

Membership of each organisation	Number of organisations	Membership of group Number	Per cent. of total
Less than 1,000	{ 3 federations	1,357	
	{ 24 unions	8,511	
		9,868	4
1,000- 5,000	{ 6 federations	15,700	
	{ 5 unions	13,218	
		28,918	12
5,000-10,000	{ 4 federations	24,961	
	{ 2 unions	14,220	
		39,181	16
More than 10,000	{ 5 federations	111,999	
	{ 2 unions	50,983	
		162,982	68
Total	51	240,949	100

The memberships of the five federations and two unions each having more than 10,000 members are as follows :

Federations	Membership
Federation of Workers in Naval Arsenals	42,513
General Federation of Japanese Labour	23,305
Council of Japanese Labour Unions	18,693
General Federation of Japanese Transport Workers	13,923
General Federation of Workers in State Undertakings	13,565
Unions	
Japan Seamen's Union	37,000
Kaiyo Toitsu Kyokai (a seamen's association)	13,983

## Industrial Hygiene in Japan<sup>1</sup>

Since the introduction of the Factory Act in 1916, sanitary conditions in Japanese factories have been considerably improved. The factory inspectors and assistant supervisors number at present 343, 7 of whom are trained medical officers. The duties of medical inspectors comprise :

(1) supervision of the observance of laws relating to the equipment of factories and working conditions ;

(2) supervision of the observance of laws dealing with compensation for accidents and occupational diseases ;

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<sup>1</sup> Adapted from an article by Yasutoshi Kose, M.D., Inspector of Factories and Mines, Home Department, Tokio, in the *Japan Medical World*, Vol. VI, No. 2, 15 Feb. 1926, pp. 39-40. Tokio.

(3) investigations in regard to industrial hygiene and pathology and prevention of occupational diseases ; and

(4) propagation of necessary information in relation to hygiene amongst employers and workers.

The duties of inspectors comprise, further, advice to employers in relation to improvements to be effected, education of workers in regard to the prevention of disease and the use of sanitary equipment provided, and publicity in regard to general improvement of working conditions. Considerable improvement in the field of industrial hygiene as affecting factories and mines in Japan has resulted from the establishment of the inspection system.

The majority of industrial establishments in Japan are textile factories, which were the earliest to develop. Out of some 20,000 factories 52 per cent. belong to the textile industries, which employ 64 per cent. out of a total number of 1,400,000 workers. Women form 60 per cent. of the total number of workers, and 81 per cent. of the total number of workers employed in the textile industries. Female labour in these industries is usually drawn from agricultural districts and it has been necessary to provide boarding accommodation for these workers, 90 per cent. of whom are unmarried.

Boarding houses attached to the larger factories are mostly well equipped with good ventilation, heating, water supply, and sanitary conveniences. Dining rooms and bathrooms are also provided, and the latter are regularly used and appreciated by the workers. Certain large factories provide houses for their married workers. These are built of wood and consist of two or more rooms with the exclusive use of a kitchen and lavatory for each family.

Houses provided for miners are usually apartment houses, one room, or now more usually two or three rooms, being allotted to each family.

Diet in these boarding houses was formerly criticised, but has now been improved. From 2,500 to 2,800 calories are provided for men and from 2,300 to 2,500 calories for women. All larger factories now employ one or more factory doctors and large factories and mines have well-equipped hospitals. The doctors, in addition to treating workers, act as sanitary advisers to the employers and discuss hygienic amelioration of installations with the state factory inspectors. Periodical returns submitted by factory owners provide mortality statistics, but, pending the inauguration of a system of health insurance, not much reliance can be placed on the statistics available, and the same is true in respect of statistics relative to the incidence of disease, though it has been definitely established that diseases of the digestive system, followed by those of the respiratory system, are the most frequent in industry.

Statistics collected in 1925 show a morbidity rate for men and women workers of 275 per cent. and a ratio of injuries of 42 per cent. Other disease rates quoted are tuberculosis, 11 per cent., phthisis 8 per cent., all respiratory diseases 220 per cent., diseases of the digestive system 208 per cent., beri-beri 55 per cent., and trachoma 19 per cent.

Present legislation in regard to compensation is rather indefinite, the worker being entitled to compensation for "illness arising out of his employment". The interpretation of this law in relation to industrial

accidents is simple but much less so in regard to occupational disease, more especially as information as to the harmful effects of certain occupations is lacking. Many cases of industrial poisoning have not been accounted for, but investigation in relation to these is now being carried out. The inspectors' report for 1923 refers to 22 cases of lead poisoning amongst the employees of a storage-battery factory, a case of carbon monoxide poisoning in a chemical factory, one case of aniline poisoning and cases of skin disease in chemical factories. No cases of anthrax are reported as affecting workers handling wool and hair for upholstery, or horns and hoofs, but two or three cases have been notified as occurring in a bone manure factory where imported bones were handled. Investigation has in consequence been undertaken in regard to the disinfection of bones. Hookworm is prevalent in the coal mines of Western Japan, and the application of preventive measures is urgently required in relation thereto.

## Labour Disputes in Soviet Russia

The question of labour disputes arose in Soviet Russia only after the introduction of the new economic policy; until that time and under the Communist regime they were regarded as non-existent. The state issued decrees fixing rates of wages and conditions of work; and, when officials entrusted with the management of undertakings infringed these provisions in any way, such infraction was considered as equivalent to violation of the law and was punished as such. Workers guilty of infraction were punished by a disciplinary sanction, inflicted by the union to which they belonged. In actual practice, however, disputes arose at times and the unions had to establish special committees of their own to settle them. Theoretically, however, there was no place for trade disputes under the Communist regime.

The introduction of the new economic policy — which, to a certain extent, entailed the re-establishment of freedom of exchange and introduced the principle of output on a commercial basis into the management of state undertakings — was also followed by a return to freedom in the engagement of workers and the conclusion of individual or collective employment contracts.

The existence of contracts necessarily implied the possibility of disputes. For this reason the new Labour Code<sup>1</sup>, published in 1922, contains (sections 168 *et seq.*) the following passage relating to disagreements of this kind:

Complaints respecting contraventions of the labour laws, and likewise all disputes arising in connection with employment for remuneration, shall be settled either by compulsory proceedings at special sessions of the people's court or by conciliation procedure before an

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<sup>1</sup> Cf. INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE: *Legislative Series*, 1922, Russ 1.