *Clothing* (monthly). The prices of 47 articles of men's and women's clothing are collected by means of a questionnaire in 90 towns. Definite specifications are used for the type and quality of the various articles and the average prices are simple arithmetic averages. These average prices are then multiplied by the quantity of each article assumed to be used in one year; the total cost thus obtained serves as a basis for calculation of the index.

(e) *Rent* (monthly). Information on rents is obtained monthly from various agencies and individuals in 173 towns. It usually relates to houses or apartments of 4 or 5 rooms with bath, as usually occupied by wage earners. The percentage of change is ascertained from month to month for each quotation; the simple

average of these changes is then calculated for each town, and the index is determined for each town by linking up these percentages. Group indexes are then obtained by taking the simple arithmetic mean of the indexes for the various towns, grouped in five categories according to the size of their population, and the final index is obtained by weighting these group indexes on the basis of the total population in the towns of each category considered.

Finland. *Sosialinen Aikakauskirja.* (Central Bureau of Statistics.)

(a) *Cost of living* (monthly). The general index is obtained by weighting the four group indexes below and four other group indexes, by the expenditure percentages ascertained in 1908-1909 from data relating to skilled workers' families as follows: food 55.0, housing 11.8, fuel and light 4.1, clothing 11.6, other items (including taxes) 17.5 per cent. Original basis: 1st half-year 1914 = 100.

(b) *Food* (monthly). The retail prices of 14 articles are used to compute the cost of a food budget, established from the 1908-1909 enquiry. The index is obtained by taking the ratio of this cost to the corresponding cost for the base year (the seasonal variations of prices of eggs being corrected).

(c) *Heating and lighting* (monthly). The variation of the price of wood is taken as the index.

(d) *Clothing* (monthly). The index combines two prices: a man's suit and a pair of men's boots.

(e) *Rent* (monthly). The rent for an apartment of two rooms and a kitchen a is used as basis for the index.

France

(1) WHOLE COUNTRY. *Bulletin de la statistique générale de la France.* (Statistique générale de la France.)

(a) *Cost of living* (half-yearly). The general index is obtained by taking the arithmetic average of the general indexes established by about 50 regional and local committees for the study of the cost of living. Each of these general indexes is obtained by adding together the percentages representing the cost of the consumption, at the different dates, in each of the four groups below and in a " miscellaneous expenditure " group, and taking the ratio of this sum to the cost of the total consumption in the base year. The standard regional budgets, representing the consumption of a working-class family of 4 persons in each region, are constructed on uniform lines, although certain variations are permitted, within strictly specified limits, so as to take account of local peculiarities; the ratio of the expenditure in the base year in the five consumption groups to the total expenditure is uniformly fixed at the following percentages: food, 60; heating and lighting, 5; clothing, 15; rent, 10; miscellaneous, 10. Original basis: 1930 = 100.

(b) *Food* (half-yearly). The figures for the food group for the whole country are, in their original form, the simple arithmetic mean of the regional percentages, themselves expressing the cost of food at various dates as a proportion of the cost of total consumption for the base year. The indexes published in the tables have been calculated by the International Labour Office by taking the ratio of the original percentages for each date to the corresponding percentage for the base year.

(c) *Heating and lighting* (half-yearly). The index is obtained by the same method as the food index.

(d) *Clothing* (half-yearly). The index is obtained by the same method as the food index.

(e) *Rent* (half-yearly). The index is obtained by the same method as the food index.

(2) PARIS. *Bulletin de la statistique générale de la France.* (Statistique générale de la France.)

(a) *Cost of living* (quarterly). The index is a combination of the four group indexes given below and an index of " miscellaneous expenditure ". It is weighted in accordance with a standard budget of consumption for a working-

class family of 4 persons, in 1914. (This index, computed by the Paris regional committee for the study of the cost of living, in application of the Decree of 19 February 1920, is not exactly the same as that computed by the same committee to represent the Paris region in the national index computed since 1930 (see note above).) Original base: July 1914 = 100.

(b) *Food* (quarterly). The prices collected from various retailers and one large co-operative store are multiplied by the quantities consumed, according to the standard budget. The index is obtained by taking the ratio of these sums to the corresponding sum for the base period.

(c) *Heating and lighting* (quarterly). The index is obtained in a similar way to the food index.

(d) *Clothing* (quarterly). The index is obtained in a similar way to the food index.

(e) *Rent* (quarterly). The index is obtained in a similar way to the food index.

Great Britain. *Ministry of Labour Gazette.* (Ministry of Labour, Department of Statistics.)

(a) *Cost of living* (monthly). The four group indexes below, together with an index of " miscellaneous expenditure ", are combined by using the following weights proportional to the pre-war expenditure on the various groups as ascertained from an enquiry on family budgets carried out in 1904: food 60, heating and lighting 8, clothing 12, rent 16, miscellaneous expenditure 4 per cent. Original basis: July 1914 = 100.

(b) *Food* (monthly). The retail prices of 14 foodstuffs are collected by the managers of employment exchanges and branches from about 5,000 representative retailers in 509 towns and villages. Unweighted averages of the prices of each commodity are computed separately for the large towns (i.e. with a population of more than 50,000) and for 420 smaller towns and villages. The percentage change in the price of each article is then obtained by comparing the average price for the current date with the corresponding price for the base period, and the percentage change for the United Kingdom as a whole is obtained by taking the arithmetic mean of the percentage changes for the large towns and for the small towns. These percentages are then combined by using weights proportional to the average expenditure shown by a family budget enquiry conducted in 1904, allowance being made to take into consideration the consumption of margarine.

(c) *Heating and lighting* (monthly). The prices of 5 articles are supplied by coal merchants, gas undertakings, retailers, and local correspondents in from 24 to 91 towns. The unweighted average percentage increase is calculated for each article, and then weighted according to the approximate relative importance of the article in the pre-war expenditure of workers' families.

(d) *Clothing* (monthly). The prices of some 25 articles are supplied by representative retailers in 81 towns. The average percentage increase is calculated for each article, and unweighted averages of these figures are calculated for 6 sub-groups of articles, which are then weighted approximately according to their importance. The resulting index is only to be regarded as an approximate indication.

(e) *Rent* (half-yearly). Separate indexes are computed for the increase over pre-war figures of controlled and of decontrolled rents (inclusive of local rates and water charges) of houses usually occupied by the working classes, and then combined in accordance with their relative proportions. The figures of controlled rents are collected by town clerks and property owners' associations in 39 large towns; information on decontrolled rents and on the proportions of workers' dwellings which have been decontrolled is supplied by the same agencies and relates to 29 large towns.

Greece. *Bulletin statistique des prix moyens des principaux articles alimentaires.* (Central Statistical Office.)

(a) *Cost of living* (monthly). The four group indexes below, together with an index of " miscellaneous expenditure ", are combined by taking a geometrie

mean weighted as follows according to the percentage of expenditure on each group: food 57.51, rent 9.87, heating and lighting 7.39, clothing 12.63, miscellaneous 12.60 per cent. Before 1931 the indexes are computed by a slightly different method, not including clothing and rent, and covering 106 towns. Original basis: 1 December 1914 = 100.

(b) *Food* (monthly). The retail prices of 28 articles are collected by special officials on the 1st and 15th of the month from retail traders in 44 towns, and a monthly average, weighted by the population of the various towns, is calculated for each article. The index is obtained by taking a weighted geometric mean of these prices, expressed as relative prices; the weights used are the percentages of expenditure as ascertained by an unpublished family budget enquiry.

(c) *Heating and lighting* (monthly). The retail prices of 7 articles collected in 44 towns are treated in the same way as for the food index.

(d) *Clothing* (monthly). The retail prices of 6 articles collected in 44 towns are treated in the same way as for the food index.

(e) *Rent.* The index represents the average ratio of the rent paid by working-class families living in 28 towns at the time of the family budget enquiry carried out in 1930 to the rent during the year 1914 ascertained for the same dwellings from the leases then in force. Some of the rents thus included are subject to the rent-restriction legislation.

Hungary (Budapest). *Magyar Statisztikai Szemle.* (Central Office of Statistics.)

(a) *Cost of living* (monthly). The general index is obtained by taking the ratio of the sum of the theoretical expenditures calculated for the four group indexes below to the corresponding figure for the original base period: 1913 = 100.

(b) *Food* (monthly). The average retail prices on the last day of the month as given by the current price list of the Budapest markets are used to calculate the cost of a theoretical food budget composed of 12 articles and representing the weekly consumption of a family of 4 persons (including 2 children). The index is the ratio of this cost to the cost of the same budget for the base year.

(c) *Heating and lighting* (monthly). The prices of 3 articles are used to calculate the cost of a theoretical weekly consumption. The index is the ratio of this sum to the corresponding sum for the base year.

(d) *Clothing* (monthly). The prices of 12 articles are used to calculate a theoretical annual consumption for a family of 4 persons. The resulting sum divided by 52 gives the weekly expenditure, and the index is its ratio to the corresponding sum for the base year.

(e) *Rent* (monthly). The index is the ratio of the weekly rent of one room and a kitchen as fixed by the rent-restriction legislation, together with rates and other charges, to the corresponding sum for the base year.

India

(1) AHMEDABAD. *Labour Gazette.* (Labour Office, Government of Bombay.)

(a) *Cost of living* (monthly). The general index is composed of the four indexes below, and an index of " miscellaneous expenditure ", weighted as follows, the weights being determined by a family budget enquiry carried out in 1926-1927 and covering 872 working-class Ahmedabad families: food, 58; heating and lighting, 7; clothing, 10; rent, 12; miscellaneous expenditure, 4. Original base: August 1926-July 1927 = 100.

(b) *Food* (monthly). The prices of 16 articles are collected each week from 8 representative retailers; the average relative prices for these articles are weighted according to the percentage of the total food expenditure spent on each article as shown by the family budget enquiry of 1926-1927.

(c) *Heating and lighting* (monthly). The prices of 4 articles are collected, and the index for the group is calculated by the same method as the food index.

(d) *Clothing* (monthly). The prices of 7 articles of clothing (items not involving tailoring, i.e. dhotis, sarees and cloth or shirting for other garments)

are collected, one representative quality being chosen for each; the index for the group is calculated by the same method as the food index.

(e) *Rent* (at irregular intervals). The index is based on the amounts paid for rent, as ascertained from time to time by a house-to-house enquiry.

(2) BOMBAY. *Labour Gazette.* (Labour Office, Government of Bombay.)

(a) *Cost of living* (monthly). The general index is obtained by taking the ratio of the sum of the theoretical expenditures computed for the four group indexes below to the corresponding figure for the original base period: July 1914 = 100.

(b) *Food* (monthly). The prices of 17 articles are collected every week by investigators of the Labour Office from 12 representative retailers in Bombay city. The weekly quotations are averaged and these averages are weighted according to the average consumption of each article throughout India during five pre-war years. The sum of these products is then compared with the corresponding sum in July 1914.

(c) *Heating and lighting* (monthly). Prices of 3 articles are used, the method being the same as for the food index.

(d) *Clothing* (monthly). Wholesale prices of 3 articles are taken from published reports of the Bombay Millowners' Association and other market reports. The method is the same as for the food index.

(e) *Rent* (at irregular intervals). The results of enquiries into one-room tenements conducted by the Labour Office in collaboration with the Municipality during 1928-1930 are used to ascertain the average increase of rents over 1914-1915, account being taken of the relative importance of old and new buildings.

(3) RANGOON: *Labour Gazette.* (Labour Office, Government of Bombay.)

(a) *Cost of living* (monthly). The general index, established by the Burma Office of Labour Statistics, is obtained by taking the ratio of the sum of the expenditures calculated for the four indexes below and for an index of "miscellaneous expenditure" to the corresponding figure for the original base year: 1913 = 100. The whole of the indexes are then recalculated on the base: 1931 = 100.

(b) *Food* (monthly). The prices of 18 articles are collected several times a month from retailers selling articles of the specified quality at fixed prices. The average prices for the various articles are multiplied by quantities representative of the consumption of a Burmese family, as determined by the family budget enquiry carried out in Rangoon in 1926-1927. The index is obtained by taking the ratio of the sum of these products to the corresponding sum for the base year.

(c) *Heating and lighting* (monthly). The prices of two articles are collected, and the index is calculated by the same method as the food index.

(d) *Clothing* (monthly). The prices of 5 articles are collected, and the index is calculated by the same method as the food index.

(e) *Rent* (monthly). The index is obtained by taking the ratio of the average rent of dwellings in the quarters principally inhabited by Burmese families to the corresponding rent for the base year.

Dutch East Indies. *Economisch Weekblad voor Nederlandsch-Indië.* (Department of Agriculture, Industry and Commerce.)

(b) *Food* (monthly). The prices of 12 articles quoted at native markets (average of two qualities) are supplied by the native Civil Service and weighted according to the average daily consumption per 1,000 of the native population ascertained from an enquiry covering the period 1916-1924. The index is obtained by taking the ratio of the sum thus obtained to the corresponding sum for the original base period: 1913 = 100.

Irish Free State. *Irish Trade Journal.* (Department of Industry and Commerce.)

(a) *Cost of living* (quarterly). The general index is obtained by taking the ratio of the sum of the expenditures computed for the four group indexes below,

together with the expenditure on " sundries ", to the corresponding figure for the original base period: July 1914 = 100.

(b) *Food* (quarterly). The national average retail prices of 29 articles relating to the middle of each quarter are used to find the cost of the food consumed by a family of 5.6 persons during 1.892 weeks in June 1922. The index is obtained by relating this cost to the corresponding sum for the base period.

(c) *Heating and lighting* (quarterly). The index, which is based upon the prices of 4 articles, is obtained by the same method as the index for food.

(d) *Clothing* (quarterly). The index, which is based upon the prices of 23 articles, is obtained by the same method as the index for food.

(e) *Rent* (half-yearly). The change in representative house rents (including rates) since July 1914 as supplied half-yearly by town clerks and rate collectors is taken as index.

Italy. *Bollettino dei Prezzi.* (Central Institute of Statistics.)

(1) Index for 50 TOWNS.

(a) *Cost of living* (monthly). The general index includes food, rent, heating and lighting, clothing, and miscellaneous expenditure, but only one group index is published, the one of food prices. The general index is obtained by taking the ratio of the sum of the expenditures calculated for the 5 group indexes mentioned above to the corresponding figure for the original base period June 1927 = 100. The indexes are calculated by the various towns and then weighted by the size of the employed population in October 1927.

(b) *Food* (monthly). An index is calculated separately for each town. On the basis of average retail prices, relating to the period between the 15th of the month and the 14th of the following month, the cost of a theoretical budget (which allows for the varying consumption habits of the various parts of the country) is established. The ratio of the sum thus calculated to the corresponding sum at the base period gives the index for the town. The national index is an average of the indexes for the different towns, each weighted according to the employed population in the town as shown by the industrial census of 1927.

(2) Indexes for MILAN.

In the absence of group indexes for the whole country, indexes are given for the three groups below, taken from the cost-of-living index for the town of Milan. Original basis: 1 June 1927 = 100.

(c) *Heating and lighting* (monthly). The prices of 8 commodities chosen according to local circumstances, and ascertained for gas and electricity from the official tariffs and for other articles from retailers, are used to calculate the weekly consumption of a standard family. The ratio of the expenditure thus calculated to the corresponding figure at the base period gives the index.

(d) *Clothing* (monthly). The cost of certain quantities of dress materials and boots and shoes, representing the yearly consumption of the standard family, is obtained on the basis of prices as supplied by retailers by means of samples. The index is obtained by calculating the weekly expenditure and taking its ratio to the expenditure calculated for the base period.

(e) *Rent* (quarterly). The average yearly rent per room is first calculated on the basis of yearly rents paid by about 150 families living mostly in 3- or 4-roomed flats in working-class buildings; this figure is then used to calculate the weekly rent of a 4-roomed dwelling, and the movements of this sum give the index.

Japan

(1) 13 TOWNS. (Osaka Asahi Shimbun Company.) Communication to the International Labour Office.

(a) *Cost of living* (monthly). The four group indexes below, together with an index of " cultural expenses ", are combined by weighting according to their relative importance in the average household expenditure, as ascertained in the budget enquiry of 1926-1927: food 48.03, housing 22.28, fuel and light 6.89, clothing 13.48, cultural expenses 9.32 per cent. Original basis: July 1914 = 100.

(b) *Food* (monthly). The retail prices of foodstuffs, arranged in 13 groups. are collected monthly with the help of various women's organisations in 13 main cities. Unweighted averages are computed for each group, and the relative price averages are weighted by the percentage importance of each group in the average family food expenditure as ascertained in the budget enquiry of 1926-1927.

(c) *Heating and lighting* (monthly). The index is based on 5 articles, the method being the same as for the food index.

(d) *Clothing* (monthly). The index is based on 2 groups of articles, the method being the same as for the food index.

(e) *Rent* (monthly). House rents of from 20 to 100 houses to let are collected in each city, and the ratio of their average to the average house rent in July 1914 is taken as index. Rates are also included.

(2) TOKYO. *Index Numbers of Retail Prices in Tokyo.* (Bank of Japan.)

(a) *Cost of living* (monthly). The general index is obtained by taking the simple arithmetic average of the relative prices of 100 articles belonging to the three groups below, and to a fourth group of " miscellaneous expenditure ". Original basis: July 1914 = 100.

(b) *Food* (monthly). The index, which is based on 42 articles, is calculated by the same method as the general index.

(c) *Heating and lighting* (monthly). The index, which is based on 6 articles, is calculated by the same method as the general index.

(d) *Clothing* (monthly). The index, which is based on 20 articles, is calculated by the same method as the general index.

Latvia (Riga). *Menesa Biletens.* (Statistical Office of the Latvian State.)

(a) *Cost of living* (monthly). The general index is obtained by taking the ratio of the sum of the expenditures calculated for the four group indexes below and for five other indexes (including altogether 82 articles for daily transport expenses, intellectual needs, hygiene, amusements, and household articles) to the corresponding figure for the original base period: 1930 = 100.

(b) *Food* (monthly). The prices of 85 articles in Riga are collected twice a month and are multiplied by quantities representing the theoretical consumption per unit, as ascertained from a family budget enquiry conducted in 1926-1927; the weights vary from month to month in the course of the year in order to take into account the variations in the consumption of seasonal goods. The ratio of the sum of expenditures calculated for each month to the sum for the corresponding month of the base year gives the index.

(c) *Heating and lighting* (monthly). The index, which is based on 3 articles, is calculated by the same method as the food index.

(d) *Clothing* (half yearly). The prices of 39 articles are collected in May and October and the index is calculated by the same method as the food index.

(e) *Rent* (yearly). The index indicates the fluctuations of the average rent for dwellings of one room and kitchen.

Lithuania. *Statistikos Biuletenis.* (Central Statistical Office.)

(a) *Cost of living* (monthly). The general index is obtained by taking the ratio of the sum of the expenditures for the four indexes below and for an index of " miscellaneous expenditure " to the corresponding figure for the original base period: 1913 = 100.

(b) *Food* (monthly). The prices of 15 articles are collected each month by special correspondents in 104 localities of the country. The average prices of these articles are multiplied by quantities representing the theoretical annual consumption of an adult; the index is obtained by taking the ratio of the sum of these products to the corresponding sum for the base period.

(c) *Heating and lighting* (monthly). The prices of 3 articles are collected, and the index is calculated in the same way as the food index.

(d) *Clothing* (monthly). The prices of 4 articles are collected, and the index is calculated in the same way as the food index.

(e) *Rent* (monthly). The data on rents are collected each month by the municipal authorities and the index is obtained by taking the ratio of the average monthly rent of a one-room dwelling to the corresponding rent for the base period.

Luxemburg, Grand Duchy of. *Bulletin trimestriel.* (Office of Statistics.)

(a) *Cost of living* (monthly). The general index is obtained by taking the ratio of the sum of the expenditures calculated for the three indexes below to the corresponding figure for the original base period: 1914 = 100.

(b) *Food* (monthly). The prices of 13 articles (including soap) are collected monthly in the shops and on the markets in 9 localities of the country. The average prices of these articles are multiplied by quantities representing the theoretical annual consumption of a standard family of 5 persons (including 3 children); the index is obtained by taking the ratio of the sum of these products to the corresponding sum for the base period.

(c) *Heating and lighting* (monthly). The prices of 4 articles are collected, and the index is calculated by the same method as the food index.

(d) *Clothing* (monthly). The prices of 2 articles are collected, and the index is then calculated by the same method as the food index.

Norway. *Statistiske Meddelelser.* (Central Statistical Office.)

(a) *Cost of living* (monthly). The general index is obtained by combining the four group indexes below with three others, relating to beverages and tobacco, gas and electricity, and other expenses. Original basis: July 1914 = 100.

(b) *Food* (monthly). The index is based on retail prices collected in 31 towns and is obtained by multiplying these prices by the average quantities of foodstuffs consumed by working men's families living in 5 large cities in 1927-1928. The ratio of the expenditure thus computed to the corresponding expenditure for the base period gives the index.

(c) *Heating and lighting* (monthly). The index is computed on the basis of 4 prices, using the same method as for the food index. Gas and electricity are not included.

(d) *Clothing* (quarterly). The index based on prices of 31 articles is calculated by the same method as the food index.

(e) *Rent* (yearly). The simple arithmetic average of typical rents supplied by the statistical offices of 4 large towns and the mayors' offices in other localities is used as a basis for calculating the index.

New Zealand. *Monthly Abstract of Statistics.* (Census and Statistics Office.)

(a) *Cost of living* (quarterly). The four group indexes below, together with an index of " miscellaneous items ", are combined by weighting according to the relative importance of each group in the average household expenditure as ascertained in a budget enquiry of 1930: food 29.52, housing 21.93, fuel and light 6.17, clothing and footwear 12.61, miscellaneous 11.08 per cent. (Thus 18.69 per cent. of the total family expenditure is not accounted for.) The index is published only at quarterly intervals but monthly figures are communicated to the International Labour Office. Original basis: 1926-1930 = 100.

(b) *Food* (monthly). The average retail prices of 58 foodstuffs are collected monthly from representative retailers in 25 towns. Separate indexes are computed for each town, multiplying these prices by the average quantities consumed in the Dominion during 1926-1930 and taking the ratio of this sum to the corresponding figures for the base period. The Dominion index is obtained by taking the average of the indexes for the different towns weighted according to population.

(c) *Heating and lighting* (monthly). The retail prices of 7 items collected in 4 principal cities are used to compute indexes for each town by the same method as for the food index, and the unweighted average of these indexes yields the Dominion index.

(d) *Clothing* (quarterly). The predominant prices of a large number of items, arranged in eight sub-groups, are collected from representative retailers in

4 large cities. Group indexes are computed by taking the geometric average of the relative prices of the articles of the sub-group and these indexes are then combined by weighting according to the results of a family budget enquiry conducted in 1930.

(e) *Rent* (quarterly). Rents for 4-, 5-, and 6-roomed houses are obtained in February and August from house-agents in 25 towns. Separate town indexes are computed by relating the weighted average rent to the rent ascertained during the base period. A weighted Dominion index is finally obtained by weighting according to population. Figures for intermediate quarters are obtained by interpolation.

Palestine. *Palestine Commercial Bulletin.* (Department of Customs, Excise and Trade.)

(b) *Food* (monthly). The retail prices of 20 important articles (including kerosene, charcoal, tobacco, and soap) are collected in the three principal towns and multiplied by the average quantity consumed by a family of 5.1 persons, as ascertained by an enquiry carried out in January 1922 amongst 114 families of Arabic civil servants; the index is obtained by taking the ratio of the sum of expenditures thus obtained to the corresponding figures for the original base period: January 1922 = 100.

Netherlands (Amsterdam). *Maandbericht van het Bureau van Statistiek der Gemeente Amsterdam.* (Bureau of Statistics of the City of Amsterdam.)

(a) *Cost of living* (quarterly). The general index is obtained by taking the ratio of the sum of expenditures obtained for the computation of the four group indexes below and for the " miscellaneous expenditure " (including taxation). to the corresponding expenditure for the original base period: 1 October 1923-30 September 1924 = 100.

(b) *Food* (quarterly). The prices of 15 foodstuffs or groups of foodstuffs are weighted according to the expenditure per consumption unit, as ascertained from a family budget enquiry carried out in 1923-1924.

(c) *Heating and lighting* (quarterly). The index includes 2 groups of articles and the method is the same as for the food index.

(d) *Clothing* (quarterly) The index includes 2 groups of articles and the method is the same as for the food index.

(e) *Rent* (yearly). The index is based on the fluctuations of the average rent of working-class dwellings.

Peru (Lima). *Boletin mensual.* (Banque Centrale de Réserve du Pérou.)

(a) *Cost of living* (monthly). The general index is composed of the three group indexes below and of an index of " miscellaneous expenditure " (including heating and lighting articles) weighted as follows, according to the theoretical consumption of a worker's family: food, 55; clothing, 12; rent, 18; miscellaneous, 15 per cent. Original basis: 1913 = 100.

(b) *Food* (monthly). The average price of 3 sub-groups of articles (meat, 3 kinds; bread, 1 kind; other foods, 10 articles) are collected each month. An unweighted average of the relative prices is calculated for each of these sub-groups and then a weighted average of the sub-group indexes, the weights representing the theoretical consumption of a worker's family.

(d) *Clothing* (monthly). The index based on 7 articles is calculated by a similar method as for the food index.

(e) *Rent* (monthly). The index is obtained by taking the ratio of the monthly rent of a typical dwelling occupied by a worker's family in Lima, to the corresponding figure for the base period.

Poland (Warsaw). *Statystyka Cen.* (Central Office of Statistics.)

(a) *Cost of living* (monthly). The general index is obtained by taking the ratio of the sum of expenditures calculated for the four group indexes below and two others (for alcohol and tobacco, and " other expenditure ") to the corresponding sum for the original base period: 1928 = 100.

(b) *Food* (monthly). The retail prices of 85 articles are collected by the Warsaw municipal authorities in the last week of each month and are used to calculate the cost of a theoretical budget, based on a family budget enquiry of 1927 and representative of the average food consumption per unit in the country as a whole. The index is the ratio of the sum thus calculated to the corresponding sum calculated for the base period.

(c) *Heating and lighting* (monthly). The index is calculated from the prices of 4 articles by the same method as that used for the food index.

(d) *Clothing* (monthly). The index is calculated from the prices of 6 articles by the same method as that used for the food index.

(e) *Rent* (quarterly). The index shows the changes in the monthly rent of a dwelling consisting of two rooms and a kitchen.

Portugal. *Boletim Mensal.* (Central Office of Statistics.)

Food (monthly). Retail prices are collected throughout the continental territory on the 15th of the month for 61 articles, including 30 foodstuffs of vegetable origin, 21 foodstuffs of animal origin, and 10 articles for heating and lighting (including soap). The unweighted arithmetic average of the relative prices of each article gives the index. Original basis: June 1914 = 100.

Rhodesia, Southern. *Economic and Statistical Bulletin of Southern Rhodesia.* (Government Statistical Bureau.)

(a) *Cost of living* (monthly). The general index is an average of the two indexes below, weighted in the following proportions: food and heating and lighting, 2; rent, 1. Original base of the index: 1914 = 100.

(b) and (c) *Food,* and *heating and lighting* (monthly). The prices of various qualities of 38 articles (including 5 items for heating and lighting, and soap) are collected each month from 117 retailers in 6 towns, and the average price of each article is weighted according to the European population of the town. These average prices are then multiplied by the quantities of a representative family budget, and the index is obtained by taking the ratio of the sum of these products to the corresponding sum for the base year.

(e) *Rent* (at irregular intervals). The rent index is based on the results of special enquiries made from time to time concerning dwellings of 3, 4, and 5 rooms, in three towns or in Buluwayo only (where the general movement of rents is regarded as representative of the whole territory). The index is obtained by taking the ratio of the average monthly rents at different dates to the corresponding rent for the base year.

Rumania. *Bulletin d'information et de documentation.* (National Bank of Rumania.)

(a) *Cost of living* (monthly). The general index, calculated by the State Institute of General Statistics, is obtained by taking the simple arithmetic mean of relative prices of articles of food, heating and lighting, clothing and of rent. No group index, other than for food, is published. Original basis: 1913 = 100.

(b) *Food* (monthly). The index, based on the prices of 37 articles collected in 20 towns, is calculated by the same method as the general index.

Saar Territory. Communication to the International Labour Office.

The methods of calculating the index numbers are the same as those adopted by the *Statistisches Reichsamt* (see note on Germany above). This territory has been incorporated to Germany since 1 March 1935. Original basis: July 1914 = 100.

Sweden. *Sociala Meddelanden.* (Labour and Social Board.)

(a) *Cost of living* (quarterly). The expenditures calculated for the four groups below and for two others (taxation and miscellaneous expenses) are added together, with due allowance for the expenditure on articles not included in

the calculation, and the index is obtained by taking the ratio of this sum to the corresponding sum for the base year: 1931. This index—as well as the group indexes—is then linked up with the old index on the original basis: July 1914 = 100.

(b) *Food* (monthly). The average retail prices of 43 articles (including tobacco) are collected in 49 towns and multiplied by the quantities consumed per " normal family " of 3.3 units as shown by the family budget enquiry of 1922-1923. The ratio of the expenditure thus calculated to the corresponding figures for the base period gives the index.

(c) *Heating and lighting* (monthly). The prices of 9 articles are collected in 49 towns and the index is calculated by the same method as for the food index.

(d) *Clothing* (quarterly). The prices of 18 articles are collected and the index is calculated by the same method as for the food index.

(e) *Rent* (quarterly). An estimate is made of the movement of the general level of rents.

Switzerland. *La Vie Economique.* (Federal Department of Public Economy.)

(a) *Cost of living* (monthly). The general index is obtained by taking the weighted average of the four group indexes below; the weights representing the percentage of expenditure of a worker's family, as ascertained from family budget enquiries carried out in 1912, 1920 and 1921, are as follows: food, 57; heating and lighting, 7; clothing, 15; rents, 21 per cent. Original basis: June 1914 = 100.

(b) *Food* (monthly). The most current retail prices of 28 articles are collected at the end of each month in 34 towns and are multiplied by quantities representing the annual average consumption of a family, as ascertained from the budget enquiries of 1912, 1920 and 1931. The simple arithmetic average is then taken of the sum of these products for each town and the ratio of this average to the corresponding figure for the base period gives the index.

(c) *Heating and lighting* (monthly). The index based on the prices of 8 articles (including soap) is calculated by the same method as the food index.

(d) *Clothing* (half-yearly). The retail prices of 30 articles of clothing belonging to 4 sub-groups (dresses, linen, boot and shoes, and repairs of boots and shoes) are collected twice a year from a great number of retailers of the important towns. An average percentage change is first calculated for each article, by taking the ratio of each price quoted to the price quoted at the preceding period for the same quality of article and by taking the simple average of these percentages; the average percentage change for each sub-group is then calculated by simple arithmetic mean and further the average percentage for the whole group by weighted arithmetic mean. The index is then obtained by the " chain system ".

(e) *Rents* (yearly). The index of rents since 1913 is ascertained in 27 towns in May of each year, taking into account the number of the old or new constructions in the various towns. The index for the country is obtained by taking the average of the variations of each town, weighted according to the population.

Czechoslovakia

(1) PRAGUE. *Cenové Zpravy.* (Statistical Office.)

(a) *Cost of living* (monthly). The general index is obtained by taking the ratio of the sum of the expenditure calculated for the four group indexes below and for an index of " miscellaneous expenditure " (including 16 articles) to the corresponding figure for the original base period: July 1914 = 100.

(b) *Food* (monthly). The most usual retail prices of 35 articles are collected for the week nearest the middle of the month, and are used to calculate the cost of the monthly consumption of a working-class family of 5 persons as ascertained by a family budget enquiry covering 79 families in 1927-1928. The ratio of this sum to the corresponding figure for July 1914 gives the index.

(c) *Heating and lighting* (monthly). The index is based on the prices of 10 articles (including soap); the method is the same as for the food index.

(d) *Clothing* (monthly). The index is based on the prices of 41 articles; the method is the same as for the food index.

(e) *Rent* (monthly). The index indicates the changes in the rent of a dwelling in Prague consisting of one room and a kitchen, allowing for changes in the relative numbers of old and new houses.

(2) WHOLE COUNTRY. *Ibidem.*

(b) *Food* (monthly). A similar index is calculated for the whole country on the basis of average prices weighted according to the population of the towns considered.

Turkey (Istanbul). *Istanbul Geçinne indeksi.* (Istanbul Chamber of Commerce and Industry.)

(a) *Cost of living* (monthly). The general index is obtained by taking the ratio of the expenditures calculated for the four groups below and for two others (miscellaneous and insurance) to the corresponding figure for the original base period: 1st half-year 1914 = 100.

(b) *Food* (monthly). The retail prices of 22 articles (including drinking water) are used to calculate the food expenditure of a family of 5 persons on the basis of a theoretical budget. The ratio of the sum thus calculated to the corresponding sum for the base period gives the index.

(c) *Heating and lighting* (monthly). The index is based on 5 articles (including soap and water other than for drinking). The method is the same as that used for the food index.

(d) *Clothing* (monthly). The index, which includes 3 groups of articles (clothing, boots and shoes, furniture), is based on an estimate of the expenditure of a family of 5 persons. The ratio of this sum to the corresponding figure for the base period gives the index.

(e) *Rent* (monthly). The ratio of the monthly rent of a separate house of 4 rooms in a modest quarter to the corresponding rent for the base period gives the index.

Union of South Africa. *Monthly Bulletin of Union Statistics.* (Office of Census and Statistics.)

(a) *Cost of living* (monthly). In order to obtain the general index, the cost of the national consumption (European) of food, calculated for the index below, is added to the cost of fuel and light, calculated by the same method as for the food expenditure, and to the estimated total of rents paid by European occupants throughout the country; the cost of " sundries " is then added on the assumption that the expenditure for these various articles is approximately one-third of the total preceding expenditure. The index is obtained by taking the ratio of this sum to the corresponding figure for 1910 and this index is then recalculated on the original base period: 1914 = 100.

(b) *Food* (monthly). The monthly average prices for 18 articles are supplied by representative retail dealers of 9 large towns. Indexes are computed for each town by weighting the average prices by figures showing the national consumption of food (average for the years 1922-1924) by Europeans and coloured persons who have adopted a European dietary. A Dominion index is then calculated by taking the average of the town indexes, weighted according to the European population of each town.

Yugoslavia

(1) BELGRADE. *Quarterly Bulletin.* (National Bank of the Kingdom of Yugoslavia.)

(a) *Cost of living* (monthly). The general index is obtained by taking the simple arithmetic average of the relative prices of 100 articles belonging to the three groups below and to a fourth group of " miscellaneous expenditure ". Original base: 1926 = 100.

(b) *Food* (monthly). The group index, which is based on 65 articles, is a simple arithmetic average of the indexes for the three following sub-groups:

agricultural products, industrial products, colonial products, which are themselves obtained by taking a simple arithmetic average of the relative prices of the different articles.

(c) *Heating and lighting* (monthly). The index is obtained by taking the simple arithmetic average of the relative prices of 8 articles.

(d) *Clothing* (monthly). The index is obtained by taking the simple arithmetic average of the relative prices of 20 articles.

(2) CROATIA AND SLAVONIA. *Index.* (Zagreb Chamber of Labour.)

(a) *Cost of living* (monthly). The expenditures calculated for the four groups below, increased by 10 per cent. to allow for miscellaneous expenses, are added together, and the index is obtained by taking the ratio of this sum to the corresponding sum for the original base period: July 1914 = 100.

(b) *Food* (monthly). The retail prices of 18 articles collected in 3 towns in Croatia and Slavonia are used to calculate the cost of the theoretical consumption of a family of 4 persons. The ratio of the sum so calculated to the corresponding sum for the base period gives the index.

(c) *Heating and lighting* (monthly). The index is based on 2 articles. The method is the same as that used for the food index.

(d) *Clothing* (monthly). The index is based on 7 groups of articles and represents the expenditure of an adult man, increased by 80 per cent. so as to allow for the needs of a wife and 2 children.

(e) *Rent* (monthly). The index is obtained by taking the ratio of the monthly rent of a dwelling of two rooms (room and kitchen) to the corresponding figure for the base period.

TABLE XIV

RETAIL PRICES OF ARTICLES OF COMMON CONSUMPTION (IN OCTOBER 1934)

Sources. — Most of the data contained in table XIV have been obtained by the International Labour Office directly from the competent statistical services—national or municipal—of the different countries. For two countries the data have been taken from official publications:

Germany. *Wirtschaft und Statistik* (Statistisches Reichsamt), *Berliner Wirtschaftsberichte* (Statistisches Amt der Stadt Berlin), *Aus Hamburgs Verwaltung und Wirtschaft* (Statistisches Landesamt).

Italy. *Bollettini dei Prezzi* (Central Institute of Statistics).

TABLE XV

RENTS OF DWELLINGS OF DIFFERENT KINDS IN DIFFERENT TOWNS (IN 1934)

Sources. — Except where specified in the following notes, data contained in table XV have been obtained by the International Labour Office directly from the competent statistical services—national or municipal—of different countries.

Australia (two towns).

Data taken from those collected in the course of the enquiry for the calculation of the cost-of-living index number. Monthly amounts calculated by the International Labour Office from weekly rents (by multiplying them by 4.33).

No charges for water, etc., nor taxes.

Austria (Vienna).

Data collected by the Vienna Housing Office and relating exclusively to " municipal dwellings ", occupied mainly by working-class families. They cover 65,000 dwellings, or more than 10 per cent. of all dwellings in the urban area. Dwellings consisting of one room, a " Kabinett " (small room with a window), and a kitchen are counted as three-roomed dwellings, and dwellings consisting of one room, two " Kabinetts ", and a kitchen as four-roomed.

Including charges for water and cleaning, and taxes.

Canada (six towns).

Most of the dwellings are equipped with modern conveniences (bathroom, lavatory, water supply, kitchen sink). Dwellings without such conveniences are usually in suburban areas. In Montreal, most working-class dwellings are flats in two- or three-storied buildings. In Ottawa, Toronto, Vancouver, and Winnipeg, most of them are houses, either detached or in blocks of two, three or four, and in Halifax about half are flats and half houses.

Including water rate (estimated by the Department of Labour), except in Ottawa and Vancouver, where this rate is paid by the landlord.

Denmark (Copenhagen).

Monthly amounts calculated by the International Labour Office from net annual rents. The data available do not allow a distinction to be made between dwellings with and without a bathroom, but the latter represent the following percentage of all dwellings of each size: dwellings of two rooms, 11.3 per cent.; three rooms, 9.1 per cent.; four rooms, 20.1 per cent.; five rooms, 26.4 per cent.; six or more rooms, 54 per cent.

No charges for water, etc., nor taxes.

Spain.

Approximate figures for rents of working-class dwellings.

For Barcelona, for dwellings without a bathroom, no charges for water; for dwellings with a bathroom, charges for water varying with the amount consumed are added to the rent; no taxes. For Bilbao, for old dwellings, built over thirty years ago, no charges for water, but for modern dwellings charges of 0.30 pesetas per m^3. are added to the rent; no taxes. For Valencia, including taxes; charges for water, etc., data for which are not available, are added to the rent.

Estonia (Tallinn).

In the data relating to " all dwellings " most one- and two-roomed dwellings may be regarded as working-class dwellings. Those consisting of one room have no separate kitchen, but have some kind of cooking arrangements. The data available do not allow a distinction to be made between dwellings with and without a bathroom. As a rule each house contains a bathroom or vapour bath of some kind, which is shared by several tenants.

Including charges for water, etc.; no taxes.

Finland (Helsinki).

The data available do not allow a distinction to be made between dwellings with and without a bathroom.

No charges for water, etc., nor taxes.

France (three towns).

In Lille, the predominant type of working-class dwelling is the one-family house with five rooms (with water, gas, and lavatory). In Lyons and Paris, most of them are flats in buildings of three, four, or five stories, conveniences (water, gas, electricity, lavatory) varying according to the age of the building.

Including charges for water, etc.; in Lyons, including house tax also.

Great Britain (7 towns).

Monthly figures calculated from approximate average weekly rents (by multiplying them by 4.33) of predominant types of working-class dwellings. For London, as working-class families sharing a structurally separate dwelling (separate architectural unit) are much more numerous than those in sole occupation of a structurally separate dwelling, the rents relate to the number of rooms actually occupied. The available statistics do not enable a distinction to be made between dwellings with and without a bathroom, but dwellings without a bathroom are in a large majority.

The houses without bathrooms for which rents are quoted are pre-war houses, and rents quoted are average rents of controlled and decontrolled dwellings, taken in the approximate proportions in which these classes of dwellings exist in each town. The rents quoted for houses with bathrooms relate in the majority of cases to new houses built since the war, but a considerable minority relate to pre-war houses.

With regard to the differences between rents of dwellings with bathroom, and rents of dwellings with the same number of rooms but without bathroom, it is important to note that these differences are not solely attributable to the provision of a bathroom, which is usually accompanied by other amenities and denotes a superior quality of housing generally.

In London dwellings of less than 4 rooms are mostly parts of houses, and there is only a small proportion of self-contained flats; dwellings of 4 rooms are either separate houses or parts of houses, or much less frequently self-contained flats; dwellings of 5 rooms are separate houses. In Birmingham, Bristol, Leeds, and Manchester, the great majority of dwellings are separate houses. In Newcastle the majority are self-contained flats, each flat consisting of one floor of a two-floored building. In Glasgow the majority of dwellings are self-contained flats in tenement buildings.

It should be noted that the types of working-class dwellings, and the nature of the accommodation provided, vary widely in different towns, and that these variations may partly account for the differences in the average rents quoted for dwellings with the same number of rooms.

Including water rate and other local rates.

Hungary (Budapest).

No charges for water, etc., nor taxes.

Irish Free State (three towns).

For dwellings of one to three rooms in Dublin and for three-roomed dwellings in Cork and Dundalk, monthly amounts calculated by the International Labour Office from weekly rents (by multiplying them by 4.33).

Including charges for water, etc., and taxes.

Italy (six towns).

Data relating to working-class dwellings collected in each town for the purpose of calculating cost-of-living indexes, and calculated by the International Labour Office from average annual rents per room for dwellings of different sizes.

Including charges for water, etc., and taxes.

Latvia (Riga).

In the data relating to " all dwellings " it may be assumed that it is mostly two-roomed dwellings that are occupied by working-class families.

Including charges for water, etc., and taxes.

Norway (Oslo).

The data available do not allow a distinction to be made between dwellings with and without a bathroom. The data relating to working-class dwellings refer to dwellings in two parishes mainly inhabited by the working classes,

containing 8,903 dwellings in all. In one of these parishes most of the dwellings are in old buildings, while in the other a large proportion are in new buildings.
No charges for water, etc., nor taxes.

Netherlands (three towns).

Monthly amounts calculated by the International Labour Office from weekly rents (by multiplying them by 4.33).
For Amsterdam and The Hague, including charges for water, etc., but no taxes; for Utrecht, no charges for water, etc., but including taxes on four-, five-, and six-roomed dwellings.

Poland (Warsaw).

In the data relating to " all dwellings " dwellings of one and two rooms may be regarded as working-class dwellings in the strict sense.
No charges for water, etc.; including taxes.

Sweden (three towns).

The data available do not allow a distinction to be made between dwellings with and without a bathroom, but only between those with and without central heating. Generally speaking, however, it may be assumed that dwellings with central heating are new or modernised, and also have a bathroom.
No charges for water, etc., nor taxes.

Switzerland (four towns).

For Geneva the data are taken from the *Rapport du Bureau de Statistique pendant l'année 1933*; they make no distinction between dwellings with and without a bathroom.
For all four towns, no charges for water, etc., nor taxes.

Czechoslovakia (Prague).

Data collected for the calculation of the official cost-of-living indexes.
Two-roomed dwellings (usually with a lavatory and small bathroom) may be regarded as the normal type of working-class dwelling, and three-roomed dwellings as the normal type of salaried employee's dwelling.
Including charges for water, etc., and taxes.

Yugoslavia (four towns).

In Novisad, working-class dwellings usually consist of a single room.
For Belgrade, no charges for water, etc., nor taxes. For Novisad, including charges for water, etc., and taxes. For Skoplje, a water rate of 6 dinars per m³. is added to the rent; no taxes. For Split, including charges for water, etc., but not including taxes, which are added to the rent, and vary from 12 to 24 per cent. of the rent of the dwellings according to their age.

TABLES XVI AND XVII

Summary of Results of Principal Workers' Family Budgets Enquiries

Sources

Germany. *Die Lebenshaltung von 2.000 Arbeiter, Angestellten und Beamtenhaushaltungen; Erhebungen von Wirtschaftsrechnungen im Deutschen Reich vom Jahre 1927-28, Teil I.II.* Statistisches Reichsamt. (Einzelschriften zur Statistik der Deutschen Reichs, No. 22.) Berlin, 1932.

Austria (Vienna). *Wirtschaftsstatistisches Jahrbuch 1932-33*, 9. Jahrgang, Kammer für Arbeiter und Angestellte in Wien. Vienna, 1934.

Belgium. *Résultats principaux d'une enquête sur les budgets ouvriers et d'employés en Belgique (1928-1929).* Armand Julin, Ministère du Travail et de la Prévoyance Sociale. (Communication to the XXIInd session of the International Institute of Statistics, London, 1934.)

Bulgaria. *Annuaire statistique du Royaume de Bulgarie, XXIIIe année, 1931.* General Directorate of Statistics.

China. *Livelihood in Peking, 1926-1927.* L. K. Tao. Social Research Department, China Foundation for the Promotion of Education and Culture. Peking, 1928.

Denmark. *Statistiske Efterretninger*, No. 24, July 1933. Statistical Bureau.

Estonia. *Budgets des familles ouvrières en 1925; enquête budgétaire parmi les ouvriers de Tallinn et Narva.* Central Statistical Bureau.

United States. " *Standard of Living of Employees of Ford Motor Co. in Detroit, 1929* ", in *Monthly Labour Review*, June 1930. United States Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Finland. *Social Tidskrift, Dec. 1932 and Dec. 1933.* Central Statistical Bureau.

Great Britain. *The Social Survey of Merseyside.* (Edited by D. C. Jones, The School of Administration, University of Liverpool, and others. Vol. I.) London, Liverpool University Press, 1934.

India. *Report on an Enquiry into Working-Class Family Budgets in Ahmedabad, 1926.* Bombay, Government of Bombay, Labour Office, 1928.

Japan. *Kakei chosa hokoku 1931-1932.* (Report on the enquiry on family budgets in 1931-1932). Statistical Bureau of the Cabinet. Tokyo, 1933.

Latvia. *Méthode nouvelle du calcul des nombres-indices du coût de la vie.* Statistical Bureau of the State of Latvia. Riga, 1931.

Mexico. *Un Estudio del Costo de la Vida.* Mexico, Fredrico Bach (El Trimestre Economico), 1935.

Norway. *Husholdningsrekenskap 1927-1928.* Central Office of Statistics. (Norges Officielle Statistikk, VIII.103.) Oslo, 1929.

Poland. *Budgets des familles ouvrières: Résultats de l'enquête effectuée à Varsovie, à Lodz, dans le bassin de Dabrowa et en Haute-Silésie, 1927, 1928, 1929, Vol. XL, Parties I et II.* Central Bureau of Statistics. Warsaw, 1930.

Sweden. *Levnadsvillkor- och hushållsvanor i städer och industriorter omkring år 1933.* Social Board. (Sociala Meddelanden, Ser. F, Band 44, Häft 12.) December 1934.

Czechoslovakia. *Zprávy Statního Úřadu Statistického Republiky Československé, année 1933: Nos. 138-143, 199-207, 221-225; année 1934: Nos. 31-34, 35-38.* Statistical Bureau.

U.S.S.R. *Communication sur l'unification des méthodes des enquêtes sur les budgets ouvriers.* Poliak and Bineman, Moscow 1929. (Communication to the XIIIth session of the International Institute of Statistics.)

V. — EMIGRATION AND IMMIGRATION

TABLES XVIII AND XIX

EUROPE

Germany: *Die überseeische Aus- und Einwanderung in . . .* ; *Statistisches Jahrbuch für das deutsche Reich*, and *Wirtschaft und Statistik* (Statistisches Reichsamt); Annual reports communicated by the Federal Statistical Office and the Federal Institution for Employment Exchanges.

I. Port Statistics

These statistics refer to migration through certain German and foreign ports; they give a fairly complete record of German oversea emigration, but include also a certain number of continental emigrants by sea.

Emigration. As emigrants are considered persons who have resided in Germany for at least one year and are going abroad through the ports of Hamburg, Bremen, Danzig, Antwerp, Amsterdam, and Rotterdam, with the intention of settling abroad for at least one year. For intercontinental emigration particulars are given separately of nationals and of aliens having resided in Germany for at least a year; figures are also given of continental emigration of nationals through the ports of Hamburg and Bremen.

Immigration. This series refers to German nationals arriving at the ports of Hamburg and Bremen. A certain number of persons coming from European ports may thus be included in these statistics, which are here considered as referring to intercontinental immigration.

II. Statistics of Identity Cards

The statistics are based on the number of identity cards issued to foreign workers by the German Central Office for Workers (*Deutsche Arbeiterzentrale*); they refer mainly to seasonal immigrants in agriculture, but include also a small proportion of industrial workers, most of whom have in fact been settled in Germany for some years without interruption. They do not give a complete record of continental immigration, particularly as the activity of the Office does not extend to the States of Bavaria, Saxony, Württemberg, Baden, Oldenburg, and Bremen.

Austria: *Statistisches Handbuch für die Republik Österreich*, and *Statistische Nachrichten* (Bundesamt für Statistik); Annual reports communicated by the Federal Chancellor (Bureau of Migration).

I. Passport Statistics

Emigration. These statistics are compiled on the basis of passports issued to emigrants; they are checked by means of immigration statistics of other countries, and by lists of emigrants who have actually left the country as communicated by certain shipping companies. As emigrants are considered nationals who leave the country for non-European countries (including Turkey and the Union of Soviet Republics) with the intention of settling permanently or seeking work.

II. Statistics of Work Permits

Immigration. These statistics are based on the number of new work permits issued to employers of foreign workers of European origin. Most seasonal immigrants are not included.

Belgium: *Bulletin trimestriel* (Ministère de l'Intérieur et de l'Hygiène, Bureau de la Statistique générale); Annual reports communicated by the Statistical Office of the Ministry of the Interior and of Health.

Statistics of Local Registers

The statistics are based on the compulsory declaration of change of residence to the municipal population registers. With the exception of frontier workers,

persons temporarily employed outside Belgium are recorded in the statistics as emigrants.

Emigration. A distinction is made between intercontinental and continental emigration of nationals (defined as persons born in Belgium) and aliens (persons born in foreign countries).

Immigration. A distinction is made between intercontinental and continental immigration of nationals (persons born in Belgium) and aliens (persons born in foreign countries).

Bulgaria. *Bulletin mensuel de statistique* (Central Statistical Office)

Statistics of Registration Coupons

The statistics are based on special cards issued to all travellers, which are filled in under the supervision of passport offices in Bulgaria or consular authorities abroad; they are collected at the frontier at the moment of exit or entry, and forwarded to the Department of Statistics for tabulation. No distinction is made between nationals and aliens.

Emigration. Figures are given for intercontinental and continental emigration. Emigrants who have not declared their country of destination are considered as intercontinental emigrants.

Immigration. Figures are given for intercontinental and continental immigration; as intercontinental immigrants are considered immigrants arriving from the United States and " unspecified " countries.

Denmark: *Statistiske Efterretninger* (Department of Statistics).

Statistics of Local Registers.

These statistics are based on registration at the local population registers of persons taking up or relinquishing domicile in Denmark, and since 1933 they are based on individual returns from the migrants. Distinction is made between continental and inter-continental movements and since 1933 information is also obtained as to the country of birth of the migrants. The statistics include a small number of temporary migrants.

Emigration. This series gives the number of persons who register their intention of relinquishing domicile in Denmark. Owing to the fact that some persons emigrate without registration, the emigration figures are somewhat too low.

Immigration. This series gives the number of persons who upon arrival in Denmark register as intending taking up domicile in Denmark.

Estonia: *Eesti Statistika* (Central Statistical Office).

Passport Statistics

Emigration. The statistics are compiled by means of a special questionnaire which is filled in by all persons desiring to obtain a passport in order to go abroad. As emigrants are considered Estonian nationals who apply for passports with the intention of going abroad and settling there permanently. A distinction is made between continental and intercontinental migration.

Spain: *Estadistica General de la Migración Española* (Ministry of Labour and Welfare, Emigration Service).

I. Port Statistics

Emigration. As emigrants are considered Spaniards or their families who leave the country in order to settle abroad permanently or temporarily for purposes of employment. Spaniards or their families travelling to oversea countries are always deemed to be emigrants if they travel third class or in a class equivalent thereto.

Upon written request supported by documentary evidence the following may be considered as non-emigrants: theatrical artistes who have a contract in the country of destination; commercial travellers; servants travelling with their employers; emigrants already established in an immigration country who visit Spain temporarily and are returning to the country of immigration; emigrants domiciled in Spain who have already been at least twice in the country to which they are going.

The series of intercontinental emigration of nationals includes the following categories: intercontinental emigration of nationals through Spanish ports; emigration of nationals through the ports of Gibraltar, Oporto, and Lisbon; emigration of nationals through foreign ports not mentioned above; and emigration of nationals to the countries of North Africa (excluding the Spanish zone of Morocco).

The series of intercontinental emigration of aliens refers to foreign emigrants embarking in Spanish ports for oversea countries.

Immigration. The series of intercontinental immigration of nationals refers to Spanish immigrants landing in Spanish ports, or returning to Spain through ports outside the Pyrenean peninsula, or returning from the countries of North Africa (excluding the Spanish zone of Morocco) after a fairly long stay in those countries.

The series of intercontinental immigration of aliens refers to foreign immigrants coming from an oversea country and disembarking in a Spanish port.

II. Statistics of Safe Conducts

Emigration. This series refers to emigration of nationals to France; it includes a considerable number of seasonal labourers.

Immigration. This series refers to Spanish immigrants returning from France.

Finland: *Emigrationsstatistik* (Central Statistical Office).

Passport Statistics

Emigration. The statistics are based on the passports issued to emigrants; they are checked by means of lists of passengers having left the country, which are furnished by the marine transport agencies in Finland. As emigrants are considered Finnish nationals who leave the country and go abroad " in order to earn their living during a considerable period of time ". A distinction is made between intercontinental and continental emigration.

France: *Annuaire Statistique* (Statistique générale de la France); *Bulletin du Marché du Travail* (Ministère du Travail et de la Prévoyance Sociale).

I. Port Statistics

Emigration. The statistics, which are supplied by the Minister of the Interior, refer to persons departing for North and South America from certain important French seaports. As emigrants are considered Frenchmen " who go to settle abroad for a long period, including those who leave without intention to return. "

II. Statistics of Frontier Control

The statistics compiled by frontier control stations of the Ministries of the Interior, of Labour, and of Agriculture relate to arrivals and departures of foreign workers.

Emigration. This series refers to alien workers returning to European countries.

Immigration. This series refers to alien workers coming to France from other European countries.

Great Britain and Northern Ireland: *Board of Trade Journal* (Board of Trade); *Aliens' Restriction Acts, 1914* and *1919*; *Aliens Order, 1920: Statistics in regard to Alien Passengers who Entered and Left the United Kingdom in . . .* (Home Office).

I. Port Statistics

These statistics are compiled on the basis of passenger lists which the masters of ships carrying passengers between the United Kingdom and places outside Europe and not within the Mediterranean Sea are required to furnish to the Board of Trade. Distinction is made between nationals and aliens.

Emigration. As emigrants are considered persons who leave permanent residence (one year or more) in the United Kingdom to take up permanent residence (one year or more) in a country outside Europe and not within the Mediterranean Sea.

Immigration. As immigrants are considered persons who come to the United Kingdom with the intention of remaining there for at least one year after leaving permanent residence (one year or more) in a country outside Europe and not within the Mediterranean Sea.

II. Statistics of Frontier Control

Immigration. These statistics are based on the control of alien passengers entering the United Kingdom undertaken in pursuance of the Aliens' Restriction Acts, 1914 and 1919, and the Alien's Order, 1920; they refer to alien passengers holding " Ministry of Labour Permits " (including dependants). Most of these permits are valid only for specified periods. The statistics refer to continental immigration.

Greece: *Bulletin mensuel de statistique* (Central Statistical Office).

Statistics of Frontier Control

These statistics are based on individual forms filled in for every person crossing the frontier by land, sea, or air. These forms are centralised at the Central Office for Passport Control, which puts them at the disposal of the Central Statistical Office for tabulation.

Emigration. As emigrants are considered nationals (and their dependants) who leave the country with a view to settling in a foreign country and earning their living there. Aliens who leave the country after a stay of more than five months are considered as emigrants. A distinction is made between intercontinental and continental emigration of nationals and aliens. By intercontinental emigration is understood emigration to oversea countries, including " other Mediterranean countries " (i.e. Asia Minor and the north coast of Africa as far as the Straits of Gibraltar) and emigration to unspecified countries.

Immigration. As immigrants are considered persons (and their dependants) intending to take up permanent residence in Greece. persons entering with a work permit, and tourists after more than five months of residence in Greece. A distinction is made, as above, between intercontinental and continental immigration of both nationals and aliens.

Hungary: *Monthly Bulletin of Statistics* (Central Statistical Office); Annual reports communicated by the Hungarian Commissioner for Migration, Ministry of the Interior.

I. Statistics of Transport Contracts

Emigration. These statistics are compiled on the basis of lists supplied by the transport agencies. An emigrant is defined as any national who goes to countries outside Europe with a view to finding permanent employment there.

II. Statistics of Local Registers

Immigration. These statistics are based on entries in the local population registers: they record Hungarian nationals returning from " America ".

Irish Free State: *Irish Trade Journal* (Department of Industry and Commerce).

Port Statistics

Emigration. As emigrants are considered persons who, after residing for more than one year in the Irish Free State, embark at ports of the Irish Free State or of the United Kingdom for a country outside Europe and not within the Mediterranean Sea, with the intention of settling there for at least one year. A distinction is made between nationals (emigrants of Saorstat and British nationality) of the Irish Free State and aliens.

Immigration. Immigrants are defined as persons returning after a stay of at least one year in a country outside Europe and not within the Mediterranean Sea, with the intention of residing for a year or more in the Irish Free State. Separate particulars are given for nationals (immigrants of Saorstat and British nationality) and aliens.

Italy: *Bollettino mensile di Statistica* (Central Statistical Institute).

Statistics of Registration Coupons and Port Statistics

The Italian statistics have since 1928 been compiled according to new principles. The series for earlier years are not strictly comparable with those for later years, owing to changes in the methods of compiling the data, but especially owing to the fact that Italians naturalised in foreign countries are now excluded from the statistics and recorded separately. In 1931 the number of such emigrants was 15,144 and of immigrants 14,063.

The statistics are at present collected according to a combination of methods. Broadly speaking this may be described as a combination of statistics of registration coupons, attached to emigrants' passports, and detached by the various authorities in connection with the passport control at the ports and land frontier stations, and port statistics.

Emigration. Emigrants are defined as persons " who leave the country to go abroad in order to work or to join their parents who have already emigrated for the same purpose, except persons belonging to the following categories: teachers, manufacturers, traders, persons of independent means, and persons having definite and well-paid employment."

A distinction is made between emigration of nationals to European countries (inclusive of countries in the Mediterranean Sea) and to oversea countries. Before 1931 the data were collected on the basis of the passports issued by the Royal Chancelleries; from January 1931 onwards intercontinental emigration is recorded by means of lists of emigrants supplied by the navigation companies for those leaving from Italian ports, supplemented by returns based on slips detached from the books of coupons attached to the emigrants' passports, for those emigrating from foreign ports, or embarking at Italian ports on ships which are not licensed ordinarily to carry passengers; the statistics of continental emigration are based on slips detached from the books of coupons attached to the emigrants' passports at Italian ports or at the land frontier stations.

Immigration. A distinction is made between immigration of nationals from European countries (inclusive of countries in the Mediterranean Sea) and from oversea countries. Before 1931 the date of continental immigration were obtained by means of passport control on the basis of coupons detached from the books of coupons attached to the passports, at the land frontier stations, and at the ports for those arriving from countries in the Mediterranean basin. Statistics of intercontinental immigration were compiled on the basis of passenger lists supplied by the navigation companies for those disembarking at Italian ports, supplemented by means of passport control on the basis of coupons detached from the books of coupons attached to the passports, at the land frontier stations for those arriving at foreign ports or at the ports for those disembarking at Italian ports from ships other than licensed passenger ships.

From January 1931 onwards the statistics of continental immigration are based on slips detached from the books of coupons attached to the immigrants' passports at Italian ports or at the land frontier stations. Intercontinental

immigration is recorded by means of lists of immigrants supplied by the navigation companies for those arriving in Italian ports, supplemented by returns based on slips detached from the books of coupons attached to the immigrants' passports for those arriving at foreign ports or disembarking at Italian ports from ships which are not licensed ordinarily to carry passengers.

Lithuania: *Statistikos Biuletenis* (Central Statistical Office).

Passport Statistics

Emigration. The statistics are compiled at the moment of issue of the passports by means of special forms filled in by all emigrants. As an emigrant is considered every person who leaves the country with the intention of settling permanently abroad. Data are given for nationals and aliens going to oversea countries (which are taken to include the U.S.S.R.).

Luxemburg: Communication from the Government of the Grand Duchy of Luxemburg.

Statistics of Transport Contracts

Emigration. These statistics are based on the returns of emigration agents as to the number of persons, nationals and aliens, who leave the country with the intention of settling in an oversea country. The statistics omit emigrants who leave the country without giving a declaration as to the purpose of their journey.

Malta and Gozo: *Annual Report of the Emigration Department.*

Passport Statistics

Emigration. As emigrants are considered British subjects born in Malta and Gozo leaving the islands except for the purpose of travel or business; the data are based on returns of applications for passports made to the Emigration Office. Intercontinental emigrants are emigrants leaving for countries other than France and the United Kingdom; emigrants to these two countries are considered as continental emigrants.

Immigration. As immigrants are considered British subjects born in Malta and Gozo arriving in either of the two islands and registered at the Emigration Office; they are subdivided as above into continental and intercontinental immigrants.

Norway: *Statistiske Meddelelser* (Central Statistical Office).

I. Statistics of Transport Contracts

Emigration. The statistics are based on transport contracts of persons emigrating from Norwegian ports. As emigrants are considered Norwegian nationals and aliens having their domicile in Norway who are going to oversea countries with the intention of settling there.

II. Statistics of Local Registers

Immigration. These series, which were compiled up to 1929, are based on the registers, kept by the local police authorities, of Norwegian nationals and aliens arriving in Norway with the intention of settling permanently and finding work there. A distinction was made between continental and intercontinental immigration.

Netherlands: *Jaarcijfers voor Nederland* (Central Statistical Office).

Statistics of Local Registers

The statistics are based on declarations of residence, and include not only the persons removed from, or added to, the local registers who have declared their departure to, or arrival from, another country (including the oversea territories of the Netherlands), but also a number of persons removed from

or added to, the registers on the assumption that they have left, or arrived in, the country. This latter category amounted to 2,614 (emigration) and 5,319 (immigration) in 1931. A small portion of these may not be emigrants or immigrants, but may have come from or settled in some other place in the Netherlands.

Emigration. No distinction is made between nationals and aliens, nor between oversea and continental emigration.

Immigration. No distinction is made between nationals and aliens, nor between oversea and continental immigration.

Poland: *Biuletyn urzedu emigracyjnego w sprawach migracji i osadnictwa*, and *Statistique du Travail* (Central Statistical Office).

Statistics of Registration Coupons

The Polish statistics of migration are based on registration coupons detached from migrants' passports by the frontier control stations. The coupons are issued by the authorities establishing the passports or by the Polish Consulates abroad.

Emigration. As emigrants are considered Polish nations who leave the country for the purpose of seeking permanent or seasonal employment, or to take up a position or settle as a colonist, or to join his or her spouse or relatives who have previously emigrated, and further any person leaving Poland to stay in a foreign country with an emigrant of whose family he is a member. Persons leaving the country for occasional employment are not deemed to be emigrants. A distinction is made between intercontinental and continental emigration.

Immigration. These statistics refer to emigrants of Polish nationality returning to Poland from European or oversea countries.

Portugal: *Boletim de Emigraçao* (Ministry of the Interior).

Port Statistics

Emigration. The statistics cover third-class passengers of Portuguese nationality embarking at the ports of Lisbon and Oporto.

Immigration. The statistics cover third-class passengers of Portuguese nationality disembarking at the ports of Lisbon and Oporto.

Rumania: *Buletinul Muncii* (Ministry of Labour, Co-operation, and Social Insurance).

Statistics of Registration Coupons

All Rumanian emigrants are supplied with special " emigrants' passports " containing slips to be detached at the frontier when the emigrant leaves the country. Aliens whose nationality is uncertain may procure passports which can be used for the outward journey only.

All immigrants have to procure from the competent Rumanian diplomatic or consular official abroad a card issued in duplicate; one copy is kept by the supervisory authority at the point of entry and the other is collected by the same authority when the immigrant leaves the country.

Persons who have entered the country under a police permit and who wish to stay in the country for more than three months are considered as immigrants.

The cards collected at the frontier are sent to the Ministry of Labour for tabulation.

Emigration. As an emigrant is considered " any Rumanian citizen who leaves the country to settle on another continent, either permanently or temporarily with the intention of earning his living there by manual work or in order to exercise a profession or engage in an undertaking of a permanent nature." As emigrants are considered also " manual workers and wage earners who go to another European State for the purpose of entering employment for wages for a fixed period." Distinctions are made between intercontinental and continental emigration of nationals and aliens.

Immigration. As an immigrant is considered any person who enters the country under the conditions and for the purposes laid down for emigration. Distinctions are likewise made between intercontinental and continental immigration of nationals and aliens.

Sweden: *Ut- och invandring* (Central Statistical Office).

Statistics of Local Registers

These statistics are based on the entries in the parish lists (except for Stockholm, where municipal lists are used), which form the basis of the Swedish population statistics; the date are tabulated by the Central Statistical Office.

Emigration. As emigrants are considered Swedish nationals and aliens domiciled in Sweden who leave the country with the intention of settling abroad. A distinction is made between intercontinental and continental emigration.

Immigration. As immigrants are considered Swedish nationals and aliens arriving in Sweden with the intention of settling there. A distinction is made between intercontinental and continental immigration.

Czechoslovakia: *Zprávy státního úřadu statistického Republiky československé* (Central Statistical Office).

I. *Statistics of Transport Contracts*

Emigration. The statistics are based on the shipping companies' lists of passengers having embarked for oversea countries; data for emigration to Tunis, Algeria, and Morocco, however, are obtained from lists of passports issued. As emigrants are considered nationals and aliens domiciled in Czechoslovakia who leave the country with the intention of proceeding to an " oversea " country, either in order to earn their living or with the intention of not returning. Separate particulars are given for nationals and aliens.

II. Passport Statistics

Emigration. This series is based on the number of emigrants' passports issued to Czechoslovak citizens going to other European countries, supplemented by statistics of the number of seasonal emigrants going to Germany and Austria collectively, in possession generally of a collective passport.

III. Statistics of Frontier Control

Immigration. These series refer to the number of nationals recorded at the frontier as immigrants. For some countries (notably the United States) the statistics are supplemented by returns of passport visas. A distinction is made between intercontinental and continental immigration. The figures do not include returning seasonal emigrants.

Switzerland: *La Vie économique* (Département fédéral de l'économie publique).

I. Military Control Statistics

Emigration. These statistics refer to emigrants of Swiss nationality subject to military service or to payment of military tax irrespective of country of emigration. These persons are obliged to register in the country of residence at the Swiss consulates, which communicate in turn the names of those persons to the Federal Military Department.

Immigration. These statistics refer to the same category of immigrants, irrespective of country of immigration; they are obliged to register on return with local authorities, which communicate in turn the names of those persons to the Federal Military Department.

II. Statistics of Residence Permits.

Immigration. These statistics are based on the returns of permits issued to aliens (whether they exercise a profession or not) to reside in Switzerland for an unlimited period of time, and of permits issued to foreign seasonal workers and

domestic servants, for a period of residence of up to nine months for seasonal workers and up to two years for domestic servants.

Yugoslavia: Annual report communicated by the Emigration Commissioner to the Ministry of Social Affairs.

I. Statistics of Transport Contracts

The statistics are based on returns of transport contracts. Special emigrants' passports are issued to all emigrants; these documents are supplied with slips which are detached when the emigrant leaves the country, and are forwarded to the Board of Emigration to serve as a control for the statistics based on transport contracts.

Emigration. As emigrants are considered persons going to a foreign country in order to earn their living by manual labour; servants travelling with employers (who are not themselves emigrants) are not considered as emigrants. Data are given for intercontinental emigration of nationals and aliens separately and for continental emigration of nationals and aliens together.

II. Statistics of Frontier Control

These statistics are based on reports communicated to the Board of Emigration by the Emigration Commissioners at the Yugoslav ports and frontier stations, supplemented by reports from the municipal district authorities.

Immigration. Data are given for intercontinental immigration of nationals and aliens separately and for continental immigration of nationals and aliens together.

AFRICA

British East Africa (Kenya, Uganda, Tanganyika): *Statistics of Migration through the Port of Mombasa* (British East Africa Department of Statistical Research).

Port Statistics

These statistics refer to passenger movements through the Port of Mombasa; they are compiled by the Immigration Officer of the Police Department, who collects from the Shipping Companies schedules filled up for every passenger, including those leaving temporarily and temporary visitors. The forms used before 1930 were less complete; the figures for the year 1930 and onwards are therefore not strictly comparable with those for previous years. Passengers to and from the Belgian Congo are included.

Emigration. A distinction is made between intercontinental and continental departures of aliens. As intercontinental departures are considered those of Europeans, Indians, and Goans: as continental departures, those of Arabs and " others ".

Immigration. A distinction is made between intercontinental and continental arrivals of aliens as above.

Portuguese East Africa: *Annuario Estatistico da Colonia de Mozambique* (Portuguese Republic, Statistical Office).

Port Statistics

Immigration. This series refers to aliens disembarking at the port of Lourenço Marques and intending to take up permanent residence in the colony, irrespective of country of departure.

Algeria: *Bulletin du Ministère du Travail et de la Prévoyance Sociale.*

Port Statistics

Emigration. The statistics give the number of nationals (natives of Algeria) departing for France.

Immigration. The statistics give the number of nationals (natives of Algeria) arriving from France.

Madagascar: Communication from the French Ministry of the Colonies.

Port Statistics

Emigration. Series are given for nationals and aliens leaving for other countries, irrespective of country of destination.

Immigration. Series are given for nationals and aliens arriving from other countries, irrespective of country of departure.

French Morocco: Communication from the French Service for the League of Nations in the Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

No information is available as to the methods of compiling these statistics:

Emigration. As emigrants are considered travellers who leave the country by sea without intention of returning. Figures are given for emigration of aliens over 15 years of age (including French nationals), without indication of the country of destination.

Immigration. Figures are given for immigration of aliens over 15 years of age (including French nationals) arriving in the colony by sea for the first time, without indication of the country of departure.

Mauritius: Communication from the British Ministry of Labour.

Port Statistics

Emigration. This series refers to nationals and aliens residing in the colony (including dependants) and departing for a foreign country under an agreement to work for hire. Seamen engaged in the port of Mauritius for ships sailing for foreign countries are considered as emigrants, while persons emigrating to a country in which they have resided for not less than five years and the wife or children of previously emigrated persons who leave the country in order to join them are excluded.

Immigration. This series refers to arrivals of nationals and aliens (including discharged seamen).

Nyasaland: Communication from the British Ministry of Labour.

No information is available as to the methods of compiling these statistics:

Emigration. The statistics refer to emigration of Europeans and Indians, without indication of the country of destination, and of Natives, who are presumably going to other African countries.

Immigration. Corresponding series are given for immigration.

Southern Rhodesia: *Official Year-Book for the Colony of Southern Rhodesia.*

Statistics of frontier control:

Immigration. These series refer to immigrants admitted into the colony, subdivised into intercontinental and continental immigrants.

Northern Rhodesia: *Annual Colonial Reports, Northern Rhodesia* (United Kingdom, Colonial Office).

No information is available as to the methods of compiling these statistics:

Immigration. This series refers to immigration of Europeans, exclusive of visitors.

Swaziland: *Annual Colonial Report, Swaziland* (United Kingdom, Colonial Office); Communication from the British Ministry of Labour.

I. Passport Statistics

Emigration. The statistics are based on the number of passports issued to Native workers recruited for work in the mines of South Africa.

II. No information is available as to the methods of compiling the following series:

Emigration. These series refer to European emigrants leaving the territory.

Immigration. This series refers to European immigrants entering the territory.

Union of South Africa: *Statistics of Migration* (Office of Census and Statistics); Communication from the Transvaal Chamber of Mines.

I. Statistics of Frontier Control

Data on emigration and immigration are compiled from personal statements obtained from each person arriving in or departing from the Union, excluding passengers and crews of ships calling at Union ports *en route* to other destinations, and return-ticket passengers crossing the Union borders by rail.

Emigration. The statistics of emigration refer to departures, by sea and land, of residents in South Africa, Europeans and non-Europeans (exclusive of Native labourers indentured for the mines from extra-Union countries), going to African and non-African countries. A distinction is made between emigration of nationals and aliens irrespective of country of destination; as nationals are considered residents born in the Union.

Immigration. These series refer to immigration of aliens of European and non-European origin by sea and by land (exclusive of Native labourers indentured for the mines from extra-Union countries) intending to settle permanently in the Union.

II. Statistics of Labour Contracts

Immigration. These series refer to Native workers recruited outside the Union by the Witwatersrand Native Labour Association, Limited, which is vested with the sole right of recruiting Native labour from outside the Union.

AMERICA

Argentina: Communication from the General Office of Immigration.

Port Statistics

Emigration. The statistics refer to aliens embarking as second- and third-class passengers for foreign countries.

Immigration. The statistics refer to alien second- and third-class passengers arriving in Argentina from foreign countries.

Brazil: *Annuario do Ministerio da Agricultura, Industria e Commercio* (Ministry of Agriculture, Industry, and Commerce).

Port Statistics

Emigration. This series refers to second- and third-class passengers leaving Brazil by sea, irrespective of nationality and destination.

Immigration. These series refer to second- and third-class passengers, nationals and aliens, arriving in Brazil by sea. For nationals no distinction is made as to the country of departure. For aliens separate figures are given for passengers arriving from other South American States and from other countries.

Canada: *Report of the Department of Immigration and Colonisation* (annual); *The Labour Gazette* (Department of Labour).

Statistics of Frontier Control

Immigration. The statistics refer to immigrants admitted into the country by the ports and land frontier stations. For the purpose of immigration

statistics every person who enters Canada is considered as an immigrant unless he belongs to one of the following categories:

(1) Canadian citizens and persons having Canadian domicile.
(2) Diplomatic and consular officials.
(3) Officers and men and their families belonging to the British naval and military forces.
(4) Tourists and travellers.
(5) Students.
(6) Artists, etc., entering temporarily.
(7) Holders of a permit to enter which is in force for the time being and is signed by the Minister or some duly authorised person.

Separate particulars are given for intercontinental immigration of aliens (to which are added non-Canadian British subjects); continental immigration of nationals (Canadian-born citizens, British subjects with Canadian domicile, naturalised Canadians with domicile); and aliens arriving from the United States.

United States: *Annual Report of the Commissioner General of Immigration* (United States Department of Labour); Monthly reports communicated by the Bureau of Immigration of the Department of Labour, Washington.

Statistics of Frontier Control

The statistics are based on registration of migrants at the ports and land frontier stations; they do not include persons who habitually cross and recross the Canadian or Mexican land frontier and are in possession of immigrant identification cards or border crossing cards.

Emigration. The series for nationals refer to nationals (by birth or naturalisation) leaving the country with the intention of settling abroad permanently. The corresponding series for aliens refer to persons departing who have resided permanently in the United States and intend to take up permanent residence (for more than a year) abroad. A distinction for both series is made between intercontinental and continental emigration. Continental emigration covers only the movement to Canada, Newfoundland, and Mexico.

Immigration. The statistics of immigration relate to "quota" and "non-quota" immigrants admitted into the United States, with the exception of: (1) citizens of the islands under the jurisdiction of the United States; (2) Government officials (including their families, attendants, servants, and employees); (3) temporary visitors; (4) aliens in transit; (5) aliens lawfully admitted who later go in transit from one part of the United States to another through foreign territory; (6) *bona fide* alien seamen who enter the country temporarily in the pursuit of their calling as seamen; (7) aliens admitted in order to carry out a trade under the provision of an existing treaty of commerce and navigation. A distinction is made between intercontinental and continental movements, as defined above.

Chile: *Estadistica Chilena* (Central Statistical Office).

Statistics of Frontier Control

Emigration. This series refers to passengers leaving the country by land, air, and sea, without distinction between nationals and aliens, or as to country of destination.

Immigration. This series refers to passengers arriving in the country by land, air, and sea, without distinction between nationals and aliens, or as to country of departure.

Cuba: *Inmigración y movimiento de pasajeros* (Secretaria de Hacienda, Departamento de Inmigración).

Port Statistics

Immigration. The statistics refer to aliens disembarking in the ports of Havana, Santiago and some less important ports, with the intention of settling

permanently in Cuba. A distinction is made between continental immigration (persons arriving from North and Central America and the Antilles) and others.

Mexico: *Estadistica nacional* (Departamento de la Estadística nacional); Communication from the Statistical Department of the Mexican Government.

Statistics of Registration Coupons

These statistics are based on identity cards issued in triplicate by the competent administrative or consular authorities to any Mexican citizen or alien who desires to emigrate or immigrate; they are stamped at the place of exit or entry.

A new Migration Act was promulgated in 1930, according to which the migration statistics are to be compiled on a new basis. Particulars of the new system are not yet available.

Emigration. As an emigrant is considered any person of any nationality, profession, or occupation who proposes to leave Mexican territory for more than six months, provided that, if an alien, he has sojourned in the Republic for a period of not less than six consecutive months, and also any Mexican worker who for the purpose of work periodically leaves the Republic, even if his absence is for less than six months. Before 1931 separate particulars were given of intercontinental and continental emigration of nationals and aliens; as intercontinental emigration was considered emigration to countries not situated in North or Central America or the Antilles. Since 1931 no distinction is made between continental and intercontinental emigration of nationals; for aliens this distinction is based on nationality instead of country of departure.

Immigration. As an immigrant is considered any alien who comes to the Republic with the intention of settling therein for any lawful cause or purpose, or the length of whose stay exceeds a period of six consecutive months. Separate particulars are given as above of intercontinental and continental immigration of nationals (repatriation) and of aliens.

Paraguay: Communication from the Ministry of Lands and Colonies, Immigration Section.

Statistics of Frontier Control

Immigration. The statistics refer to immigrants arriving in Paraguay and registered with the Immigration Section of the Ministry of Lands and Colonies, irrespective of nationality and country of departure.

Uruguay: *Anuario estadístico de la República Oriental del Uruguay* (Central Statistical Office).

Port Statistics

Emigration. These statistics give the number of passengers leaving Uruguay by sea, subdivided into intercontinental and continental emigration. By continental emigration is understood the passenger movement to American and unspecified countries.

Immigration. These statistics give the number of passengers arriving in Uruguay by sea, subdivided as above.

Venezuela: Communication from the General Directorate of Immigration and Inspection of Colonies, Caracas.

Port Statistics

Emigration. The figures indicate the number of passengers leaving Venezuela by sea, irrespective of nationality and country of destination.

Immigration. The figures indicate the corresponding number of passengers landing in Venezuela.

ASIA

Ceylon: *Administration Report of the Controller of Indian Immigrant Labour* (Government of Ceylon).

Port Statistics

Emigration. The figures refer to Indian emigrants returning to India.

Immigration. The figures refer to assisted and unassisted Indian labourers passing through the Ceylon Government camps at Tataparai and Mandapam.

French Settlements in India (Pondicherry and Karikal): Communication from the French Ministry of the Colonies.

Port Statistics

Emigration. The statistics indicate the number of passengers embarking at the ports of Pondicherry and Karikal for France, other French Colonies, the Straits Settlements (Singapore, Penang), Rangoon, and Ceylon.

Immigration. The statistics indicate the corresponding number of arrivals.

British India: *Consolidated Annual Report on the Working of the Indian Emigration Act* (Government of India); *Annual Report on the Working of the Indian Emigration Act* (Government of Madras, Public Works and Labour Department); *Annual Report on the Working of the Indian Emigration Act No. VII of 1922* (Government of Bengal, Revenue and Agricultural Department); Communication from the Department of Education, Health and Lands of the Indian Government, New Delhi.

Port Statistics

The statistics relate to emigration and immigration of skilled and unskilled workers, in accordance with the Indian Emigration Act, 1922, through the ports of Calcutta, Madras, Bombay, Karachi, Negapatam, Tuticorin and Dhanushkodi, or through other ports which the Governor-General in Council has, by notification in the *Gazette of India*, declared to be ports from which emigration is lawful. A distinction is made between intercontinental and continental emigration.

Emigration. An emigrant is defined as any Indian national (including dependants) who departs by sea out of British India under an agreement to work for hire, or who is assisted to depart, otherwise than by a relative, if he departs for the purpose of engaging in agriculture. The following are not considered as emigrants: persons (including dependants) going to countries in which they have resided for not less than five years; the wife or child of any person previously lawfully emigrated who emigrates with the intention of joining him; persons enrolled under the Indian Army Act.

Immigration. The statistics relate to emigrants, both assisted and unassisted, returning through the ports mentioned above.

Hong Kong: *Annual Colonial Reports* (United Kingdom, Colonial Office).

Port Statistics

Emigration. The statistics refer to " emigrants ", i.e. natives of Asia who are carried or are about to be carried as emigrants on any emigrant ship. Natives are not considered as emigrants if they travel first or second class on the same terms as non-Asiatic passengers on any ship approved by the Government as a first-class ship. The term " emigrant ship " includes every ship carrying from any port in the colony more than 20 native passengers, and every British ship carrying from any port in China or within 100 miles of the coast thereof, other than a port in the colony, more than 20 native passengers.

Immigration. The statistics refer to returning " emigrants ", as defined above, disembarking in the port of Hong Kong.

Dutch East Indies: *Statistisch Jaaroverzicht van Nederlandsch-Indië* (Dutch East Indies, Department of Agriculture, Industry, and Commerce, Central Office of Statistics).

Statistics of Permits to Enter

Immigration. The statistics are based on " permits for admittance " issued by the Department of Immigration to persons entering the country, except to Government officials sent out from Holland, and tourists; contract coolies receive such permits only if after the expiration of their contract they wish to stay in the country. A distinction is made between intercontinental and continental immigration. The former generally includes Dutchmen and other Europeans, the latter generally Chinese and other foreign natives of Asia.

Japan: Communication addressed to the International Labour Office by the Japanese Delegation to the International Labour Office at Geneva.

I. Passport Statistics

Emigration. The statistics are based on returns of passports issued to workers who intend to leave Japan in order to seek work in a foreign country (other than China and Korea) in one of the following occupations: agriculture, fisheries (except the fisheries on the coasts of the Russian Maritime Province and Island of Sakhalin), mining, industry, transport, building, laundry work, cooking, tailoring, hairdressing, nursing, and domestic service. A distinction is made between emigration to Asiatic and non-Asiatic countries.

II. Port Statistics

Immigration. The statistics are based on returns of third-class passengers landing in Japan and returning from Canada, the continental United States, and Hawaii.

Indo-China (Annam, Cambodia, Cochin China, Laos, Tonkin): Communication from the French Ministry of the Colonies.

No information is available as to the methods of compiling these statistics:

Emigration. Three series of emigration statistics are available. The first relates to workers (including children under 15 years accompanying them), natives of Tonkin or Annam, engaged under contract, and embarking for the French Establishments in the Pacific (New Caledonia, the New Hebrides, etc.). The second refers to Europeans leaving Indo-China, presumably for non-Asiatic countries mainly. The third refers to Chinese and Indian workers leaving the country, presumably for Asiatic countries.

Immigration. Corresponding series are given for immigration.

Malay Peninsula: *Annual Colonial Reports, Straits Settlements* (United Kingdom, Colonial Office).

Port Statistics

The statistics of the movement of migrants to and from the Straits Settlements include, in fact, not only migration to and from this colony but also to and from the Federated Malay States and other ports of the Malay Peninsula. From 1930 onwards the statistics of Indian migrants include the children of migrants, who were formerly excluded.

Emigration. This series refers to Chinese immigrants returning to China and assisted and non-assisted Indian immigrants returning to India.

Immigration. This series refers to Chinese deck passengers arriving from China and assisted and non-assisted Indian labourers arriving from Southern India under the regulations of the Indian Immigration Committee.

Palestine: *Report by His Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland to the Council of the League of Nations* (United Kingdom, Colonial Office).

Statistics of Frontier Control

The statistics are based on records of migration kept in the ports and at the local frontier stations.

Emigration. These series refer to emigration of nationals and aliens. No distinction is made between intercontinental and continental emigrants. Until 1930 all settlers who arrived in Palestine later than July 1920 were considered as aliens; from 1930 onwards they are classified as Palestine citizens or aliens, as the case may be.

Immigration. These series refer to intercontinental and continental immigration of aliens: as continental immigration is understood immigration from South Africa and Western Asia, including, Iraq, Turkey, Persia, and Afghanistan.

Syria and Lebanon (including the State of the Alaouites and the Jebel Druze): *Rapport à la Société des Nations sur la situation de la Syrie et du Liban* (French Ministry of Foreign Affairs).

No information is available as to the methods of compiling these statistics:

Emigration. As emigrants are considered any national who leaves his country for the purpose of seeking work or who accompanies or goes to rejoin husband or wife, relatives in the ascending or descending line, brothers or sisters, uncles or aunts, nephews or nieces, or their husbands or wives who have already emigrated for the same purpose, and any such inhabitant of Syria and Lebanon who returns in the same circumstances to a country to which he had previously emigrated. Figures are given for the emigration of nationals to non-Asiatic countries.

Immigration. Figures are given for the immigration of nationals (including rejected emigrants) from non-Asiatic countries.

Philippine Islands: Statistical Bulletin of the Philippine Islands (Government of the Philippine Islands, Department of Commerce and Communications, Bureau of Commerce and Industry).

I. Statistics of Frontier Control.

The statistics are based on returns from the Bureau of Customs and relate to the emigration and immigration of aliens. A distinction is made between intercontinental and continental migration; as continental migration is considered migration between the Philippine Islands and other Asiatic countries.

Emigration. As emigrants are considered aliens who after permanent residence in the Islands depart for a foreign country with the intention of settling there permanently.

Immigration. As immigrants are considered persons who arrive in the Islands with the intention of taking up permanent residence there (for a full explanation of the term see the notes given above for the United States).

II. Port Statistics

Emigration. This series refers to all nationals leaving the Islands, without reference to destination.

Immigration. This series refers to all nationals arriving in the Islands.

OCEANIA

Australia: *Australian Demography* (Commonwealth Bureau of Census and Statistics); Annual report communicated by the Commonwealth Bureau of Census and Statistics.

Port Statistics

These statistics are based on list of all passengers leaving or joining vessels, which are furnished by shipmasters or agents on prescribed forms to Customs officers at the ports of arrival and departure.

Emigration. As emigrants are considered Australian residents (persons having resided in Australia for more than a year) going to a foreign country with the intention of settling there permanently (i.e. for more than one year). Separate data are given for intercontinental and continental emigration. As continental emigration is considered emigration to New Zealand and the South Sea Islands.

Immigration. As immigrants are considered persons who have resided abroad for more than one year, and who intend taking up permanent residence for a year or more. Separate date are given for intercontinental and continental immigration as above defined.

Hawaii: *Annual Report of the Governor of Hawaii to the Secretary of the Interior* (United States, Department of the Interior). Communications from the Immigration and Naturalisation Service (United States Department of Labor).

Port Statistics.

Emigration. The figures refer, for the years 1927-1930, to departures of steerage passengers from the port of Honolulu, and, since 1931, to departures of all aliens (including citizens of the continental United States) from Hawaii, without distinction of country of destination.

Immigration. The figures refer, for the years 1927-1930, to arrivals of steerage passengers at the port of Honolulu, and, since 1931, to arrivals of all aliens (including citizens of the continental United States) without distinction of country of departure.

New Guinea: *Report to the Council of the League of Nations on the Administration of the Territory of New Guinea* (Commonwealth of Australia).

Statistics of Frontier Control

Emigration. Separate figures are given for intercontinental and continental emigration of aliens. As continental emigration is considered emigration to countries in Oceania.

Immigration. A corresponding distinction is made for immigration.

New Zealand: *Statistical Report on the External Migration of the Dominion of New Zealand* (Census and Statistics Office).

Statistics of Frontier Control

The statistics of migration are compiled from personal statements obtained from each person arriving in or departing from the Dominion.

Emigration. As emigrants are considered New Zealand residents intending to take up permanent residence elsewhere. A distinction is made between intercontinental and continental emigration (i.e. to others parts of Oceania).

Immigration. As immigrants are considered aliens (to which are added British subjects other than those of New Zealand) arriving in New Zealand who intend to take up permanent residence. A distinction is made between intercontinental and continental movements, as above.

VI. — INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS

TABLES XX AND XXI

Collective Agreements

Germany: *Statistisches Jahrbuch für das deutsche Reich* (Statistisches Reichsamt); *Die Tarifverträge für Arbeiter und für Angestellte im Deutschen Reich* (Reichsarbeitsministerium).

The German statistics of collective agreements were wholly reorganised during the year 1930 and the data before and after this year are not comparable with each other.

The statistics before 1930 were based on information received from workers' and employers' organisations and cover workers and salaried employees in agriculture, forestry, mining, industry, commerce, transport, teaching, etc. Separate figures were given (*a*) for agreements in force on 1 January each year and (*b*) for agreements concluded or renewed during the year. Data were given for the total number of establishments, workers, and employees affected; persons who did not belong to a union concluding the agreement, but who nevertheless were subject to the stipulations of the collective agreements, were included in the statistics. No statistics are available for the year 1930.

The statistics from 1931 onwards have the same scope and are based on information received from workers' organisations (including salaried workers), but give separate data for different kinds of agreements; as the same establishment or worker may at the same time be party to several agreements, it is impossible to give comparable figures of the total number of workers or establishments covered by the statistics. The following table gives the statistics available in the new system and refers to agreements in force on 1 January 1931 and 1932:

Type of agreement	Number of agreements		Workers and employees covered	
	1931	1932	1931	1932
Full agreements	1,936	1,780	1,218,765	888,909
Covering agreements:				
(*a*) Not regulating hours of work	484	498	2,187,186	2,185,501
(*b*) Regulating hours of work	6,695	6,692	8,544,289	7,838,698
Salary and wage agreements supplementing a covering agreement	8,262	8,685	10,612,417	9,905,399
Independent wage agreements	443	707	53,434	113,183
Hours of work agreements	428	476	2,159,016	2,164,647

Australia: *Official Year Book of the Commonwealth of Australia; Quarterly Summary of Australian Statistics* (Commonwealth Bureau of Census and Statistics).

The statistics give agreements in force at the end of each year.

Austria: *Statistisches Handbuch für die Republik Österreich; Statistische Nachrichten* (Bundesamt für Statistik).

The statistics are based on communications from workers' and employers' associations and on information appearing in trade journals, and cover agriculture and forestry, mining, commerce, banking, transport, the medical professions, personal services, teaching, and public services. Two series are published: (*a*) agreements in force at the end of the year; (*b*) agreements concluded (since 1928 also agreements renewed) during the year. The number of establishments and workers covered is given for both series.

France: *Annuaire statistique* (Statistique générale de la France); *Bulletin du Ministère du Travail et de la Prévoyance sociale.*

The statistics give the number of agreements concluded during the year as reported to the Ministry of Labour and cover agriculture, mining, industry, transport, etc. Neither the number of establishments nor the number of workers covered by the agreements is stated.

Italy: *Annuaria Statistica Italiana* (Central Statistical Institute).

The statistics relate to agreements notified or concluded during the year in agriculture, industry, commerce, transport, banking, etc., and refer to both workers and employees. Two series are reproduced in the table, one referring to national and interprovincial agreements and the other to provincial agreements. Agreements of the former kind are deposited directly with the Ministry of Corporations and are published in the " Official Gazette " of the Kingdom. Data on agreements of the latter kind are collected by the prefects and forwarded to the Ministry of Corporations for publication. The first series refers to agreements notified (all such agreements concluded being also notified) and the latter to agreements concluded *(stipulati)* during the year.

Latvia: *Statistique du Travail* (Statistical Office of Latvia).

These statistics refer to the number of agreements concluded during the year, but no information is available as to the scope or the methods of compilation.

Norway: *Meglingsinstitusjonens virksomhet, Tariffavtaler og Arbeidskonflikter; Statistiske Meddelelser* (Central Statistical Office).

The statistics are based on information supplied to the official arbitrators by workers' and employers' associations and supplemented by information appearing in newspapers and periodicals. They cover forestry, mining, industry, transport, navigation, commerce, etc., and give the number of agreements in force at the end of each year and the number of workers covered.

Netherlands: *Overzicht van den omvang en den voornaamsten inhoud der collective arbeidsovereenskomsten* (Central Statistical Office).

The statistics are compiled on the basis of reports from employers' and workers' organisations and cover agriculture, fishing, industry, commerce, insurance and liberal professions. Two series are published: (*a*) agreements in force at 1 June of each year, (*b*) agreements concluded between 2 June of the preceding and 1 June of the current year. The number of establishments and workers covered is given for both series.

Poland: *Inspekcja Pracy* (Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare).

The statistics refer to collective agreements concluded during the year through the intermediary of the labour inspectors and cover agriculture, forestry, mining, industry, transport, commerce, public services, etc. The number of workers given as covered by the agreements is inferior to the reality, as in a number of cases establishments do not report the number of workers affected.

Rumania: *Miscarea salarielor, conflictele si contractele colective de munca; Buletinul muncii si asigurarilor sociale* (Ministry of Labour, Health, and Social Insurance).

The statistics are based on information supplied by factory inspectors and cover mining, forestry, industry, commerce, and transport. The statistics relate (*a*) to agreements in force during the year; (*b*) to agreements concluded or renewed during the year. Both series give the number of workers covered.

Sweden: *Arbetsinställelser och Kollektivavtal; Sociala Meddelanden* (Social Board); *Statistisk Årsbok* (Central Statistical Office).

The statistics are compiled by the Social Board and are based on the collection from the contracting parties of copies of agreements. The statistics cover agriculture, fishing, mining, industry, commerce, transport, navigation, etc., and give (*a*) agreements in force at the end of the year, and (*b*) agreements concluded during the year. Both series indicate the number of employers and workers covered by the agreements.

TABLE XXII

Industrial Disputes

Union of South Africa: *Official Year Book of the Union of South Africa* (Office of Census and Statistics).

The statistics, which are compiled by the Department of Labour, refer to strikes beginning during the year. They give the number of persons directly involved (Europeans and non-Europeans) and the number of working days lost.

Germany: *Statistisches Jahrbuch für das Deutsche Reich* (Statistisches Reichsamt); *Reichsarbeitsblatt* (Reichsarbeitsministerium).

The statistics, which relate to economic strikes and lock-outs, are compiled by the Federal Statistical Office on the basis of employers' reports supplied to the employment exchanges. The disputes given in the statistics are for 1927 those ending, and since 1928 those in progress, during the year. The number of workers involved is the maximum number directly and indirectly out of work owing to the disputes. The number of working days lost is calculated on the same basis.

Argentina: *Crónica mensual del Trabajo* (National Department of Labour); *Economic Conditions in the Argentine Republic* (Department of Overseas Trade, London).

The statistics refer to strikes beginning during the year in Buenos Aires; they are compiled by means of forms addressed to the establishments involved.

Australia: *Quarterly Summary of Australian Statistics; Official Year Book of Australia; Labour Report; Pocket Compendium of Australian Statistics* (Commonwealth Bureau of Census and Statistics).

The statistics, which relate to strikes and lock-outs in progress during the year, are compiled on the basis of information received from the parties concerned. Disputes involving fewer than 10 persons or causing a loss of less than 10 working days are excluded. The numbers of workers involved and of working days lost relate to workers both directly and indirectly involved.

Austria: *Statistisches Handbuch für die Republik Österreich; Statistische Nachrichten* (Bundesamt für Statistik).

The statistics, which relate to strikes and lock-outs beginning during the year, are compiled on the basis of forms filled in by the civil authorities and the mining authorities. Disputes lasting for one day only are excluded; the number of workers is the maximum number directly involved.

Belgium: *Revue du Travail* (Ministère de l'Industrie du Travail et de la Prévoyance sociale); *Annuaire statistique de la Belgique et du Congo belge* (Ministère de l'Intérieur et de l'Hygiène).

The statistics refer to strikes and lock-outs ending during the year. They are compiled by means of two forms, one filled up when a dispute begins, and the other when it ends, by the directors of the establishments and the workers' organisations concerned. Political strikes, May-day strikes, and disputes lasting not more than one day are excluded. The number of workers is the maximum number of workers directly and indirectly involved.

Bulgaria: *Statistique des grèves et des lockouts dans le Royaume de Bulgarie; Annuaire statistique du Royaume de Bulgarie* (Central Statistical Office).

The statistics, which relate to strikes and lock-outs beginning during the year, are compiled by the Central Statistical Office on the basis of data collected by the Labour Section of the Ministry of Commerce, Industry, and Labour, by means of forms sent to the establishments and the committees of workers concerned at the beginning and end of each dispute. If no committees exist, the labour inspectors carry out a direct enquiry. The number of workers is the maximum number directly and indirectly involved; the number of days lost refers to days actually lost by the workers directly involved.

Canada: *The Labour Gazette* (Department of Labour); *Canada Year Book* (Dominion Bureau of Statistics).

The statistics relate to industrial disputes (no distinction being made between strikes and lock-outs) in progress during the year, involving manual workers and salaried employees; they are compiled by the Department of Labour and are based on the reports of the Conciliation Boards. Disputes of less than one day's duration and disputes involving less than 6 persons are not included unless a time loss of 10 days or more is caused. The numbers of workers and of working days lost are calculated on the basis of the workers directly involved.

China (Greater Shanghai): *Strikes and Lock-outs, Greater Shanghai* (Bureau of Social Affairs of the City Government of Greater Shanghai).

Statistics as to strikes and lock-outs of any importance in progress during the year in the thirty districts of Greater Shanghai are compiled by the Bureau of Social Affairs on the basis of direct enquiries from the parties involved and from figures submitted in petitions for conciliation. The number of working days lost gives an estimate of days lost by workers directly involved.

Denmark: *Statistiske Efterretninger; Strejker og Lockouter i Danmark* (Department of Statistics).

The statistics, which relate to strikes and lock-outs beginning during the year, are compiled by means of forms sent to the central organisations of employers and workers, which forward them to the organisations and establishments affected, whether affiliated to them or not. Boycotts, May-day strikes, and disputes between producers and consumers are excluded. The number of workers is the maximum number of workers directly involved. The number of days lost is calculated on the basis of the workers directly involved in disputes in progress during the year.

Spain: *Estadística de las huelgas; Boletín de Información Social del Ministerio de Trabajo y Previsión; Anuario estadístico de España* (Ministry of Labour and Welfare).

The statistics, which refer to strikes beginning during the year, are compiled by means of forms addressed to the municipal authorities. Boycotts, May-day strikes, and disputes between producers and consumers are excluded. The

number of workers is the number directly involved. The number of working days lost is calculated by multiplying the number of workers involved by the number of working days the dispute lasted.

Estonia: *Eesti Statistica* (Central Statistical Office).

The statistics, which refer to strikes in progress during the year, are compiled on the basis of data obtained directly from the parties concerned. They give the average number of workers involved and the number of working days lost by the workers directly involved.

United States: *Monthly Labor Review* (Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics).

The statistics relate to strikes and lock-outs beginning during the year and are compiled on the basis of data obtained from public authorities, employers' and workers' organisations, and the Press. Disputes involving fewer than 6 workers and lasting less than one day are excluded. The number of workers relates only to those directly involved. The number of working days lost refers to the estimated number of working days lost by workers directly involved in disputes in progress during the year.

Finland: *Annuaire statistique de la Finlande; Sosialinen Aikakauskirja* (Ministry of Social Affairs, Bureau of Social Research).

The statistics refer to both strikes and lock-outs beginning during the year, but no distinction is made between the two; they are collected from employers and workers or from their associations. The number of workers is the maximum number directly involved; since 1928 the number of days lost is the number of days actually lost; up to 1927 an approximation only was given.

France: *Statistique des grèves; Bulletin du Ministère du Travail* (Ministère du Travail et de la Prévoyance sociale, Office central de la main-d'œuvre); *Annuaire statistique de la France* (Ministère du Travail, Statistique générale de la France).

The statistics relate to all strikes and lock-outs beginning during the year and are compiled on the basis of prefects' reports. The number of workers involved is obtained by taking an average of the workers directly involved at certain intervals during the dispute.

Great Britain and Northern Ireland: *Ministry of Labour Gazette* (Ministry of Labour).

The statistics refer to both strikes and lock-outs beginning during the year, but no distinction is made between the two; they are compiled by means of forms sent to employers or their associations and to trade unions concerned. Disputes involving fewer than 10 workpeople and disputes lasting less than one day are omitted, except when the aggregate duration (i.e. the number of workpeople multiplied by the number of working days, allowing for workpeople replaced by others, etc.) exceeds 100 days. The number of workers involved and working days lost refer to workers directly and indirectly involved in the establishments in which disputes were in progress during the year.

Hungary: *Magyar Statisztikai Szemle*; *Annuaire statistique hongrois* (Central Statistical Office).

The statistics relate to strikes and lock-outs ending during the year and are compiled on the basis of reports of factory inspectors. The numbers of workers and of working days lost are calculated on the basis of the maximum number of workers directly and indirectly involved.

India: *Indian Trade Journal* (Department of Commercial Intelligence and Statistics); Communiqué issued by the Department of Industries and Labour (Government of India, Department of Industries and Labour).

The statistics, which refer to strikes and lock-outs of any importance, are compiled on the basis of reports from the employment exchanges. The numbers of disputes, workers involved, and working days lost relate to disputes in progress during the year.

Irish Free State: *Irish Trade Journal* (Department of Industry and Commerce).

The number of disputes relates to both strikes and lock-outs beginning during the year, but no distinction is made between the two; they are compiled mainly on the basis of reports from employment exchanges. The numbers of workers involved and working days lost refer to disputes in progress during the year. Disputes lasting less than one day and involving a loss of less than 10 working days are excluded. The number of working days lost is calculated by multiplying the approximate number of workers involved by the duration in working days of the dispute in question.

Italy: *Gazzetta Ufficiale del Regno d'Italia* (Ministry of Justice); *Bollettino mensile di Statistica; Annuario Statistico; Compendio Statistico* (Central Institute of Statistics).

Under the Trade Associations Act of 3 April 1926 strikes and lock-outs are considered as offences against the national economy. The statistics compiled by the Ministry of Justice indicate the number of cases in which the prohibition was defied and the number of persons against whom legal proceedings were instituted for such contraventions. Thus these data are not comparable with those for previous years or with those for other countries.

Japan: *Rodo Tokei Yoran* (Statistical Bureau of the Imperial Cabinet); *Shakai Seisaku Yiho* (Social Reform).

The statistics relate to strikes and lock-outs and sabotages and cover mining, building, transport, chemicals, supply of electricity and gas, food and miscellaneous industries. They are compiled by the Bureau of Social Affairs (Ministry of the Interior) on the basis of prefects' reports. The number of workers is the maximum number directly involved.

Latvia: *Bulletin mensuel du Bureau de Statistique de l'Etat letton; Annuaire statistique de la Lettonie* (Bureau of Statistics).

The statistics refer to strikes ending during the year and settled by the Inspectorate of Labour; they are compiled by the Ministry of Social Welfare on the basis of data received from the factory inspectors and give the number of workers directly involved.

Norway: *Statistisk Årsbok* (Central Statistical Office).

The statistics, which relate to strikes and lock-outs beginning during the year, are compiled on the basis of information supplied by employers' and workers' organisations. Sabotage, boycotts, and blockades of the Norwegian Union of Forestry and Agricultural Workers are excluded. The number of workers is the maximum number directly involved and the number of days lost is the approximate number of days lost by the workers directly involved.

New Zealand: *Monthly Abstract of Statistics; New Zealand Official Year Book* (Census and Statistics Office).

The statistics, which give data on all strikes and lock-outs ending during the year, are compiled on the basis of data received from the factory inspectors.

The number of workers is the maximum number of workers directly and indirectly involved; the number of working days lost is calculated by multiplying the number of workers directly involved by the duration in working days of the dispute.

Palestine: *Statistical Abstract of Palestine* (Zionist Executive).

The statistics refer to strikes and lock-outs in progress during the year and are compiled by the Office of Commissioner of Migration and Statistics of the Government of Palestine; they give the maximum number of workers directly involved in a dispute. The working days lost are calculated on the basis of the number of workers involved at the beginning of the dispute; as far as possible, however, consideration is taken of changes in the number of workers actually involved at different periods of the dispute.

Netherlands: *Werkstakingen en Uitsluitingen in Nederland; Maandschrift van het centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek* (Central Bureau of Statistics).

The statistics, which relate to all strikes and lock-outs, are compiled on the basis of forms filled in at the beginning and at the termination of each dispute by employers and workers or their organisations. If neither party answers the questions an enquiry is carried out on the spot by an official of the Statistical Office. The number of disputes relates until 1926 to the number of disputes beginning during the year, and since 1927 also to the disputes in progress; the number of workers is the maximum number directly and indirectly involved; the number of days lost refers to working days lost by workers directly involved.

Poland: *Revue trimestrielle; Statistique du travail; Annuaire statistique de la République polonaise* (Central Office of Statistics).

The statistics relate to strikes and lock-outs in progress, during the year. They are compiled on the basis of information received from various authorities, mainly through the intermediary of the factory inspectors. The number of workers is the maximum number directly involved. The number of working days lost refers to workers directly and indirectly involved in disputes in progress during the year.

Rumania: *Conflictele colective de munca; Anuarul Statistic al Romaniei* (Ministry of Labour, Public Health, and Social Assistance).

The statistics refer to strikes and lock-outs beginning during the year. The number of workers is the number directly and indirectly involved. The number of days lost is calculated for 1927 on the basis of workers directly involved, and since 1928 on the basis of workers directly and indirectly involved.

Sweden: *Arbetsinställelser i Sverige* (Social Board).

The statistics, which relate to strikes, lock-outs, and disputes of mixed character beginning during the year, are compiled on the basis of data collected from workers, employers, and miscellaneous sources. The number of workers is the maximum number of workers directly involved. The number of working days lost is calculated on the basis of workers directly involved.

Switzerland: *La vie économique* (Département fédéral de l'Economie publique).

The statistics, which relate to strikes and lock-outs ending during the year, are compiled by means of forms sent to the employers' and workers' organisations; if these are unable to reply the forms are sent directly to the establishments involved. Disputes lasting one day or less are excluded. The number of workers is the maximum number directly and indirectly involved; the number of days lost is an approximate estimate.

Czechoslovakia: *Rapports de l'Office de Statistique; Statistická ročenka Republiky Československé* (Statistical Office).

The statistics, which relate to all strikes and lock-outs beginning during the year, are compiled by means of forms sent to employers and workers. The numbers of workers involved and of working days lost are based on the maximum number of workers directly and indirectly involved.

Uruguay: *Síntesis Estadística de la República Oriental del Uruguay* (Central Statistical Office).

No details as to methods are available.

Yugoslavia: *Izvestaj Inspekcije Rada* (Ministry of Social Affairs).

The statistics, which are compiled by the Labour Inspectorate, refer to strikes in progress during the year. The number of workers is the number directly involved.

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