



## Deferred Pay: The Keynes Plan

by

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*Underlying most current controversy as to methods of war finance and the adjustment of wages to rising prices is the vital question who is to pay for the war. In what proportions is the cost of the belligerents' war effort and the neutrals' defence preparations to be shared among the different groups within each community concerned? Of the contributions so far made to the discussion of this question, one of the most illuminating and at the same time one of the most novel is a recent book by Mr. J. M. Keynes. The proposals put forward in this book have aroused widespread interest not only in Mr. Keynes's own country but elsewhere, and the criticism and comment to which they have given rise throw light on some of the central issues of social policy in wartime. The International Labour Office believes, therefore, that the account of Mr. Keynes's proposals and the comment on them which is given in this article will be of interest to readers of the International Labour Review.*

THERE can be no economic question of greater importance to working men at the present time than the methods by which war and defence expenditure are financed. This is not because the particular methods chosen can affect to any great extent the basic economic objective of any country which finds itself at war or in danger of attack; for this objective must always be to apply the greatest possible proportion of its productive resources to the prosecution of war or the strengthening of defence, and whatever methods of finance be chosen they must serve this end. The importance of the choice lies in the fact that it will go far to determine who actually bears, both now and in the future, the real burden of the war effort.

It is for this reason that Mr. J. M. Keynes's recent pamphlet *How to Pay for the War*<sup>1</sup> deserves to be studied closely by workers' leaders not only in Great Britain, to the special problems of which the pamphlet is addressed, but in all countries which find their living standards menaced by the demands and threats of war. Mr. Keynes's aim is not merely to provide a solution for a financial problem but "to snatch from the exigency of war positive social improvements". The scheme he proposes includes "universal family allowances in cash, the accumulation of working-class wealth under working-class control, a cheap ration of necessities and a capital levy (or tax) after the war", a combination which he believes "embodies an advance towards economic equality greater than any which we have made in recent times" (pp. iii-iv).

In the pages which follow an outline is given of Mr. Keynes's analysis and proposals; and to this is added a brief discussion of some of the main features of his plan.

#### THE CHARACTER OF THE PROBLEM

National output, it is assumed, will be raised to the highest figure which resources and organisation permit. In addition there will be a certain quantity of imports. From the total must be taken the goods exported and the requirements of war. What is left is the amount that is available for civilian consumption. Alternatively the requirements of the civilian population may be fixed and only what is left over be devoted to war uses. In practice what actually happens is likely to be compromise between the two methods. In any case there will be a certain definite amount available for civilian consumption. In the interests of the national war effort the size of this amount must be a matter for governmental decision; it cannot be allowed to be influenced to any important extent by what consumers earn and spend.

This, Mr. Keynes points out, is a great change from peacetime experience. Usually production is below capacity; so that if the amount of money people have to spend increases

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<sup>1</sup> London, Macmillan & Co. Ltd., 1940, pp. vii + 88, 1s. Except where otherwise indicated the quotations throughout the present article are from this book, and in each case the page reference is indicated in brackets.

more will be produced and there will be more to buy. When men work harder and earn more they can normally increase their consumption in not much less than the same proportion. "In peace time, that is to say, the size of the cake depends on the amount of work done. But in war time the size of the cake is fixed. If we work harder, we can fight better. But we must not consume more" (p. 4).

Since in wartime the size of the cake is fixed, each individual who is able to increase his consumption by spending more does so only at the expense of other people. If all alike spend more no one benefits. For prices will rise just enough for the extra money spent to be used up by the extra cost of what there is to buy.

In actual practice some members of the community must refrain from exercising their power to increase their spending. "Unless the whole cost of the war were to be raised by taxes which is not practically possible, part of it will be met by borrowing, which is another way of saying that a deferment of money expenditure must be made by someone. This will not be avoided by allowing prices to rise, which merely means that consumers' incomes pass into the hands of the capitalist class. A large part of this gain the latter would have to pay over in higher taxes; part they might themselves consume thus raising prices still higher to the disadvantage of other consumers; and the rest would be borrowed from them, so that they alone, instead of all alike, would be the principal owners of the increased National Debt, — of the right, that is to say, to spend money after the war" (p. 6).

"For this reason", Mr. Keynes concludes, "a demand on the part of the Trade Unions for an increase in money rates of wages to compensate for every increase in the cost of living is futile, and greatly to the disadvantage of the working class. Like the dog in the fable, they lose the substance in gaping at the shadow. It is true that the better organised sections might benefit at the expense of other consumers. But except as an effort at group selfishness, as a means of hustling someone else out of the queue, it is a mug's game to play. In their minds and hearts the leaders of the Trade Unions know this as well as anyone else. They do not want what they ask. But they dare not abate their demands until they know what alternative policy is offered.

This is legitimate. No coherent plan has yet been put up to them" (pp. 6-7).

The remainder of Mr. Keynes's essay is devoted to the framing of such a plan.

#### THE CHARACTER OF THE SOLUTION

In wartime, even if there were no increases in the rates of wages, the total of money earnings would be increased considerably as a result of overtime, the increased number of men engaged (both in the fighting services and in civilian employment), and the movement into paid employment of women, boys, retired persons, and others who were not previously occupied. In a war like the present, however, the amount of goods available for consumption will have to be diminished; at the most it certainly cannot be increased above what it was in peace-time.

"It follows that the increased quantity of money available to be spent in the pockets of consumers will meet a quantity of goods which is not increased. Unless we establish iron regulations limiting what is to be sold and establishing maximum prices for every article of consumption, with the result that there is nothing left to buy and the consumer goes home with the money burning his pocket, there are only two alternatives. Some means must be found for withdrawing purchasing power from the market; or prices must rise until the available goods are selling at figures which absorb the increased quantity of expenditure, — in other words the method of inflation.

"The general character of our solution must be, therefore, that it withdraws from expenditure a proportion of the increased earnings. This is the only way, apart from shortages of goods or higher prices, by which we can secure a balance between money to be spent and goods to be bought.

"Voluntary savings would serve this purpose if they were sufficient. . . . But the analysis of the national potential and of the distribution of the national income" of Great Britain which Mr. Keynes sets out in his essay "shows clearly enough how improbable it is that voluntary savings can be sufficient" (pp. 8-9).

Saving, or deferment of expenditure, must therefore be made compulsory. The first provision in Mr. Keynes's plan

is designed accordingly "to determine a proportion of each man's earnings which must be deferred; — withdrawn, that is to say, from immediate consumption and only made available as a right to consume after the war is over. If the proportion can be fixed fairly for each income group, this device will have a double advantage. It means that rights to immediate consumption during the war can be allotted with a closer regard to relative sacrifice than under any other plan. It also means that rights to deferred consumption after the war, which is another name for the National Debt, will be widely distributed amongst all those who are forgoing immediate consumption, instead of being mainly concentrated, as they were last time, in the hands of the capitalist class.

"The second provision is to provide for this deferred consumption without increasing the National Debt by a general capital levy after the war.

"The third provision is to protect from any reductions in current consumption those whose standard of life offers no sufficient margin. This is effected by an exempt minimum, a sharply progressive scale and a system of family allowances. The net result of these proposals is, to increase the consumption of young families with less than 75s. a week, to leave the *aggregate* consumption of the lower income group having £5 a week or less nearly as high as before the war (whilst at the same time giving them rights, in return for extra work, to deferred consumption after the war), and to reduce the aggregate consumption of the higher income group with more than £5 a week by about a third on the average.

"The fourth provision, ... rendered possible by the previous provisions but not itself essential to them, is to link further changes in money-rates of wages, pensions and other allowances to changes in the cost of a limited range of rationed articles of consumption, an iron ration as it has been called, which the authorities will endeavour to prevent, one way or another, from rising in price" (pp. 10-11).

#### OUTPUT CAPACITY AND THE NATIONAL INCOME

Mr. Keynes then goes on to estimate for Great Britain the maximum current output that can be organised from available resources of men, plant, and materials, the rate at which foreign reserves can safely be drawn upon, and how

much of the resulting total will be used up by the war effort. To facilitate the calculation his estimates are made in terms of pre-war prices.<sup>1</sup> By absorbing a considerable proportion of unemployed workers, by bringing boys, women, and retired or unoccupied persons, into employment, and by more intensive work and overtime, the pre-war national output of £4,850 million can, he estimates, be increased (despite withdrawals to the armed forces and other unfavourable factors) by about 17½ per cent., or £825 million. In addition some £450 million of what would normally be spent on new investment and on making good current depreciation could be diverted to Government purposes. Finally a contribution of up to £350 million could be drawn from the sale of gold and foreign investments and from borrowing abroad. Altogether this yields a total of resources for additional Government requirements (above those of peace-time) and current private consumption of £1,625 (£825 + £450 + £350) million a year.

The additional Government expenditure will, however, he estimates, be in the neighbourhood of £1,850 million.<sup>2</sup> This means that there will have to be a reduction of some £175 million below the pre-war rate of consumption for the community as a whole.<sup>3</sup> It is necessary therefore to withdraw from consumption £825 million of increased incomes (earned in producing the output of that amount) plus £175 million of incomes previously spent — that is, £1,000 million in all.

The imminence of this problem has, Mr. Keynes suggests, been obscured by the fact that after six months of war there still persists a substantial volume of statistical unemployment. But "this does not mean we are still in the Age of Plenty. It means that the Age of Scarcity has arrived *before* the whole of the available labour has been absorbed" (p. 18). No doubt output will be increased in the future, but this will take time. So far, moreover, Government

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<sup>1</sup> Mr. Keynes points out, however, that by January 1940 wholesale prices had risen by 27 per cent., the cost of living by 10 per cent., and wages by perhaps 5 per cent., so that the figures he gives should be increased by nearly 10 per cent. to conform to the wage and price levels current at that date.

<sup>2</sup> The period to which the estimate applies appears to be the year ending 31 March 1941.

<sup>3</sup> Actually, according to the figures quoted above, the reduction would be £225 million (£1,850 million minus £1,625 million), but as Mr. Keynes uses the figure of £175 million this figure is quoted above. The particular figure taken does not in any case affect the main argument.

demand has increased though private consumption has not sufficiently diminished. The deficiency has been met by drawing on stocks of commodities and on foreign resources and working capital. "The task of adjusting private expenditure to the supply which will be available is, therefore, more urgent than appears on the surface. It is not true that we can postpone action until after full employment has been reached" (p. 19).

#### CAN THE RICH PAY FOR THE WAR ?

Of the £1,850 million increase in Government expenditure Mr. Keynes estimates that £150 million could be taken out of accruing depreciation not made good at home and £350 million from assets and borrowing abroad. This leaves £1,350 million to be raised from additional taxes and from new savings (including normal savings), voluntary or involuntary. At least £400 million can be expected from voluntary savings, leaving some £950 million still to be found.

Could the rich provide this sum ? To answer this question Mr. Keynes estimates the probable total incomes and voluntary savings in each of three income groups : below £250 a year, £250-£500, and above £500. The net totals after deducting voluntary savings and pre-war taxes are £2,895, £615 and £1,045 million respectively. The conclusion reached is that "if everyone with more than £500 a year had the whole of his income in excess of that sum taken from him in taxes, the yield would not be nearly enough, being £620 million or only two-thirds of the Government's requirements" (p. 24).

"Yet this suggestion", Mr. Keynes considers, "is a wild exaggeration beyond what could be expected from our fiscal system. Indeed taxation on this scale would involve such wide-spread breaches of existing contracts and commitments that the taxable incomes themselves would be largely reduced. An important part of these incomes is spent on rates and other purposes which do not increase personal consumption, on current resources, the alternative uses of which are much less valuable, and on payments to dependants. It follows that an important contribution must be obtained one way or another from the income group below £500 a year.

"Nor is it practicable to put the exemption limit at £250 a year. There are about 2,430,000 persons with incomes above this level. If the whole of the excess of their remaining incomes above £250 was taken from them, namely £1,010 million and if this caused no reduction in the incomes by repercussion (which is far from the truth), it would only just exceed the Government's requirements. If the cost of the war is to be met by the income group above £250 a year, it would mean taking from them in savings and taxation (new and old) about three-quarters of their total war-time incomes, leaving them with less than a quarter of their incomes for their own consumption.

"In the light of these figures it is not sane to suppose that the war can be financed without putting some burden on the increased war incomes of the class with £5 a week or less. For this income group accounts for about 88 per cent. of the population, for more than 60 per cent. of the total personal incomes of the country after allowing for war increases (due to greater output but allowing nothing for higher wage-rates) and deducting pre-war rates and taxes, and for about two-thirds of current consumption. Moreover the incomes of this group will have been increased on the average by some 15 per cent. as a result of the war. Is it seriously expected that those with less than £5 a week will be allowed to increase their average consumption by 15 per cent., while all those with more than £5 a week will be left on the average with only a quarter of their incomes to consume? The only question is, therefore, how large the contribution of this class must be, and how it can be obtained with least sacrifice and most justice.

"If we have a deliberate plan, considerations of social justice can be weighed and considered. Without such a plan (as at present) they go by default" (pp. 25-26).

#### MR. KEYNES'S PLAN

Of the £950 million of incomes in private hands which must not be spent but must be diverted to the finance of the war some £500 million might be taken by taxation. The idea that the remaining £450 million could be raised by voluntary savings without any aid from inflation Mr. Keynes dismisses as chimerical. "The additional savings would



have to come largely from the income group with £5 a week or less and would require a change in their habits of expenditure for which there is no evidence" (p. 29).

Whatever method is adopted the amount by which the potential expenditure of the lower income groups has to be curtailed will be more or less the same. "Inflation", Mr. Keynes considers, "will be the most burdensome alternative, since this will inevitably bring some advantage to the entrepreneur class, and might cost the worker 20 per cent. in terms of the real value of his earnings. Inflation will also be the most burdensome on the smallest incomes, — a defect it shares with a general sales-tax. New taxes, such as a sales-tax or a wages-tax, or old taxes aided by inflation are alike in that they finally deprive the workers of the benefit of their earnings from their heavier burden of labour. They will work harder, but, as a group, they will *never* derive any personal benefit from it" (p. 29). This, however, is what will inevitably happen if the usual methods are followed.

In the alternative policy which Mr. Keynes proposes the main element is a system of deferred pay. The community as a whole cannot consume *now* the equivalent of their increased war effort, for the results of that effort are used for war purposes and cannot supply increased consumption. Those who make the effort, therefore, must either forego the equivalent consumption altogether, or — and it is this that Mr. Keynes proposes — they must *postpone* it.

The remainder of Mr. Keynes's proposals are designed to ensure that most of the burden of paying for the war falls on the richer classes and that special reliefs are allowed to the poorer. Of the £500 million which is to be raised by additional taxation the bulk should come from those with incomes over £250 ; and the main part of the contribution of the lower income groups should take the form, not of foregoing income outright, but of merely deferring it. To ensure that adequate minimum standards are maintained a family allowance of 5s. a week should be paid in cash for each child up to the age of 15.<sup>1</sup> In addition a minimum ration of consumption goods should be made available at a low fixed price. This minimum ration Mr. Keynes suggests "should not comprise all the articles covered by the cost of living Index, but should be restricted to a limited list of necessities available in time

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<sup>1</sup> There is at present no national system of family allowances in Great Britain.

of war. Nor should any absolute undertaking be given as to future prices. It should be agreed, however, that in the event of any rise in the cost of the minimum ration, the Trade Unions would be free to press for a corresponding increase in wages.

- “But it should be an absolute condition of such an arrangement that a scheme for deferred pay should be accepted at the same time, and that the Trade Unions should agree, subject to the above safeguard, not to press for any further increases in money wages on the ground of the cost of living”<sup>1</sup> (p. 33).

So much for the general principles. The details, which Mr. Keynes regards as a question of degree and opinion, can be summarised only very briefly in this article. In general they are designed to ensure that:

“(1) The aggregate real consumption of the group with £5 a week or less should be maintained for as long as possible at or near the pre-war level.

“(2) Those who remain in the lower half of this group are likely to have benefited least, or not at all, from the aggregate increase in war incomes, and cannot afford, therefore, to have any important part of their current earnings deferred if they are to maintain their standard of life.

“(3) Since some rise in the cost of living relatively to wage-rates (though not to total earnings) is inevitable, and since it is impossible under any scheme to avoid individual inequalities of treatment, we should make sure by means of family allowances that the inequality will work out in favour of households with families, so that these will be for certain better off.

“(4) Since the increased war incomes of the lower income groups probably represent increased work to a greater extent than in the case of the higher income groups, the contribution of the former should be mainly in the form of deferment of earnings and the contribution of the latter mainly in the shape of increased taxation” (pp. 35-36).

The general result aimed at in Mr. Keynes's calculations is that the aggregate consumption of the higher income group

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<sup>1</sup> “Without these conditions”, Mr. Keynes explains, “the weight of purchasing power available in the hands of consumers would render any attempt at price fixation excessively dangerous. The low prices for the minimum ration would merely release more purchasing power for use in other directions, which would drive up other prices to an excessive disparity with that of the fixed ration. To attempt to fix consumption prices whilst allowing an indefinite increase of purchasing power in the hands of consumers would be an obvious error” (pp. 33-34.)

(that is, those with incomes above £250 a year) should be reduced by fully a third and the aggregate consumption of the lower income group not at all.<sup>1</sup> The scheme would thus "effect a considerable redistribution of incomes in the direction of greater equality" (p. 38).

To achieve this result Mr. Keynes proposes : that the system of children's allowances under the existing income tax should be abandoned and replaced by a flat payment of 5s. per week per child, both for income tax payers and for the insured population ; that a basic minimum income of 35s. a week in the case of unmarried men and 45s. in the case of married men be free of deferment ; that a percentage of all incomes in excess of this basic minimum be paid over to the Government partly as direct taxes and partly as deferred pay, the combined percentage taken rising steeply as the level of income increases ; that the appropriate part of a man's withheld income be used to discharge his income tax if any and the balance be credited to him as a blocked deposit carrying interest at  $2\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. compound ; that each individual be allowed considerable choice as to the institution—such as a friendly society, a trade union, or the Post Office Savings Bank—in which his deferred pay should be deposited ; and that deferred pay be released when necessary to meet certain pre-war commitments (such as life insurance premiums and hire purchase instalments), death duties, new life insurance or endowment policy premiums, and certain family and personal emergencies such as illness. Finally, "men on active service might have their economic position made a little more equal to the position of those remaining in civilian employment by being credited with an appropriate blocked deposit proportional to their length of service. A 'veteran's bonus' is a peculiarly fit obligation for discharge by a capital levy on wealth" (p. 50) ; and excess company profits, after payment of taxes, might also be placed in blocked deposit.

The percentage of income to be withheld in the standard case of a married man with no young children would range from nil at an income of 45s. a week to 6 per cent. at 55s.,  $19\frac{1}{4}$  per cent. at 100s., 21 per cent. at £300 a year, 27 per cent. at £500, 35 per cent. at £1,000,  $53\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. at £5,000, and

<sup>1</sup> It should however be noted, though Mr. Keynes does not draw attention to the point, that this does not mean that the average consumption of individuals in this group would be maintained ; for the total members in the group will presumably increase.

85 per cent. at over £50,000. The amounts of deferred pay would range from nil at 45s. a week to 3s. 6d. at 55s., 15s. 10½d. at 100s., £49 a year at £300 a year, £135 at £1,000, £630 at £5,000, and £4,133 at £100,000. The amounts of income remaining after taxation and deferment would be unchanged at an income of 45s. a week, 51s. 6d. from an income of 55s., 80s. 9d. from 100s., £236 a year from an income of £300, £647 from £1,000, £2,315 from £5,000, and £15,099 from £100,000. Altogether a married man with two young children would actually have more left in cash for immediate consumption for all rates of earnings up to 75s. a week and a married man with three young children would have more left for all rates up to nearly 95s. In addition family men would have substantial amounts to their credit in deferred pay.

Save for the exceptions noted, the blocked deposits would not be available for use "until after the war when they would be released by a series of instalments at dates, not unduly delayed, to be fixed by the Government. Meanwhile they should not reckon in calculations arising out of the Means Test or eligibility for old-age pensions or the Capital Levy to be proposed below or the like.

"The appropriate time for the ultimate release of the deposits will have arrived at the onset of the first post-war slump. For then the present position will be exactly reversed. Instead of demand being in excess of supply, we shall have a capacity to produce in excess of the current demand. Thus the system of deferment will be twice blessed; and will do almost as much good hereafter in preventing deflation and unemployment as it does now in preventing inflation and the exhaustion of scarce resources. For it is exceedingly likely that a time will come after the war when we shall be as anxious to increase consumers' demand as we are now to decrease it. It is only sensible to put off private expenditure from the date when it cannot be used to increase consumption to the date when it will bring into employment resources which otherwise would run to waste.

"If the deposits are released in these circumstances, the system will be self-liquidating both in terms of real resources and of finance. In terms of real resources it will be self-liquidating because the consumption will be met out of labour and productive capacity which would otherwise run to waste. In terms of finance it will be self-liquidating because it will

avoid the necessity of raising other loans to pay for unemployment or for public works and the like as a means of preventing unemployment." (pp. 45-46).<sup>1</sup>

If, however, the war continues for two years or longer, the National Debt will reach an unmanageable figure. In such circumstances a capital levy (or tax) would be advisable. For this reason, and to overcome any doubts as to the possibility of repaying the blocked deposits, Mr. Keynes suggests that an undertaking be given that a capital levy will be enforced after the war to bring in an amount sufficient to discharge the liability in respect of deferred pay. The two should not be synchronised ; for it would be best to withhold the deferred pay until the onset of serious unemployment, while this would be the worst possible time for the capital levy. "If the levy is to be paid in a lump sum, it should be discharged at the earliest possible date after the close of the war, especially if temporary boom conditions seem imminent. But it might be preferable, as facilitating collection and greatly lessening the disturbance, to collect it in a series of instalments over a period. This procedure would have the special merit that it might pave the way administratively for a permanent capital tax which would be a valuable addition to our fiscal machinery and has certain important advantages over income tax." (p. 48).

For the scheme as a whole, Mr. Keynes claims that it offers to the trade unions "great and evident advantages compared with progressive inflation or with a wages tax. In spite of the demands of war, the workers would have

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<sup>1</sup> Mr. Keynes has since suggested that the system of deferred pay, to be released later as a means of combating unemployment, would be equally desirable in peacetime. "I think of it", he writes, "as a first instalment of a comprehensive social policy to regulate the general rate of spending so as to avoid the disastrous alternations of boom and slump which will otherwise continue to undermine the foundations of society." Such a policy "may come to be thought of as marking the line of division between the totalitarian and the free economy. For if the community's aggregate rate of spending can be regulated, the way in which personal incomes are spent and the means by which demand is satisfied can be safely left free and individual." (Letter to *The Times*, 10 April 1940). This proposal raises issues too broad and complex to be dealt with here, but three brief comments may be offered. First, it would obviously be incomparably more difficult to secure public acceptance of the principle of deferred pay in peacetime than in time of war. Second, the effectiveness of any particular scale of deferment would depend largely on the extent to which economic fluctuations originate within the country concerned ; a scale appropriate to Great Britain might have little effect in such countries as Argentina, Australia, or New Zealand, and the scale required to have any marked influence in these countries might be so high as to be quite impracticable. Third, there may be other ways of regulating "the community's aggregate rate of spending" which would be at once more effective and more acceptable.

secured the enjoyment, sooner or later, of a consumption fully commensurate with their increased effort ; whilst family allowances and the cheap ration would actually improve, even during the war, the economic position of the poorer families. We should have succeeded in making the war an opportunity for a positive social improvement. How great a benefit in comparison with a futile attempt to evade a reasonable share of the burden of a just war, ending in a progressive inflation ! " (p. 34).

#### COMMENT ON THE PLAN

Though Mr. Keynes's proposals have aroused keen interest in Great Britain — and indeed elsewhere — they have not as yet gained the full support even of those groups of the community whose interests they are designed to serve. It was not to be expected that they would receive either speedy or unqualified acceptance, and the fact that opinion is still divided — and indeed not clearly crystallised — does not mean that some modification of the Keynes plan may not eventually receive more general support. Apart from such points as are discussed below there is, it may be suggested, one general question the answer to which will have an important bearing on the prospects of the plan. This is the extent to which opportunities can be afforded for the effective participation of the workers' organisations both in the elaboration of any final scheme and in its actual administration both during and after the war. In any case, the fate of the plan must depend largely on the extent to which it can win the approval of the trade unions ; for so revolutionary a principle as that of deferred pay could not be applied without their concurrence, and the plan as a whole seems unlikely to be adopted, either as it stands or in any form which retains its essential features, without their strong and active support.

For the present, indeed, the principle of deferred pay has been rejected by the British Government. The Chancellor of the Exchequer, in presenting his proposals for the 1940-41 Budget, expressed fears that compulsion would " kill the voluntary spirit " and endanger the success of the national savings campaign, that if the Keynes scheme were adopted wages might rise and thus nullify its effects, and that its application would involve serious administrative difficulties.

He therefore preferred to rely on increased taxation and on borrowing from voluntary savings.<sup>1</sup>

Though Mr. Keynes's proposals have not yet been adopted, they and the criticism and comment to which they have given rise have thrown light on many of the central issues of social policy in wartime. Certain of the points discussed which are of general interest will be surveyed briefly in the following pages.<sup>2</sup>

### *Voluntary Savings versus Compulsory Deferment*

One of the main subjects of controversy is the relative merits of compulsory and voluntary savings. Compulsory methods, it has been suggested, accord ill with traditions of democracy and freedom. To impose a system of deferment or "forced loans" would be to discourage voluntary saving, the possibilities of which have not yet been fully explored. The result might be to reduce rather than to increase the total volume of saving. Wage earners in particular, it is argued, might save less under "a compulsory system hedged in by safeguards against inequities and injustices as between one household and another" than under the voluntary system, since the psychological reaction to compulsory levies would be adverse to additional voluntary saving, and consequently "the saving capacity of the household enjoying a temporary and fluctuating accession of income through extra employment and overtime would not be tapped, and it is in these cases, perhaps rare numerically but whose resources are heavy in the aggregate, that the capacity of saving is greatest".<sup>3</sup>

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<sup>1</sup> *The Times*, 24 April 1940, p. 3. The Chancellor announced at the same time that a Bill would be introduced to limit company dividends for the duration of the war. As a result, a substantial volume of company profits will remain undistributed until after the war and will in practice have to be invested in Government securities (no other suitable avenue of investment being open in wartime). The effect will thus be similar to that of Mr. Keynes's proposal, noted above, that the balance of excess company profits after deduction of taxes be held in a blocked deposit.

<sup>2</sup> The reader who desires to pursue further the subject of war economics and war finance may be referred to the following works on war economics and war finance: A. C. PIGOU: *The Political Economy of War* (London, Macmillan, Revised edition 1940); R. W. B. CLARKE: *The Economic Effort of War* (London, Allen & Unwin, 1940); Geoffrey CROWTHER: *The Sineews of War and Paying for the War* (Oxford Pamphlets on World Affairs, Oxford, Clarendon Press, 1940); André PIATIER: *L'Economie de Guerre* (Paris, Librairie Générale de Droit et de Jurisprudence, 1939); E. M. F. DURBIN: *How to Pay for the War* (London, Routledge, 1939); and E. Ronald WALKER: *War-time Economics, with special reference to Australia* (Melbourne University Press, 1939). There is also an extensive literature in German.

<sup>3</sup> Letter from Sir Theodore CHAMBERS in *The Times*, 21 March 1940, p. 9.

To these criticisms Mr. Keynes replies in effect that, while voluntary saving is entirely desirable and is beneficial so far as it goes, it is only by the method of inflation, with all the hardship and inequity inevitably involved, that such saving can be brought about on a sufficient scale.<sup>1</sup> That some rise in prices is to be expected is indeed common ground, for those who advocate reliance on voluntary saving do not claim that it can arrest inflation altogether. The difference in the dimensions of the inflation expected is a difference of degree, but it is one which may be of vital importance to those sections of the community which bear the brunt of rising prices. A special interest attaches, therefore, to Mr. Keynes's analysis on this point. For reasons of space this analysis, which is illustrated by 1914-1918 figures and by estimates for the present time, cannot be given in full here but its general nature can be indicated. "There is", says Mr. Keynes, "no difficulty whatever in paying for the cost of the war out of voluntary savings;—provided we put up with the consequences . . . . A Government, which has control of the banking and currency system, can always find the cash to pay for its purchases of home-produced goods. After allowing for the yield of taxation and for the use of foreign reserves to pay for the excess of imports over exports, the balance of the Government's expenditure necessarily remains in the hands of the public in the shape of voluntary savings. That is an arithmetical certainty; for the Government having taken the goods, out of which a proportion of the income of the public has been earned, there is nothing on which this proportion of income can be spent. If prices go up, the extra receipts swell someone's income, so that there is just as much left over as before" (p. 61). The "someone" whose income is increased by rising prices is in general the owner of goods. A large part of his profits will be taken in taxes but "it is likely that a considerable proportion of the balance will be voluntarily saved; not so much because the recipients, being relatively rich, will save more readily, but because the profits will largely belong to companies which will be

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<sup>1</sup> Mr. Keynes does refer to another possible method—namely, control of the production or consumption of consumers' goods so comprehensive and so strict as to leave consumers with a significant fraction of their incomes which they would be unable to spend and so would have to save—but dismisses it as an "elaborate, roundabout and wasteful method" of arriving "at the same result as if that fraction of their incomes had been deferred from the outset" (pp. 52-53).



disinclined, for various reasons, to distribute the bulk of them in higher dividends but will prefer in the circumstances to save them on behalf of their shareholders" (p. 65). Money wages also will rise after a time lag. Wages and other costs will in fact chase prices upwards but prices will always be a jump ahead. "However much wages are increased, the act of spending these wages will always push prices this much in advance" (p. 66). Moreover, pensioners and *rentiers* with fixed money incomes cannot escape a sacrifice. "It is these time-lags and other impediments which come to the rescue" (p. 66). "Thus, after all, the system of voluntary savings will have worked successfully. That is to say, the money will have been raised 'voluntarily' without an unlimited increase of prices. The only condition for its success is that prices should rise relatively to wages to the extent necessary to divert the right amount of working class and other incomes into the hands of the profiteers and thence into the hands of the Treasury, largely in the form of taxes and partly in the form of extra voluntary savings by the profiteers" (p. 67).

Whether the term "voluntary" is appropriate is, says Mr. Keynes, a matter of taste. "It is a method of *compulsorily* converting the appropriate part of the earnings of the worker which *he* does not save voluntarily into the voluntary savings (and taxation) of the entrepreneur" (p. 69).

If this method is followed, the claims on future consumption and the advantages of security which saved resources afford will be concentrated after this war, as they were after 1918, in the hands of a small class of persons. Under Mr. Keynes' plan they would be distributed widely throughout the community.

### *Administrative Difficulties*

Closely connected with the objection to compulsion as being likely to deter voluntary saving is the criticism that it would involve serious difficulties in administration. It would require, for example, the exact ascertainment of large classes of incomes about which little or no information is at present available. To avoid anomalies and injustice, household as well as individual incomes would have to be taken into account, for "the household and not the individual is the fundamental unit of earning and spending . . . .

There is not only an infinite variety of circumstances connected with commitments and dependants as between one household and another, but the needs of the household in monetary terms vary from week to week and are rarely static. One week the aggregate earnings of the household may rise and the next week fall. The commitments towards dependants vary with the coming and going of dependants. There is nothing static about the relationship between needs and resources in the wage earner's household. Mr. Keynes' proposal is to assess deferred pay on the basis of the wages of the individual. This will not fit in with the facts of life. Were such a proposal to be put into force there would be a demand for an adequate 'means test' and indubitably the minds of the people would be turned in the direction of avoidance of the levy."<sup>1</sup> There would consequently be serious difficulties of administration and enforcement, and the system as a whole, like the "means test" under the Unemployment Insurance Acts, might be exceedingly unpopular.

These are undoubtedly serious difficulties. Were the general principle of the plan accepted, some of them, such as the lack of adequate information about individual and household incomes, could no doubt be overcome, and the information collected would be valuable for the planning of social and economic policy not merely during the war but afterwards. Others, however, are of such a character as to suggest that if the Keynes plan or anything closely resembling it is to be applied successfully, it must first be understood and accepted by public opinion, and particularly by organised labour.

### *The Distribution of the Burden*

More fundamental and more difficult to reconcile are the differences of opinion as to how the burden of the war should be distributed among the different income groups. The central question is not so much how to pay for the war as who is to pay for it. Mr. Keynes has been careful here to emphasise that the details of his plan are open to discussion and amendment; almost the only point on which he has insisted is the fact that, although the rich can and should bear by far the greater part of the burden, their total income is not sufficient to cover the whole cost; part of the burden must therefore

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<sup>1</sup> Letter from Sir Theodore CHAMBERS in *The Times*, 21 March 1940, p. 9.

fall on those members of the lower income groups whose income exceeds a necessary minimum. This contention has not seriously been challenged. Criticism has concentrated rather on such points as the particular scale of levies suggested by Mr. Keynes and the proportions in which these levies should be allocated to deferred pay or taxation.

A married man with £4 a week, it is pointed out, would have only £3 7s. 9d. left after deduction of the levy, while a married man with £19 a week would have £12 10s. Why so great a difference, if the aim is to reduce spending power? Again, if the war lasts three years, the group with incomes over £250 a year would get back deferred pay to the amount of £1,050 million, or 55 per cent. of their total income for one year, while the group with incomes of less than £250 would get back only £750 million, or 25 per cent. of one year's income. How can this be reconciled with the aim of reducing inequality? Those with incomes below £250 would have an average of  $8\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. of their total income retained in deferred pay; those above £250 an average of 18 per cent. The latter would postpone a larger part of their spending power because they can afford to do so. But does not this mean that they could bear heavier taxation?

Such criticisms as these raise the whole question of the distribution of wealth and income. It is Mr. Keynes's aim to modify this distribution in the direction of greater equality. What his critics contend is that he does not go far enough: the change, they say, should be both greater and faster. On such issues as these no easy agreement is to be expected. On the one hand, the radical changes which war brings in the economic and institutional framework underlying the existing distribution strengthen the case which can be made at any time for modifying that distribution in the direction of reducing inequality; while on the other a balance must be struck, in framing any practical policy, between the disorganisation and social costs involved in any sudden departure from customary conditions and the benefits to be expected from the achievement of greater equality. On all these matters there is clearly room both for difference of opinion and for prolonged negotiation.

The problems involved, it may be noted, are not merely political and ethical but economic as well; for any change in the distribution of income involves transfers of workers

and of other productive resources from one type of production to another. If the incomes of the poor are increased at the expense of the rich, the commodities they will buy will not be the same as those formerly purchased by the rich. How serious the problems of transfer will be will depend both on the magnitude and on the rapidity of the change effected. In wartime, moreover, what matters most for the purpose of maximising war effort is not whose spending is restricted but whether the productive resources set free by the reduction in spending can be adapted quickly to war uses. Redistribution will not serve immediate war needs (save in so far as it improves general morale) unless the resources formerly used to supply the demands of the rich can be used either directly to produce war supplies or indirectly to increase the efficiency (by improving the living standards) of workers engaged in producing such supplies. To stress such points as this is not, of course, to imply that measures of redistribution are either impracticable or undesirable. Such considerations must, however, be taken into account — in addition to the general social consequences involved — in any estimate of the rate at which redistribution may advantageously proceed.

Complementary to the criticism that under the Keynes plan the proportion of the levies on incomes to be taken by taxation is not sufficiently steeply graded is the suggestion that other types of taxation might also be used to a greater extent. One of the proposals most frequently made is that for the duration of the war all profits above a certain level or all excess profits traceable to the war should be taken for the State. This Mr. Keynes describes as a "counsel of perfection" but inadvisable in practice "because it would deprive those who would nevertheless remain in control of their businesses of any incentive towards economy; and the experience of the last war showed that this is liable to lead to great extravagance and waste" (p. 50). A further objection, it might be added, is the possibility that taxation on such a scale as to leave the entrepreneur no opportunity for gain might weaken the incentive to maximum effort. It is, however, a matter of opinion — and perhaps also a matter for investigation — at what point the check on incentives to economy and efficiency becomes serious. To suggest, as is sometimes done, that wage earners should put forth their maximum effort for motives of patriotism and without

asking for wage increases, and to argue at the same time that profit incentives must be maintained for the entrepreneur, is, to say the least, illogical. But whatever be the level at which rewards must be maintained to provide the necessary incentive the case for financing the cost of the war to the greatest possible extent from taxation is so strong that advantage should certainly be taken of every possibility of increasing the revenue from this source. Too much should not, however, be expected from taxes on increased profits, for unless inflation is allowed to develop on a considerable scale — and this, it is urged, should at all costs be avoided — the rise in profits will not be very great.

In addition to more steeply graded income taxes and other taxes designed to diminish unessential consumption, there should, it is suggested by some critics, be an annual tax on capital not merely after but during the war. To those who urge a capital tax as a method of war finance, Mr. Keynes replies that it "would do little or nothing to solve the immediate problem. A Capital Levy on a scale worth having could not be met out of the current consumption of the wealthy. They could only pay it by handing over assets to the Government, the capital value of which would be of no assistance whatever to the immediate financial task. Nothing is of the least use now which does not diminish consumption out of current income; and . . . no expedient can be adequate which allows the increased purchasing power of the lower income groups to materialise in a corresponding increase in their consumption. There is no avoiding a postponement of expenditure on the part of this group, except by inflation which allows them to spend and deprives them of the fruit of spending" (p. 49). The fact, however, that a capital tax would not solve the immediate problem — which is to divert income from current consumption — does not rule out the case for it as a means of diminishing social inequality. To quote one advocate: "A capital levy will not pay for the war; but it could be so used as to limit greatly the opportunities for war profiteering, and it would be an earnest of real preparedness to accept a large measure of redistribution of wealth at the expense of the capitalist class."<sup>1</sup> It might at the same time go far to reassure those

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<sup>1</sup> G. D. H. COLE : "Economic Consequences of Mr. Keynes", in *The Tribune*, 29 March 1940, p. 7.

critics who fear that an undertaking to impose a capital levy after the war might not in fact be carried out. As against such possible advantages, however, due weight must be given to the possible repercussions of any substantial capital tax on property markets disorganised by war, the difficulty at such a time of ensuring equitable treatment as between holders of different types of property, and the numerous other administrative difficulties involved. Such difficulties, Mr. Keynes believes, might prove insuperable. Undoubtedly they would call for special measures of a kind which a levy imposed immediately after the end of a war might not necessitate.

### *Some Implications for Wage Policy*

Mr. Keynes's plan is not concerned primarily with the problem of wages. "It is wiser", he thinks, "to deal with it indirectly" (p. 55). If some such scheme as he has proposed is not adopted a significant rise in prices cannot be avoided and real wages will inevitably be seriously reduced. If, however, by the adoption of his proposal for deferment of income, purchasing power is withdrawn from circulation there will be no reason why the vicious cycle of prices and wages should be started by the forcing up of prices at the demand end. "There might", he suggests, in elaboration of a proposal outlined above, "be certain subsidies in part compensation for price increases due to the higher cost of imports and some rise of wages for grades of labour which already had a special claim for an improvement. But the main reason for the development of an acute wages problem would have been removed, and we could safely leave the sequel to the common-sense and public spirit of trade unionists as to what is or is not reasonable in time of war.

"Nevertheless, if a scheme for deferment of pay is adopted, this would make practicable a further measure which might considerably ease the wages problem. For with an adequate proportion of consumers' purchasing power withdrawn, the risk and expense of a deliberate policy to keep down the prices of a limited range of necessities might be no longer prohibitive. I suggest, therefore (contingently on the adoption of a scheme for deferment of pay), that a limited range of essentials, considerably narrower than the list covered by the Ministry of Labour Index Number for the cost of living,

should be drawn up and that the Government (without giving any specific pledge) should do their best to prevent any rise in an index number based on the cost of these articles ; and that on their side the Trade Unions (also without giving any specific pledge) should agree that they will not press for any wage increases *on the grounds of the cost of living*, except in so far as the Government may be unsuccessful in keeping the above index number from rising. This suggestion is in no way essential to our main proposals, but is a further development which these proposals would facilitate " (pp. 56-57). The final sentence of this extract is worth underlining : the proposal to link wages to the prices of necessities is, Mr. Keynes considers, rendered possible by his plan ; but it is not essential.

Elsewhere in his book, Mr. Keynes describes the limited range of necessities to the prices of which wages would be linked as an " iron ration " — a term which has suggested to some critics a type of minimum subsistence that would be incompatible with either the self-respect or the health and efficiency of the wage-earner. Such an interpretation probably does less than justice to Mr. Keynes' intention, but until his proposal is made more specific the suspicions of the critics are likely to persist. It is clear in any case that if the plan as a whole should become at a later stage a subject of actual negotiation a good deal would turn on the interpretation given to details of this kind.

Apart from such comments on particular aspects of the plan, most of the discussion of its implications for wage policy has been concerned with the general question of the proportions in which the cost of the war is to be shared as between wage earners and other groups in the community. As such it has been noted briefly above in the section on the distribution of the burden.

The writer has not as yet seen any discussion of the difficulties which might be involved in the actual application of an undertaking that (with the exceptions noted) wage increases would not be sought on the ground of rising costs of living, or in any attempt to limit wage increases to those " grades of labour which already had a special claim for an improvement ". Yet in practice, it may be suggested, either of these policies would be likely to raise problems of considerable difficulty. It may be, as Mr. Keynes assumes, that

stabilisation of the cost of necessities would remove the main reason for the development of an acute wages problem ; but it is easy to overestimate the influence of the cost-of-living factor in wage negotiations, and an agreement to eliminate all reference to this factor might in practice have little effect at a time when many types of labour are in short supply and the demand for them is keen. For much the same reason an attempt to limit wage increases to workers with special claims for improvement might stand little chance of success unless it formed part of a comprehensive system of regulation covering both wage rates and the movement or engagement of workers.<sup>1</sup> There is not space here to examine the problems involved in the operation of such a system, but it need scarcely be emphasised that they would be both complex and persistent. For their successful solution the full collaboration at all stages of trade union and employer representatives would be essential.

Finally, it may be suggested, there will be other problems of wages besides those referred to which will need attention. In time of war some industries must languish and decline and the wages of their workers may remain or fall unduly low. Two of Mr. Keynes's proposals — family allowances and low prices for necessities — would, it is true, do much to safeguard the position of such workers, and his plan as a whole, by restricting the tendency to inflation, would remove one of the main causes of their distress. It is, however, by no means certain that these measures would be sufficient. Where trade union organisation is weak an extension of existing minimum wage fixing machinery or some new arrangement for this purpose may prove desirable.

### CONCLUSION

It will be clear from even so cursory a survey that Mr. Keynes has succeeded in stimulating keen thought on some of the most important issues of the present time. Though opinions are bound to differ as to the merits of parti-

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<sup>1</sup> Cf. in this connection the accounts of experience during 1914-1918 given in Humbert WOLFE : *Labour Supply and Regulation*, (Oxford, Clarendon Press, 1923) ; Henry CLAY : " Government Control of Wages in Wartime ", in *The Problem of Industrial Relations and other Lectures* (London, Macmillan & Co., 1929) ; and William OUALID and Charles PICQUENARD : *Salaires et Tarifs. Conventions collectives et Grèves. La Politique du Ministère de l'Armement et du Ministère du Travail* (Paris, Les Presses Universitaires de France, 1928).



cular features of his plan and as to the ways in which it might be improved, the concern which it reveals for social justice and the prospects it offers of an approach to greater equality and security and of some reduction of economic instability are such as to command the respect even of its critics.

As its author insists, the plan as a whole must be judged against the possible alternatives. In the list of these, taxation as a source for the whole of war expenditure is scarcely to be included ; for however desirable it may be to rely on this source to the greatest possible extent it would be unrealistic to expect it to cover anything like the whole cost. In a prolonged war the real alternatives to some such scheme as that of Mr. Keynes must be either the regimentation involved in wholesale rationing, price fixing, and wage control, or such a degree of inflation as would bring intolerable hardship to all sections of the workers save the fortunate few whose strategical position might enable them to secure corresponding wage advances. Against such alternatives the advantages of Mr. Keynes's main proposals seem likely, as time goes on, to stand out in increasingly sharp contrast.

# SOCIAL LEGISLATION IN WARTIME

## Requisitioning of Labour

A number of countries have found it necessary, in view of the present international situation, to make legislative provision for the requisitioning of labour should the need arise. This is quite distinct from the compulsory labour service to which young people are liable for a specified period in certain countries and which is enforced whether or not an emergency exists; such service, which is not covered in this article, exists in Bohemia-Moravia, Bulgaria, Germany, and Rumania. Moreover, no reference is made to measures which have been adopted in a number of countries imposing restrictions on change of employment, except when they are a direct result of requisitioning. Such measures form part of the general control of employment in time of emergency.<sup>1</sup>

It may be of interest to note the various measures for the requisitioning of adult labour in the chronological order of their adoption. The first country to provide for it was *Finland* (26 September 1930), where provision was made for such requisitioning on a limited scale for purposes of national defence. Then followed *Germany* (22 June 1938), where it was adopted in connection with the Four-Year Plan and was put into operation almost immediately. The next measure on this subject was the Act of 11 July 1938 in *France* relating to the general organisation of the nation in time of war, but it was applied only when war was imminent. On 15 October 1938 provision was made in *Hungary* for compulsory work in agriculture whenever, owing to mobilisation, the continuity of agricultural production could not be ensured in any other way. On the same date a second measure was adopted in *Germany* relating to special labour service in case of public emergency; this was put into operation from 26 August 1939. In *Finland* the partial measure of 1930 was supplemented on 16 June 1939 by an Act providing for the requisitioning of labour on a larger scale than under the previous Act, and this was put into operation by an Order of 13 October 1939. On 8 July 1939 an Order was issued in *Japan* providing for requisitioning of labour in order to increase the output of munitions and other needed commodities, and this came into force on 15 July 1939. In *Switzerland*, the Federal Council

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<sup>1</sup> Cf., for such measures in France and Great Britain, *International Labour Review*, Vol. XL, No. 5, Nov. 1939, pp. 648-9 and 651-2, and in Germany, Vol. XLI, No. 4, April 1940, pp. 390-1.

issued an Order on 2 September 1939 establishing compulsory labour service, and this Order came into force two days later. *Hungary* supplemented its previous measure, which had been confined to agricultural work, by a further Order of 5 October 1939 providing for the requisitioning of labour on work of national defence. Compulsory labour was introduced into the General Government territory of *Poland* by Orders of 26 October 1939 in conformity with a Decree of 12 October 1939 concerning the administration of Polish territory occupied by Germany. By a Legislative Decree of 25 November 1939 the German system of emergency service was adopted in *Bohemia-Moravia*. On 19 December 1939 a Decree was issued in the *Netherlands* providing for labour service in those parts of the country in which a state of war is proclaimed. Finally, on 30 December 1939 a National Service Act was promulgated in *Sweden* giving the Government power, in the event of war, to take various steps for the purpose of meeting a demand for labour for certain specified purposes.

These measures all have the same object in view—namely, the provision of the labour required for national defence and other essential needs if such labour cannot be obtained by the ordinary methods. As a rule, they are applicable only in time of war or when there is a partial or total mobilisation, and indeed most of them were not adopted until the summer of 1939 or later when war in Europe seemed to be imminent or had actually broken out. Germany is an exception to this rule, and there the requisitioning of labour has been in actual operation since the summer of 1938; it was applied in the building of the western fortifications.

It is implicit in all these schemes that they shall be applied only if normal methods of obtaining labour fail, and in some countries explicit reference is made to the fact that voluntary methods must first be tried before the authorities have recourse to requisitioning. It is usually provided that wages and other conditions of employment shall be those customary for the work done in the district concerned and that requisitioned workers shall be subject to labour legislation like other workers. The detailed regulations concerning remuneration vary very much, however, from country to country. The administration of the scheme is necessarily in the hands of the State, but provision is sometimes made for bodies including representatives of employers and workers either to administer the scheme or to exercise some measure of supervision.

#### FINLAND

The first measure on this subject was an Act relating to a state of war dated 26 September 1930, which provided in a limited way for the requisitioning of labour for purposes of national defence in Finland. An Act of 16 June 1939 provides for compulsory labour service on a larger scale. This Act was put into operation by an Order of 13 October 1939, and an Order for the administration of the Act was issued on the same date.<sup>1</sup>

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<sup>1</sup> *Sosiaalinen Aikakauskirja*, No. 12, 1939.

*Scope.* The Act of 16 June 1939 provides that all Finnish citizens between the ages of 18 and 60 years are liable to perform work which is directly or indirectly in the interests of national defence. Exemptions may be granted in the case of persons responsible for the care of children or other helpless people, State employees who are exempted from military service in time of war, and those actually called up for military service.

*Conditions of employment.* Persons requisitioned for compulsory service are entitled to a remuneration corresponding to the wages paid for work of a comparable character in the same locality. They must be provided by the labour service committee with an employment book showing among other things the rates of wages agreed upon and the duration of the work. Unless otherwise provided wages must be paid every seven days, or if the work lasts more than 14 days at least twice a month. If they have not received their wages within six days from the date on which they were due workers are entitled to apply to the labour service committee, giving particulars of the work they have done and the wages due to them.

Persons requisitioned for service are entitled to the benefit of legislation concerning conditions of work, subject to certain restrictions contained in the statutory provisions relating to a state of war. Employers and workers must be represented equally on the bodies set up for the administration of the labour service when questions regarding the conditions of work and wages of persons called up for service are under consideration.

*Penalties.* Fines are imposed on employers and workers for failure to comply with the provisions of the Act.

#### FRANCE

In France the basic legislation is the Act of 11 July 1938<sup>1</sup> relating to the general organisation of the nation in time of war. This Act and a Decree of 28 November 1938<sup>2</sup> containing administrative regulations, in so far as they deal with the employment of persons, are intended to enable the competent civil authorities to obtain the indispensable staff for public authorities and services and private establishments and services working for national defence.

Provision is made for two methods of obtaining this labour supply. The first method, which is based on the consent of the individual, enables the authorities to obtain voluntary labour. The second method, which is based on the necessity for obtaining such labour as is essential for the nation, involves the requisition of services. Workers may be requisitioned collectively or individually.

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<sup>1</sup> *Journal Officiel*, 13 July 1938.

<sup>2</sup> *Ibid.*, 28-29 Nov. 1938.

*Collective requisitioning.* Requisitioning may be carried out collectively for the staff of any public body or private undertaking which is considered essential for the needs of the country.

In the case of public services, all Frenchmen not called to the colours and all French women and French nationals<sup>1</sup> belonging to the staff of any public authority or service are required, as soon as mobilisation orders are issued, to remain at their posts or to take up any other posts assigned to them. In addition, persons in receipt of pensions who were formerly in the service of a public authority or service must place themselves at the disposal of the body to which they belonged during a period of five years from the date of their superannuation, provided they possess the necessary physical and mental powers.

In the case of private services and undertakings which are considered essential for the needs of the country, a collective requisitioning order is issued to all men, women, and young persons, belonging to the staff. In accordance with this provision an Order of 24 August 1939<sup>2</sup> prescribed the collective requisitioning of the management and entire staff of private establishments, factories, and undertakings, engaged in work for the military, naval or air authorities or having received notice of orders or sub-contracts or of manufacturing requirements from a Ministry. An Order of 31 August 1939<sup>3</sup> extended collective requisitioning to the management and staff of undertakings engaged in work for the protection of stores of hydrocarbons.

*Individual requisitioning.* Any French national of the male sex of 18 years of age or over may be called for service individually if he is not called to the colours or engaged in air-raid precautions. His services may be requisitioned temporarily or permanently; the work required of him may be full-time or restricted to certain duties.

*Administration.* A Decree of 12 April 1939<sup>4</sup> appointed the Minister of Labour as the sole Minister responsible for the organisation, regulation, and utilisation, of labour in time of war. One of his duties, which are defined in a Decree of 15 September 1939<sup>5</sup>, is to ensure the recruiting of French civilian workers of both sexes, taking into account the technical indications supplied by the Ministers of Agriculture, Public Works, and Munitions. He must also determine the cases in which the requirements of public services and private undertakings may be met by North African, colonial or foreign labour, and secure the distribution and proper utilisation of that labour.

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<sup>1</sup> The term "French national" (*ressortissant*) includes the Native populations in French dependencies.

<sup>2</sup> *Journal Officiel*, 25 Aug. 1939.

<sup>3</sup> *Ibid.*, 2 Sept. 1939.

<sup>4</sup> *Ibid.*, 14 April 1939.

<sup>5</sup> *Ibid.*, 16 Sept. 1939.

Responsibility for the supervision and control of requisitioned labour is in the hands of departmental<sup>1</sup> committees consisting of equal numbers of representatives of employers' and workers' organisations under the chairmanship of the prefects. The members of these committees are appointed by the local authorities, and their composition and powers are fixed by the Minister responsible for the supply of labour. The committees will decide without any charge and at the request of the parties concerned all matters concerning the allocation of requisitioned labour to employment. In each department the prefect is responsible for allocating the available staff to the various public services and authorities and private establishments and services, taking into account the relative importance of each for national defence. The prefect receives instructions from the Minister of Labour. In the case of collective requisitioning involving the whole staff of a service or undertaking, notice of the requisition order is given to the mayor or the head of the service or undertaking and the staff is informed by notice or circular or in any other appropriate manner.

For the staffs of public authorities and services, requisitioning is automatic without special order as soon as general mobilisation is ordered. Pensioners from public authorities and services receive notice as far as possible before war breaks out.

*Procedure.* Persons whose services are requisitioned individually are employed according to their occupation and skill or, if that is not possible, according to their general capabilities. Within each special field workers are called up according to their ages and family responsibilities, the youngest being taken first and the age of the individual being deemed to be increased by two years in respect of each child maintained by him. The requisition order indicates the nature of the employment or service required of the individual, the probable duration, the time allowed for taking up the duties, and whether or not the worker is required to live near the place of employment.

A Decree of 19 October 1939<sup>2</sup> concerning persons requisitioned for work in industrial and commercial establishments lays down that no person whose services are requisitioned may leave the work to which he has been allocated unless the requisition order is cancelled or a new order is issued assigning him to another place. If an establishment is moved, the requisitioned workers must go with it. If an employer considers that a worker assigned to him does not possess the necessary qualifications, he must inform the labour inspector, who must decide within three days of the date of notification whether the worker shall be kept in that establishment or transferred to another, or whether the requisition order shall be cancelled.

A Decree of 10 November 1939<sup>3</sup> defines, among other things the duties of employers in connection with mobilised persons allocated to

<sup>1</sup> This refers to administrative areas and not to Government departments.

<sup>2</sup> *Journal Officiel*, 30 Oct. 1939.

<sup>3</sup> *Ibid.*, 16 Nov. 1939.

special work and civilians whose services have been requisitioned. They are forbidden to engage a worker allocated to special work in another establishment unless the worker is the bearer of an order from the military authorities cancelling his previous employment. No employer may dismiss a worker allocated to special work unless the military authorities agree to cancel the worker's appointment or to transfer him to another establishment. If, however, the worker cannot be retained in the undertaking for serious reasons he may be summarily dismissed by the employer, provided the military authorities are immediately informed. On being so informed, the military authorities must hold an enquiry into the case within eight days and according to the results of this enquiry order the cancellation of the worker's special appointment or his maintenance in special employment and his transfer to another undertaking, after consultation with the responsible Ministry or the labour inspector.

When the worker is maintained in special employment, the labour inspector may require the employer to pay compensation corresponding to the expenditure caused to the State by the worker's transfer, but such compensation may not exceed the expenditure entailed by the worker's transfer and his maintenance for 15 days.

Employers are strictly forbidden to engage workers without first making sure that their services are not liable to be requisitioned or that, having been requisitioned for another undertaking, they have been put at their disposal by the labour inspector or the responsible Ministry.

During hostilities employers must issue a certificate to all workers who leave their undertakings for any reason whatsoever. This certificate must give all the details required by Section 24 of Book I of the Labour Code, besides indicating that the services of the worker are not liable to requisition.

*Conditions of employment.* Persons whose services are requisitioned are covered by labour and social legislation, unless the circumstances necessitate exceptions.

Special regulations govern the fixing of wages and salaries in Government departments, establishments, and services. With regard to other employment, if the post is a salaried post and already existed in peace-time, the remuneration payable for the whole period is the initial salary for the post. If requisitioning implies retaining a person in his post, that person receives the salary originally granted to him. When the post is a new one, the salary is fixed by reference to that of some comparable post existing in peace-time. In the case of wage-paid employment, the remuneration is fixed by the requisitioning authority on the basis of the normal schedules prepared under the Decrees of 10 April 1937<sup>1</sup> concerning conditions of employment for work on Government contracts. The only supplement to wages which is permitted is an output bonus, the amount of which is fixed by the same authority in each parti-

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<sup>1</sup> *Ibid.*, 14 April 1937.

cular case. When the requisition order makes it compulsory for the individual to live near the place of employment, he is entitled to free transport for himself and, if he so desires, for members of his family and their personal effects. If the employer does not require him to live near the place of employment, the individual must pay the cost of his daily journeys to and from work.

The Decree of 19 October 1939<sup>1</sup> prescribes that persons requisitioned either collectively or individually are subject to the rules of the establishment to which they are assigned. If a requisition order is cancelled, the worker is entitled to unemployment allowances, although, if it is for a reason of discipline, allowances will only be paid after the expiration of the waiting period.

*Penalties.* The Act of 11 July 1938 provides that in time of war any person who does not comply with a requisition order or who abandons the public service, establishment, or undertaking, to which he has been assigned is liable to imprisonment for a period of from six days to five years. As regards discipline within an undertaking, the Decree of 19 October 1939 concerning persons requisitioned for work in industrial and commercial establishments lays down that the penalties imposed for failure to comply with the establishment rules must not interfere with the employment of labour or with production and the employer may therefore decide that a penalty shall not involve any interruption of work. In that case it shall entail the deduction by the employer of half the wage of the worker concerned for the period of punishment, provided that the amount does not exceed two days' wages in two weeks. The proceeds of the fine must be paid into the National Solidarity Fund.

Penalties are also provided for employers by the Decree of 10 November 1939 defining among other things the duties of employers in connection with the employment of mobilised persons allocated to special work and civilians whose services have been requisitioned. The Decree provides that employers who discharge requisitioned workers without observing certain statutory provisions laid down in the Decree of 19 October 1939 and employers who do not conform to certain provisions relating to collective agreements and wages in the Decree of 10 November 1939 shall be liable to the fines prescribed by the Act of 11 July 1938 as amended by a Decree of 1 September 1939.

*Application to overseas territories.* The regulations concerning the requisitioning of labour have been extended, with certain exceptions, by Decrees and local Orders to Morocco, Algeria, Tunisia, and the territories under the authority of the Minister of the Colonies. Exceptions have, however, been made on the three following points: the right to requisition services is restricted in each colonial territory to the Governor of the territory or his deputy; the Governor also determines the conditions of employment and supervision of labour employed in the territory; but the utilisation outside the territory

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<sup>1</sup> *Ibid.*, 30 Oct. 1939.



of origin of labour obtained by voluntary engagement or requisition is the subject of special provisions.<sup>1</sup>

*Application to foreigners.* The application to foreigners of the provisions concerning the mobilisation of labour was dealt with in a Decree of 12 April 1939<sup>2</sup> which provides that aliens with no nationality and other aliens granted refuge in France are subject to all the obligations imposed on French citizens by the Act of 11 July 1938. Other aliens may offer their services voluntarily under the special conditions laid down in Section 18 of the Act, and subject to the general regulations concerning aliens.

*Agricultural labour.* A Decree was issued on 23 February 1940<sup>3</sup> the object of which is to provide for the food supply of the country by placing at the disposal of each departmental committee of agricultural production not only farmers and agricultural workers but rural craftsmen of all kinds with a view to keeping them in the countryside. Heads of industrial and commercial establishments, whether public or private, and public services are forbidden to engage persons covered by a requisition order. Such an order involves an obligation for the persons concerned to devote their principal activities to the needs of agricultural and forestry undertakings. They remain at liberty, however, to move from one farm to another subject to certain restrictions. The workers continue to be covered by labour legislation, and the conditions of payment will be determined by the departmental committee of agricultural production.

*Employment of women.* A Decree was issued on 28 February 1940<sup>4</sup> which provides that in certain occupations, administrations, or undertakings, to be specified by Order, the employment of a specified proportion of female labour shall be made compulsory for the duration of the war. The male labour which is thus rendered available will be allotted to establishments and undertakings working for national defence or in the national interest, priority being given to the Ministries of Munitions and the Air and the Admiralty. Workers who are superseded and are not requisitioned retain the right to seek any other employment for themselves. Superseded workers will be reinstated in their employment after the war under the conditions laid down by the Decree of 21 April 1939.<sup>5</sup> If the need for women workers exceeds the supply a compulsory census of all available female labour will be introduced by Order. Women and girls covered by this census and found fit for work may be requisitioned individually under conditions to be specified by Decree.

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<sup>1</sup> The recruiting of such labour and its despatch to the place of employment is the duty of the Governor of the territory and the Minister himself. The Minister of Labour is in charge of the utilisation and control in France of North African and colonial labour.

<sup>2</sup> *Journal Officiel*, 16 April 1939.

<sup>3</sup> *Ibid.*, 27 Feb. 1940.

<sup>4</sup> *Ibid.*, 1 March 1940.

<sup>5</sup> *Ibid.*, 22 April 1939.

*Young Workers.* A Decree was issued on 29 February 1940<sup>1</sup> which provides that young men over 16 years of age may be requisitioned at the end of their vocational training. Before carrying out such a requisition the competent authority must submit to the departmental committee on technical education for its opinion the plan of distribution of the young persons concerned among the different undertakings working in the national interest. Two representatives of the Large Families Association will be added to this committee in all cases where it is required to give an opinion on the requisitioning of young workers. The requisition may not entail employment of the persons concerned at a distance from the home of their family or the local government areas bordering on it except with the previous consent of the parent or guardian of the young person concerned. Collective requisitioning of the staff of an undertaking includes apprentices who have completed their apprenticeship in that undertaking except where they are allotted to other duties by individual requisition.

#### GERMANY

There are two systems of compulsory labour service in Germany, one of which has been in force since the summer of 1938 and has been applied in the construction of the western fortifications, while the other is applicable only in the event of a public emergency.

#### *General Requisitioning of Labour*

The first measure on this subject was the Decree issued on 22 June 1938 by the Commissioner for the Four-Year Plan to ensure the labour required for work of special national importance.<sup>2</sup> As a result of experience the Commissioner issued a further Decree on 13 February 1939 which replaced the earlier Decree, and Orders for its application were issued by the Minister of Labour on 2 March, 27 July and 4 September 1939.<sup>3</sup>

#### *Decree of 13 February 1939.*

The Decree of 13 February 1939 provides that the employment office has power to requisition the services of all persons resident in German territory for the purpose of any work designated by the Commissioner for the Four-Year Plan as of particular importance and urgency. For this purpose it may require private and public establishments and administrative departments to release persons in their employment. Aliens must not be called upon for the performance of such services if they are covered by exemptions in pursuance of international treaties or of the recognised rules of international law.

<sup>1</sup> *Ibid.*, 1 March 1940.

<sup>2</sup> Cf. Helmut VOLLWEILER : *The Mobilisation of Labour Reserves in Germany*, in *International Labour Review*, Vol. XXXVIII, Nos. 4 and 5, Oct. and Nov. 1938.

<sup>3</sup> *Reichsgesetzblatt*, 1939, I, pp. 206, 403 and 1330 ; *Reichsarbeitsblatt*, 1939, I, p. 417. Cf. *Legislative Series*, 1939, Ger. 1.

Persons requisitioned for service who are in employment are deemed to be on leave of absence if they are requisitioned for a specified period, and during their absence on leave notice to terminate their previous employment must not be given. During the period of absence on leave a person requisitioned for service is not entitled to the payment of remuneration and allowances in respect of his previous employment, but in other respects the period spent in the performance of requisitioned services is deemed to be a period of employment in the previous place of employment. In the case of requisitioning of services for an indefinite period the previous employment is deemed to be terminated. If a person requisitioned for an indefinite period loses rights arising from his previous employment which are not offset by rights in respect of the services for which he is requisitioned, the new establishment may be required to compensate him in order to avoid undue hardship. The service must not be terminated without the consent of the employment office.

Persons requisitioned for service may be required to undergo training for the purpose of preparation for the services to be performed. They are bound and entitled to use articles in their possession or care for the performance of their compulsory service if required by the employment office to do so.

If a person is requisitioned for more than three days and, in consequence, is compelled to live apart from his family, he may, on application, be granted an allowance to ensure suitable provision for the support of his dependants.

#### *Administrative Order.*

*Procedure.* The Order of 2 March provides that compulsory service may include service of any kind. The worker must be employed on work that is as nearly as possible in accordance with his knowledge and capabilities. Before the worker is requisitioned he and his employer must be consulted, provided the punctual provision of the necessary labour is not interfered with, and the worker must be informed of the conditions on which the service is to be performed. Persons requisitioned may, if necessary, be submitted to a medical examination.

The requisition order must be served on the person concerned, and the latter, if in employment, must immediately show it to his employer; a copy of the order is also sent direct to the employer by the employment office. If the worker is in an employment for which an employment book is required the employer must indicate in the book that the worker is "on leave for compulsory service" if the service is for a specified period, or "discharged for compulsory service" if it is for an indefinite period. Except with the consent of the employment office in special cases the previous employment may not be terminated during a period of leave, and if the worker is entitled to a dwelling-place in virtue of his previous employment he may not be given notice to quit before the end of his compulsory service. In the case of service for an indefinite

period, such notice may be given only with the consent of the employment office. The service cannot be terminated without the consent of the employment office.

*Conditions of employment.* The establishment in which the compulsory service is undertaken pays the expenses of the first journey from the previous residence to the workplace and in the case of service for a specified period of the return journey as well. In the case of long journeys a subsistence allowance may also be paid. Provision is made whenever possible for the maintenance of rights in course of acquisition which depend on length of service in the undertaking, and for reasonable compensation in cases in which the rights cannot be maintained. If a worker called up for an indefinite period loses rights acquired in respect of his previous employment and his claim is not satisfied under this and other provisions of the Order, the labour trustee may, in exceptional cases, order the new employer to pay three months' wages in order to prevent special hardship. No such indemnity is payable, however, in respect of a reduction in wages. In certain circumstances the new employer may be obliged to pay to the old employer a share of the cost of the worker's holiday.

The provisions concerning the payment of a separation allowance and special allowances were modified by the Order of 4 September 1939.<sup>1</sup> Up to that time, the principle applied was that a worker called up for compulsory service should not suffer any loss of income as a result of the service. The new Order provides that if a worker requisitioned for service has to live away from his family he is entitled to receive a separation allowance not exceeding 19 marks per week in addition to his wages. An additional allowance may be paid if the worker has incurred liabilities which are commensurate in nature and extent with his previous economic situation and which he is unable to discharge as a result of his compulsory service.

*Application.* Up to September 1939 over 40,000 workers had been employed under compulsory service conditions on the construction of the Western fortifications.<sup>2</sup> Since the outbreak of war several hundred thousand workers have had to change their employment in virtue of the above measures.<sup>3</sup>

*Penalties.* No special penalties are provided for under the Compulsory Service Decree but the general penalties contained in the second Order for the Application of the Four-Year Plan of 5 November 1936 apply. A person liable to service who refuses to carry out the orders of an employment office and an employer who

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<sup>1</sup> By a Circular of 8 November 1939 (*Reichsarbeitsblatt*, 1939, I, p. 512) the Minister of Labour extended these provisions to persons who, although not requisitioned under the above Orders, have moved to a new job which for political reasons they are not allowed to leave.

<sup>2</sup> *Arbeitsrechtkartei*, 4 Oct. 1939.

<sup>3</sup> *Der Deutsche Volkswirt*, 8 Dec. 1939.

tries to prevent one of his workers from fulfilling such orders are liable to penalties which may consist either of imprisonment or a fine or both, no maximum amount for the fine being specified.

### *Emergency Service*

In addition to the above provisions, a Decree providing for emergency service was issued by the Commissioner for the Four-Year Plan on 15 October 1938, and an Order for the application of this Decree was issued by the Minister of the Interior on 15 September 1939 and came into force as from 26 August 1939.<sup>1</sup>

#### *Decree of 15 October 1938.*

These measures provide that persons residing in Germany may be required, for a specified period, to perform service in a public emergency or in anticipation of an emergency. Foreigners are not liable for emergency service if they are exempt as a result of treaties or recognised international law. The service may consist of action, allowing an action, or abstaining from action. The person called up has the duty and the right to use things which he owns or of which he has the custody if required to do so.

The Commissioner for the Four-Year Plan determines, in agreement with the Minister of the Interior, the authorities entitled to require emergency service. The service is either long-term or short-term ; it is long-term service if the person concerned is engaged in his usual chief occupation and if it lasts, or is intended to last, more than three days. Short-term service does not involve a contract of service. The authority requiring a person to perform long-term service must notify the name of that person to the employment office, which may object to the decision by reason of conditions in the employment market. So long as the objection holds, the decision of the authority cannot take effect. Persons who are already in employment when required to do emergency service must be given leave for the duration of that service, and may not be dismissed. Persons who are required to do emergency service may lodge an appeal with a higher authority.

Persons required to do emergency service for not more than three days are entitled to full pay from their former employer.

*Administrative Order.* Under the Order of 15 September 1939 the liability to emergency service does not apply to persons under 15 or over 70 years of age, mothers with children under 15 if the emergency service is inconsistent with their duty to their children, pregnant women from the sixth month of pregnancy until two months after confinement, and persons incapable of work. If the wages or other payments provided for lead to appreciable difficulties for the financial equilibrium of the undertaking concerned, the Minister of the Interior, in agreement with the Minister of Finance, may grant a hardship allowance. Persons called up for

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<sup>1</sup> Reichsgesetzblatt, 1938, I, p. 1441 ; 1939, I, p. 1775.

emergency service must observe complete secrecy concerning any matters which come to their knowledge during the service and a disclosure of which would endanger the welfare of the country or the justified interests of individuals or is expressly forbidden. The Minister of the Interior takes steps, in agreement with the Minister of Finance, to ensure the livelihood of persons called up and for this purpose fixes the rates of compensation. The dependants of persons called up receive dependants' allowances in accordance with the provisions of the Family Allowances Order of 11 July 1939.<sup>1</sup> If a person called up receives an injury in consequence of his service, he or his survivors are entitled to care and maintenance in accordance with the Personal Injuries Order of 1 September 1939.<sup>2</sup> If the owner of anything used by a person for the purpose of emergency service suffers economic loss thereby and if he cannot reasonably be expected to support that loss himself, he is entitled to compensation from the person for whom the service is performed.

*Penalties.* The penalties for failure to comply with the provisions concerning emergency service are the same as those concerning compulsory labour service, but in the case of short-term service minor offences are punishable with imprisonment or a fine not exceeding 150 marks.

#### *Application to Czecho-Slovak Territory under German Protectorate*

The German Decree of 15 October 1938 concerning emergency service is applied to Bohemia-Moravia with certain necessary modifications by an Order of 25 November 1939, and a second Order of the same date for its administration. These Orders came into force on 1 December 1939.<sup>3</sup>

The principal changes are as follows. The authority requiring a person to perform long-term service must, as in Germany, notify the name of the person to the employment office, but the decision whether the requisition is inadvisable in view of the conditions of the employment market must be taken by the Higher Provincial Council (*Oberlandrat*). The provision that persons who are in employment when called up must be given leave for the duration of the service and must not be dismissed applies only to officials employed by the German authorities. An appeal may be made against measures and decisions taken on the basis of the Emergency Service Decree, and in such cases the decision of the Protector is final. Only the Higher Provincial Councils can require emergency service, but they may entrust the application of their decisions in this matter to other authorities. The Protector decides whether, to what extent, and by which body, compensation is to be paid in respect of the costs of any emergency service that may be required in Bohemia-Moravia.

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<sup>1</sup> *Reichsgesetzblatt*, 1939, I, p. 1225.

<sup>2</sup> *Ibid.*, I, p. 1623.

<sup>3</sup> *Ibid.*, I, pp. 2300-2301.

## HUNGARY

There are two schemes in Hungary, one confined to agricultural work which was adopted during the partial mobilisation of October 1938, and the other of a more general character which was adopted in October 1939.

*Agricultural Work*

By a Decision published on 2 September 1939 the Hungarian Government prescribed that the provisions of Order No. 7390 of 15 October 1938 concerning compulsory work of assistance in agriculture should remain in force until further notice in every case in which, owing to mobilisation, the continuity of agricultural production could not be secured in any other way.

*Scope.* The Order provides that all persons who own animal-drawn or mechanically-driven vehicles, agricultural implements, or draught animals, may be required to place them at the disposal of other farmers. Further, all male agricultural workers and all farmers who normally do manual work and the male members of their families who work on their farms may be required to work for other farmers or on other farms in order to ensure the carrying out of urgent agricultural work. The persons in question are obliged to work for other farmers only if they have already finished the most urgent work on their own land or on their employers' land or if they cannot finish such urgent work owing to the state of the soil or to weather conditions. The principal work to be done will be agricultural work which, owing to its seasonal character, cannot be postponed.

*Conditions of employment.* All work carried out under a decision of the authorities must be paid for, and the rate of payment will be fixed by the competent administrative authorities taking into account the local conditions and the value of the work done.

*Penalties.* Refusal to conform to the decisions of the authorities as regards compulsory work of assistance constitutes a breach of the law which will be punished by imprisonment up to a maximum of two months or a fine up to a maximum of 8,000 pengös.

*Work for National Defence*

By an Order of 5 October 1939 regulations governing compulsory work for purposes of national defence were issued by the Council of Ministers under the powers conferred by the National Defence Act of 4 March 1939.

*Scope.* Under the National Defence Act all persons of either sex between 14 and 70 years of age (16 and 70 for women in peacetime) are liable, within the limits of their physical and mental capacity, for compulsory labour service in the interests of national defence.

The performance of work may be required, if the necessary labour cannot be obtained by means of a contract of service or only at a cost which is unjustifiable in view of the economic situation, for defence measures requisite for the conduct of war and to meet the needs of the Royal Hungarian Army, Constabulary, Police Force, and Customs Service, and the Prisoners of War Service, to ensure in time of war the normal working of the administrative services, the food supply of the civil population and its public health requirements, the safety of persons and property, and the execution of other work in the interests of the community, and in case of emergency from the point of view of national defence to carry out operations in private industry and repair private property damaged or destroyed by war. Exemptions are allowed in the case of persons on active military service, ministers of religious denominations, aliens who possess extra-territorial rights or are exempted by international agreements, members of the National Assembly during its sessions, persons on the permanent establishment of the Royal Hungarian Constabulary, Police, and Customs Service, persons employed in special air-raid precautions work, and certain consular officials.

Women will be employed in the first instance by voluntary enrolment, and recourse will not be had to compulsory requisitioning unless the number of women suitable for the work required who offer their services voluntarily is insufficient. In time of peace women under 16 years of age will not be liable, and women who habitually perform the work of their households or are responsible for the care of children under 12 or of other persons requiring attendance will be liable for work only in the case of continuance in their usual employment or when the work can be performed at home. As far as possible women will be allocated to work in the locality where they live.

*Kinds of work.* Work for purposes of national defence may be manual or intellectual and may take the following forms : (1) continuance in the work hitherto performed, the contract of service or employment remaining in operation ; (2) assignment to particular work ; (3) instruction or training courses ; (4) driving of animals and motor or other vehicles which are temporarily requisitioned ; and (5) occasional collective work (in groups) for exceptional needs.

Assignment to particular work may take the form of work at home, public health work, industrial work, and other work in the interests of national defence. In time of peace, persons will not be requisitioned for such work for more than three weeks in the year or three months in all.

Persons called up may be required to undergo a period of instruction not exceeding three weeks and attend a training course not exceeding one week in the year to prepare for service requiring special knowledge or training.

In the case of collective requisitioning for exceptional needs, the inhabitants of the place where the work is to be performed or of neighbouring localities will be called up for the purpose.



*Procedure.* Requisitioning will be reduced to the strict minimum and will in all cases be carried out with due regard for the physical fitness and other capacities of the person concerned. Men will be called up before women, young persons before old persons, and unmarried persons before the heads of families.

In selecting men for work which is likely to be of considerable duration persons who have received instruction in the work to be performed will be called up first. In general a person will be allocated to the place and to the employment where his physical and intellectual capacities can best be utilised in the interests of national defence. Children under the age of 16 will not be employed otherwise than in work for purposes of national defence which is to be carried out in the locality where they live.

Requisition orders will contain particulars of the civil condition of the person liable to work and of the statutory measures on which the requisitioning is based and the purpose of the work to be performed; except in the case of work to be performed at home, the order will state whether the person requisitioned must bring any articles of equipment. The penal consequences entailed by a contravention of the orders received will also be stated.

The Minister of National Defence will ensure the keeping of permanent lists of persons liable to work and may prescribe that such persons shall enrol and report at their place of domicile. If necessary a medical examination may be made when the person reports.

Provision is made for the settlement of disputes or complaints.

*Conditions of employment.* Persons belonging to the staffs of certain requisitioned services and undertakings may be compelled to continue to work under their existing contracts of employment. Persons called up to work at home for a requisitioned undertaking and persons called up for public health or industrial work will be employed at the rate of remuneration and under the other conditions of employment customary for persons performing similar work.

Persons requisitioned for other kinds of particular work will receive an allowance fixed by the military authorities responsible for the requisition, and, if the requisition has been made for a civil authority, in agreement with that authority. If necessary, application will be made to the municipal council or mayor for guidance and information with respect to the ordinary local wage rates.

Travelling expenses and the cost of board and lodging will be paid in specified circumstances. Tools and implements will as a rule be provided by the authority or undertaking to which persons have been allocated, though persons requisitioned for work may be required to provide tools or implements which they possess.

Members of the families of persons called up for work elsewhere than at their place of domicile will be entitled to allowances from the second month of requisitioning.

*Penalties.* Any person who fails to comply with a requisition order based on liability to work for purposes of national defence, or who endeavours to evade liability to work by self-inflicted wounds

or in any other manner abandons the post to which he has been assigned, or any employer who is guilty of hindering in any way the discharge of the liability for work will be liable to the penal consequences prescribed by the National Defence Act. Any actions affecting the continuity of the work or likely to prejudice its results will also entail the penal consequences of the Act.

Except where his action is covered by more stringent penal provisions, a person will be deemed to be guilty of a contravention if he fails to perform or does not perform in a satisfactory manner the work which he has been required to do at home or in his undertaking, or if contrary to the provisions of an Order of the Minister of National Defence he fails to comply with the liability to enrol or to report or does not do so in the prescribed manner and at the prescribed time, or makes inaccurate statements. These contraventions will be punished by a term of imprisonment not exceeding two months or in time of war not exceeding six months.

*Administration.* The Minister of National Defence will be responsible for the administration of the Order.

#### JAPAN

In order to meet the growing scarcity of workers which had resulted in certain industries from the mobilisation of the armed forces and to increase the output of munitions and the general productivity of the country, compulsory labour service was introduced in Japan by an Imperial Order of 7 July 1939. This Order, which was issued under the provisions of the General Mobilisation Act of 1 April 1938<sup>1</sup>, came into force on 15 July 1939 and was supplemented on 11 July by a series of Ministerial Orders.<sup>2</sup>

*Scope.* The Order states that compulsory labour service will be resorted to only when and to the extent that national defence requirements cannot be met by the public employment exchanges and other methods of voluntary recruitment. The only persons who will be mobilised for such services are specialised industrial workers covered by the Order of 7 January 1939 concerning the registration of the vocational qualifications of the population.<sup>3</sup> Work for which these persons may be called up includes any work undertaken by the State and declared to be general mobilisation work under the General Mobilisation Act.

*Procedure.* It is provided that detailed plans will be prepared to establish the order in which persons will be called up. The

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<sup>1</sup> Section 4 of this Act states: "If in time of war it is found necessary for purposes of general mobilisation, the Government may, under the provisions of the Imperial Order, conscript Japanese subjects for scheduled work in connection with mobilisation. Nevertheless these provisions shall not preclude the application of the Compulsory Military Service Act".

<sup>2</sup> *Kampo*, 8 and 11 July 1939.

<sup>3</sup> Under the terms of this Order, all Japanese male subjects between 16 and 50 years of age residing in Japan proper — with the exception of those engaged in military or naval service and attached to the army or navy—who belonged to one of four specified categories were required to notify their vocational qualifications and other details to the local employment exchange for registration.

plans will take account of a number of factors such as the place where work is to be carried out, the degree of vocational qualification, physical capacity, family circumstances, personal wishes, etc. In carrying out these plans use will be made of the information which the 400 public employment exchanges of the country will have collected in accordance with the powers conferred on them by the Order of 7 January 1939.

*Remuneration.* All persons called up for compulsory labour service will receive an allowance intended to compensate them for any material loss they may incur owing to their mobilisation. The amount of the allowance will be fixed by the Minister responsible for the supervision of the undertaking to which the worker is assigned, after consultation with the Minister of Welfare, account being taken of the wages or other income of the persons concerned before they were called up for compulsory service, the nature of the work, and the place where it is carried out. The cost of transporting mobilised and demobilised workers will form the subject of special regulations.

*Penalties.* Any person who fails to register his occupational qualifications when required to do so by the Government or who refuses an examination in connection with them will be liable to a fine up to a maximum of 50 yen or to imprisonment.

*Administration.* Mobilisation and demobilisation arrangements will be left entirely to the Ministry of Social Welfare, and the decisions of the Ministry will be applied by the Prefects. State administrative departments which require compulsory labour will make lists of the vacant posts to be filled and will forward these lists to the Minister of Social Welfare. All changes in the lists must be communicated to the Ministry, as must any proposed measures of demobilisation.<sup>1</sup>

### THE NETHERLANDS

A Decree of 19 December 1939 issued by the Commander-in-Chief of the Land and Air Forces regulates the labour service which the civil population has to undertake for the military authorities in those parts of the Netherlands in which a state of war is proclaimed.

*Scope.* All men aged 18-59 with the exception of certain specified classes (members of Parliament, high officials, doctors of medicine, pharmacists and veterinary surgeons, priests and ministers of religion, soldiers on active service, police, etc.) may be called up to undertake personal service for the following types of national defence work: (a) repair of damage done to roads, bridges, and other similar places, as a result of military operations, aerial bombardment, and military transport; (b) the construction and removal of fortifications; (c) the preparation and removal of obstacles; (d) the construction, repair, and obstruction, of waterways including coastal and river defence works.

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<sup>1</sup> *Shuho*, 19 July 1939; *Shokugyo Jiho*, June 1939.

*Procedure.* The requisition is ordered either by the officer who is in charge of the works or, in his name, by the mayor of the locality. The first to be called up will be those workers who, owing to their occupation, are the most suitable for carrying out the necessary work. Additional requisitions will be ordered by age groups, the youngest being called up first. Certain categories of persons will be called up only in case of urgent need, and if it is not possible to obtain the necessary labour otherwise. This applies in particular to persons belonging to auxiliary services (air defence, voluntary civil guard, and Red Cross) or to undertakings working for national defence needs.

*Conditions of employment.* Every person called up in virtue of this Decree will receive remuneration calculated on the basis of the wages paid in the district concerned for work of a similar character. Work done in virtue of the Decree is not subject to the Labour Act.

## POLAND

In conformity with Section 5 of the Decree of 12 October 1939<sup>1</sup> concerning the administration of Polish territory occupied by Germany, compulsory labour service was introduced into General Government territory by Orders of 26 October 1939 which differentiate between "Polish persons" and "Jews".

### *Polish Persons*

*Scope.* An Order of 26 October 1939<sup>2</sup> states that all Polish persons between 18 and 60 years of age residing in General Government territory and capable of work are liable to compulsory labour service. The competent authority may extend this liability to young people between 14 and 18 years of age for the performance of service compatible with their working capacity.<sup>3</sup> Exemptions may be allowed only in the case of persons occupied permanently on work of public utility. Persons with reduced working capacity will be assigned to employment corresponding to their ability.

Labour service will consist in the performance of agricultural work, the construction and upkeep of public buildings, the making of roads and railways, the maintenance of waterways, etc.

*Procedure.* This is regulated by an application order of 31 October 1939.<sup>4</sup> The competent employment office will designate the persons to be assigned to compulsory service.

Conditions of employment and rates of wages will be fixed by the competent local authority or, failing the local authority, provisionally by the competent employment office. The employment

<sup>1</sup> Reichsgesetzblatt, 1939, I, pp. 2077-2078.

<sup>2</sup> Verordnungsblatt des Generalgouverneurs für die besetzten polnischen Gebiete, No. 1, 26 Oct. 1939, p. 6.

<sup>3</sup> Ibid., No. 13, 21 Dec. 1939, p. 224.

<sup>4</sup> Ibid., No. 2, 2 Nov. 1939, p. 14.

of a person called up for compulsory service cannot be terminated without the consent of the employment office, which will determine beforehand the nature and duration of the work to be performed.

Persons requisitioned for service must on request furnish the employment office with all necessary documents or other requisite information. They may be ordered to attend at the office in person, and they may be obliged to use articles in their possession or care for the purpose of their compulsory service.

*Penalties.* Penalties may be imposed on persons requisitioned for service for failure to carry out their duties and obligations. These penalties consist of imprisonment or a fine of an unspecified amount, or of both. Similar penalties may be inflicted on anyone who incites a person requisitioned for service to act in a manner contrary to his obligations.

### *Jewish Population*

*Scope.* A second Order of 26 October 1939<sup>1</sup> states that all Jews resident in General Government territory are liable to forced labour (*Arbeitszwang*), for which purpose they will be grouped in forced labour brigades (*Zwangsarbeitertrupps*).

*Procedure.* Regulations issued on 11 December 1939 for the application of this Order<sup>2</sup> provide among other things for a census of the Jewish population living in the territory. They also prohibit Jews from changing their place of residence or the residence itself after 1 January 1940 without special permission from the occupying authorities. Every Jew is obliged to report to the mayor of his place of residence and to the Jewish Council<sup>3</sup> of the district within 24 hours of his arrival in the territory. Jews who do not conform to the provisions of the Order will be assigned to forced labour of a particularly hard nature and for a long period. This punishment will not absolve them from liability to the other penalties imposed for infringement of the special provisions relating to forced labour.

Further regulations issued on 12 December 1939<sup>4</sup> state that the duration of forced labour, to which all Jews between 14 and 60 years of age are liable, will in general be two years, but that this period may be extended if within that period the educational purpose of the forced labour has not been achieved. As far as possible persons liable to forced labour will be assigned to work in conformity with their occupational ability. They will live in special work camps.

The census of persons liable to forced labour will in the first place be applied to Jews of the male sex. It will be carried out

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<sup>1</sup> *Ibid.*, No. 1, 26 Oct. 1939, p. 6.

<sup>2</sup> *Ibid.*, No. 13, 21 Dec. 1939, p. 231.

<sup>3</sup> Jewish councils were set up by an Order of 28 November 1939. They are local bodies appointed by the Jews themselves. Their function is to carry out the orders of the German authorities. These orders are communicated to them by the Chairman of the Council or his representative.

<sup>4</sup> *Verordnungsblatt*, etc., No. 14, 23 Dec. 1939, p. 246.

under specified conditions by the Jewish Councils, with which all Jews liable to forced labour must register with a view to their allocation. The mayor and the council will be jointly responsible for its correctness.

Persons requisitioned for forced labour must attend at the place indicated at a specified time. Those who own workshops must take with them all the tools and instruments they possess. Machines belonging to persons requisitioned for labour which can be used for handicrafts must also be placed at the disposal of the authorities in charge of the work. Persons requisitioned for labour are forbidden to sell their tools or machines without permission from the competent authorities.

The regulations contain no provisions concerning remuneration or other conditions of employment.

*Penalties.* Penalties are provided for infringement of the regulations. Imprisonment with hard labour (*Zuchthaus*) not exceeding 10 years may be imposed on a person who is requisitioned, on members of the Jewish Councils, and on persons who are in any way implicated in the infringement. In addition property may be confiscated.

#### SWEDEN

Under the National Service Act, which was promulgated on 30 December 1939 and is to remain in force until 31 March 1941, the Government has power in the event of war or the risk of war affecting Sweden or in any other extraordinary circumstances caused by war to order, with the consent of the Riksdag, that the provisions of the Act shall be put into operation in full or in part to meet a demand for labour required for the defence forces (but not for purposes of military service), their equipment or maintenance, the food or fuel supply of the population, the means of communication, or other purposes of special importance to the community.

*Administration.* The Act is to be administered by a specially appointed National Labour Board, assisted by provincial labour boards, which in turn may call upon local emergency boards or certain local authorities for assistance.

In any province in which the Government so orders, the provincial employment exchange may be placed under the direction of the provincial labour board, and it must then carry out the duties imposed on employment exchanges by the National Service Act in addition to its usual work and assist the provincial labour board in other respects. The provincial labour board may take decisions on the organisation and activities of such an exchange and may make use of its staff, premises, and material.

*Scope.* If the Government so orders, it shall be the duty of any person between the ages of 16 and 70 who is domiciled or otherwise permanently resident in Sweden to carry out work compatible with his physical ability as required by the authorities. The order

in question may apply only to specified groups of persons determined with reference to age, sex, family responsibilities, domicile, vocational skill, or other circumstances. If special reasons exist, the provincial labour board may grant temporary exemption from the performance of such national service. The Government may order exemption in the case of nationals of a particular State or of persons without nationality. State employees may be made liable to service other than compulsory continuation in employment only to the extent prescribed by the Government. Persons on military service and persons engaged on air-raid precautions work are exempt.

Where possible, all young persons between the ages of 16 and 19 resident in a specified part of the country who are of the same age and the same sex will be made liable to service at the same time. Temporary exemption may be granted if a relative of a young person is mainly dependent on his work for support or for other special reasons. Persons in receipt of old-age pensions in respect of employment under the State (or in certain private undertakings) and who are under 70 years of age may be made liable to carry out work of the kind they last performed if this is compatible with their state of health and working capacity. Temporary exemptions may be allowed if the fulfilment of this obligation would mean considerable loss or inconvenience for the person in question. The Government may order that an employee's liability to service shall mean the obligation not to leave his employment without obtaining special permission.

*Procedure.* Before anyone is called up for service, persons liable for service will, as far as circumstances allow, be given an opportunity to volunteer. They will then, except where the calling up of young persons entails other procedure, be called up in the following order: (a) those who volunteer; (b) those whose earnings will not be reduced in consequence of the performance of national service; and (c) other persons liable for service. In general, when persons are called up, due regard will be paid, on the one hand, to the interest to the community of selecting the persons best suited to the work to be done, and, on the other, to the inconvenience caused to the former employer of the person who is called up and to the person himself owing to possible change in his conditions of employment or place of residence. His preference as between the various possible employments and places of work will also be taken into consideration.

If a demand for labour which is subject to an order concerning liability for service other than compulsory continuation in employment cannot be satisfied otherwise, the provincial labour board, at the request of the employer entitled to use national service labour, shall call up persons liable to service and require them to accept employment with the employer.

*Conditions of employment.* The conditions of employment of persons called up for service will as a rule be governed by the laws, agreements, or customs, concerning voluntary employment of the same kind. A person who performs national service may not leave

his employment without the consent of the employer or the provincial labour board, or stop work for any other reason. His contract of employment cannot be terminated against his will without the consent of the provincial labour board.

At the request of either party, wage questions may be considered by special National Service Wage Boards appointed by the Government for different areas or branches of economic activity. These Boards must include persons designated by the employers' and workers' organisations for the area or branch of activity concerned, and the State must be represented on them by an observer who will have the right to order that the decisions of the Board shall be referred to the Government.

The Act contains provisions under which certain special grants may be made to persons called up for service, such as travelling and removal grants. Compensation may also be paid if the performance of national service involves a reduction of earnings or if the person concerned and his family have to live in separate localities. The Government will issue detailed regulations concerning the method of calculating a reduction of earnings or an increase in the cost of living due to the separation of a worker from his family and the extent to which equalisation allowances may be paid.

*Penalties.* The penalty of a fine of so many days' income, or in particularly aggravating circumstances imprisonment for not more than 6 months, will be imposed on any person who knowingly contravenes the regulation under which the Government may prohibit employment exchanges other than public exchanges from carrying on placing operations or may restrict the right to carry on placing operations for which a permit has been granted, or the regulation under which it may prohibit employers from engaging workers otherwise than through a public employment exchange. The same penalties may be inflicted on an employee who does not comply within the prescribed period with an injunction of the provincial labour board ordering him to leave his employment for a specified reason, on a person liable to service who does not within the prescribed period comply with the instruction of the competent authority to accept work with an employer entitled to use national service labour, on a person liable to service who in certain specified ways makes the performance of national service more difficult, and on any person who fails to carry out the obligation to supply information or to present himself in person when requested to do so.

The proceeds of fines will accrue to the Government.

The Public Prosecutor may not institute proceedings in respect of the above-mentioned offences unless the provincial labour board notifies the offence.

An appeal against a decision of a provincial labour board may be made to the National Labour Board and an appeal against a decision of the National Labour Board may be made to the Government through the competent Ministry. No appeal will be allowed against the decisions of a National Service Wage Board.



## SWITZERLAND

An Order to establish compulsory labour service was issued by the Swiss Federal Council on 2 September 1939 under the powers given to the Government by the Federal Order of 30 August 1939 concerning measures to secure national safety and maintain neutrality. It took effect on 4 September 1939 and will remain in force until a date to be fixed by the Federal Council.

*Enforcement.* The cantons are as a rule responsible for the enforcement of the Order, their powers and duties in this respect having been determined in advance by an Ordinance dated 23 June 1939 which came into force on 1 July. Under this Ordinance the cantonal authorities were required to take certain preparatory action without waiting for a state of emergency to arise. This comprised : (1) establishing in each canton a central office which in the case of mobilisation would be responsible for the allocation of labour; and if necessary local offices ; (2) preparing for each local government area a list of establishments and services of vital importance according to criteria laid down by the Department of Economic Affairs ; (3) determining the labour needs of these establishments and services ; (4) ascertaining what workers would be available for allocation by the labour allocation service. It was provided further that the volume of labour necessary to an establishment or service of vital importance should be determined in agreement with the head of the establishment or service in question and with the aid of the occupational bodies concerned.<sup>1</sup>

*Scope.* The Order of 2 September 1939 lays down as a general principle that every Swiss national without distinction of sex or occupation is liable for labour service if he or she is not mobilised and does not belong to a complementary or militarised service. Foreign nationals may also be called up in so far as this is permitted under international law or treaties. Liability begins at the age of 16 for persons of either sex and ends at the age of 65 for males and 60 for females. Persons unfit for service are exempt, and so are housewives who have living with them and in their care children under 16 years of age or persons who cannot be left to themselves. The Department of Economic Affairs has power to exempt collectively from labour service persons employed in certain occupations or branches of industry and to lay down rules respecting the conditions for the exemption of individuals.

*Kinds of work.* Labour service will consist in the performance of services of a civil character which are urgently necessary in the interests of the country, in particular : (a) services for the maintenance of the economic life of the country, especially essential public and private undertakings in agriculture and forestry, handicrafts, industry, commerce, transport, etc. ; and (b) services for the maintenance of public administration, educational establishments, infir-

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<sup>1</sup> *Recueil des lois fédérales*, No. 24, 28 June 1939.

maries, hospitals, and other curative institutions carried on for the benefit of the community. The Department of Economic Affairs will lay down rules to specify the branches of industry in which persons liable to service may be called upon to serve.

*Procedure.* Persons liable for labour service who are already employed in an essential undertaking will be called up by an order of the competent allocation office informing them that they must perform their labour service in the same undertaking; persons who are not directed to continue their previous occupations will be called up by a public notice or individual summons issued by the competent labour allocation office. The Department of Economic Affairs may issue an Order applicable collectively to all persons liable to labour service belonging to a particular branch of industry informing them that they must perform their labour service in the same undertaking.

Requisitioning for the service will depend on the need for labour. As a general rule the persons called up first will be those rendered available by the closing down of non-essential establishments and services; next will come the unemployed and persons liable for service who volunteer; persons in employment will be called up last of all.

The duties assigned to persons called up for labour service will be determined in view of their physical fitness and occupational qualifications and their family responsibilities. The Department of Economic Affairs may make arrangements as regards the training to be given to persons who are not trained for the work which it is desired to allot to them.

*Conditions of employment.* The contract of employment of an employee called up for labour service cannot be terminated without the consent of the office responsible for the allocation of labour. Disputes concerning conditions of work will be settled by the competent court of law. The cantonal or inter-cantonal conciliation offices are required to adjust collective disputes concerning the conditions of work. The Department of Economic Affairs may set up a special Conciliation Office for the settlement of cases where it has been impossible to reach an agreement or where the parties refuse to accept the award, and may confer upon this Office power to issue binding awards.

The conditions of employment of persons called up for service in the establishments in which they have hitherto served will be determined by the existing contract of employment and also, in the case of undertakings subject to the Federal Factories Act, by the provisions of that Act. Persons called up for service in establishments where they have not previously served are entitled to the remuneration customary in the occupation or district. In general their conditions of employment will be regulated by agreement with the employer or in default of an agreement by the rules customary in the occupation or district and also, in the case of undertakings subject to the Federal Factories Act, by the provisions of that Act.

Any person called up for labour service who is thereby obliged to leave his employment will be entitled when the service is completed to reinstatement in his previous post if circumstances permit. Work done under the labour service is treated in the same way as normal occupational work in so far as concerns unemployment or emergency relief to which the worker may lay claim after the labour service has ceased to operate. The principle of compulsory insurance against industrial accidents applies to persons called up for labour service and required to serve in establishments in which the compulsory accident insurance scheme (Federal Sickness and Accident Insurance Act) does not apply, and the Department of Economic Affairs will issue the necessary regulations respecting this. The Department of Economic Affairs may also issue other regulations concerning the conditions of work of persons called up for labour service, particularly with regard to hours of work and the employment of women and young persons.

*Penalties.* Refusal to perform labour service will be punished with imprisonment for not more than one year or in less serious cases by a fine not exceeding 500 francs. Contraventions of the regulations relating to labour service or the orders issued by the competent authorities will be punished with a fine not exceeding 500 francs, in so far as the contraventions are not punishable in civil law. In the event of a repetition of the offence within one year reckoned from the date on which the last sentence became enforceable the penalty may be increased within the above-mentioned limits. The provisions laid down in the First Part of the Federal Penal Code of 4 February 1853 will apply.<sup>1</sup>

#### *Agricultural Labour*

An Order issued on 1 March 1940 by the Swiss Federal Department of Public Economy<sup>2</sup> to come into force on 6 March 1940 organises the allocation of labour to ensure the continuance of agricultural production. Recourse will be had in the first place and to the fullest possible extent to voluntary labour, and only when all other resources have been exhausted will there be any question of resorting to the compulsory labour service established by the Federal Order of 2 September 1939, and this measure will only be taken with the approval of the Wartime Office for Industry and Labour.

*Procedure.* The Order provides for the establishment in each canton of an agricultural labour service, the main duty of which will be to place at the disposal of agriculture the workers it requires to maintain production. This service will determine the amount of labour required by the farms, ascertain what male and female workers in each local government area would be qualified to take the place of mobilised workers, and organise their distribution

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<sup>1</sup> *Recueil des lois fédérales*, No. 37, 7 Sept. 1939.

<sup>2</sup> *Ibid.*, No. 11, 6 March 1940.

within the canton in accordance with local needs. It will also organise agricultural service with the help of assistants from the non-rural classes of the population.

The Order further provides, as a general rule, for the establishment in each municipality of a service for the allocation of agricultural labour within the municipality. This service will advise agriculturists on the employment of available labour and will supervise the workers assigned under the Order relating to compulsory labour service.

Where necessary the cantons may set up occupational committees consisting of representatives of the interests concerned, which among other things will advise on questions relating to the allocation of labour.

With regard to compulsory labour, persons liable for this service who are in regular employment will be called up only with the permission of the cantonal department concerned as a last resort and in so far as the general interest does not require that they should remain in their employment. The cantonal service may decide that such and such a person must take up or retain a particular employment in agriculture, taking into account the occupational and physical capacities of the persons concerned and their family circumstances. It will see that the labour assigned to compulsory service receives the wage customary in the locality for the kind of work in question.

*Penalties.* Infraction of the provisions relating to the allocation of labour in agriculture renders the person concerned liable to the penalties imposed by the Order concerning compulsory labour service.

## Hours of Employment of Women and Young Persons in Factories in Great Britain

The British Home Office presented to Parliament on 4 March 1940 a report on the hours of employment of women and young persons in factories during the first five months of the war.<sup>1</sup>

The report reviews briefly the measures taken to regulate hours during the war of 1914-1918 and points out that in September 1939 the situation was materially different from that existing at the commencement of the war of 1914-1918. In the first place, the report states, the hours normally worked in industry had become much shorter; the ill-effects of continued long hours on production were widely recognised; and it was in most quarters appreciated that the hours worked in the last war had been excessive and that

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<sup>1</sup> Cmd. 6182.

even if it were necessary as a temporary measure to resort to longer hours, the hours should not exceed 60 a week or rather less, and should subsequently be reduced where possible as industry became better organised for war purposes. It was also widely recognised that the hours of juveniles under 16 should be relatively short. In the second place, very largely as a result of experience in the last war, great advances had been made, on a voluntary basis as well as by legal requirement, in the provision of amenities for the comfort and welfare of the workers, which incidentally do much to maintain their health and cheerfulness and to counteract the effects of long or inconvenient hours of work.

#### POLICY AND PROCEDURE

Section 150 of the Factories Act of 1937 empowers the Secretary of State in case of any public emergency, by Order, to the extent and during the period specified by him, to exempt from the Act any factory belonging to the Crown, or any factory in respect of work which is being done on behalf of the Crown.

Further, Defence Regulation No. 59 enables the Secretary of State to exempt wholly or partly from the provisions of the Act any factory or operations, if he is satisfied that such exemption is, by reason of circumstances arising out of the war, desirable in the public interest in order to secure or facilitate the carrying on of work or in order to promote the safety of persons employed in such factory or operations.

The report states that it was necessary to agree freely to substantial overtime at the outset so as to meet immediate difficulties and afford time, without holding up urgent supplies in the meanwhile, for enquiries into the actual needs of the case. It was therefore arranged that, at the outset of the war, the Service Departments might inform their contractors, in cases where they thought this necessary, that the contractors were provisionally authorised to work overtime subject to a maximum of 60 hours a week, and to make certain changes in starting and stopping times. It was, however, essential to make it clear to employers and workpeople that the Factories Act had not gone by the board, and that hours must be regulated, through its machinery, in accordance with a considered policy. Contractors were therefore to be instructed to approach the local factory inspector with a view to obtaining as soon as practicable an Order from the Home Secretary formally authorising the precise relaxations of the Factories Act found to be necessary.

The Service Department was to notify the Home Office of the cases in which this procedure was adopted. The arrangement was purely temporary, and was terminated at an early stage, after which authority to depart from the peace-time requirements of the Factories Act could only be obtained through the factory inspectors and the Home Office.

On receiving an application, an inspector visits the factory and reports as to the nature of the work for which an Emergency Order is desired, the classes of persons (i.e., women, young persons over

16 or under 16) whom it is proposed to employ for additional hours or in shifts, and details of the proposed scheme of hours. The inspector also enquires into the extent to which the workers concerned will be employed on work on behalf of the Crown, and as to which Government Departments are particularly concerned. He also reports on the conditions at the factory regarding the observance of the provisions of the Act as to the safety, health, and welfare, of the persons employed, and as to the views of the workers, especially on the proposed arrangement of hours and intervals for meals. If it should appear that workers living at a distance are employed at the factory, he also ascertains whether adequate transport facilities are available at the times required. When shortage of workers is advanced as a ground for the application for permission to work extended hours, enquiries are made of local officers of the Ministry of Labour and National Service. Inspectors also consult local trade union representatives in connection with such applications, and report their views to the Home Office.

The general practice has been to make Orders in respect of particular factories or processes or departments and to limit their validity, in the first instance, to short periods of one, two or three months. Opportunity has thus been afforded to review the situation and to assess with greater accuracy than was possible in the first weeks of the war the position and needs of individual factories and the requirements of particular industries.

Subsequently, a tendency towards standardisation of emergency hours in some industries led to the making of general Orders.

#### *General Orders*

Two such General Orders, applicable respectively to light engineering and metal works (allowing the total period of employment to be fixed at a figure not exceeding 57 hours a week) and to the clothing industry (allowing up to 54 hours) have been summarised in *Industrial and Labour Information*.<sup>1</sup> They authorise the superintending inspectors to permit extended hours in factories working for the Crown up to the limit indicated which is inclusive of overtime. Three others on similar lines have been made for the woollen and worsted textile industry (allowing up to 54 hours) and for cotton spinning and weaving (allowing up to 55½ hours). In the case of cotton, employers' and workers' representatives have entered into formal agreements as to overtime working up to 55½ hours, and have set up joint committees to consider proposals for overtime working in any particular factory. The superintending inspectors concerned are in close touch with these committees.

#### *Special Orders*

The figures given below relate to Orders issued in respect of individual factories since the beginning of the war and up to 27 January 1940 but do not include factories in respect of which per-

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<sup>1</sup> Vol. LXXIII, No. 3, 15 Jan. 1940, p. 45, and Vol. LXXIV, No. 3, 15 April 1940, p. 53.

mission to work extended hours has been given under a General Order, except where, in light engineering and metal works, such an authorisation replaced on its expiry an individual Emergency Order previously issued.

Orders providing for some modification of the Factories Act were issued in respect of 2,914 factories. This figure includes Orders in respect of 133 factories issued under Regulation 59. The number of factories in respect of which Orders were in operation on the date mentioned was smaller, since some of the temporary Orders had not been renewed.

### *Extended Hours.*

Orders authorising extended hours have been made in respect of 2,459 factories. Of these 1,344 were engaged in engineering and shipbuilding, 580 in the textile and hosiery industries, 145 in the clothing industry, 52 in the rubber industry, and 43 in the food and drink trades. Permission to work extended hours under the Light Engineering and Metal Works Order has been granted in the case of 227 factories.

A few Orders have also been made under Regulation 59 allowing overtime in factories engaged wholly or mainly in the manufacture of goods for the export market.

As regards young persons under 16, it should be remembered that their hours of work were reduced from 48 to 44 on 1 July 1939, except in a few industries (e.g. the cotton and woollen textile industries). On the outbreak of war, industry had not sufficiently adjusted itself to the recent reduction to 44 hours, and many hundreds of applications were received for permission to employ the young persons up to the 48 hours previously allowed.

During the early months of the war, short-term Orders permitting the employment of young persons under 16 years of age for hours in excess of 44, but not exceeding 48 a week, were granted to 439 factories of which 302 were engaged in general engineering and 48 in shipbuilding and marine engineering. Three hundred and twelve of these Orders were not renewed. In many cases the firms concerned did not find it necessary to apply for renewal, and in others renewal was refused. At the end of the five months under review, there were in operation 133 Orders allowing the employment of these young persons for hours between 44 and 48 in the week.

### *Distribution of Hours of Work.*

*Two day-shifts.* Orders authorising employment of women and young persons over 16 years of age on a system of two day-shifts with turns of eight hours were granted in the case of 299 factories. The usual hours worked are: Shift I, 6 turns a week from 6 a.m. to 2 p.m., and Shift II, 5 turns (in cases of extreme urgency, 6 turns) from 2 p.m. to 10 p.m. The shifts alternate weekly or fortnightly subject to arrangements to meet the convenience of individual workers. It is usual to impose a condition requiring the provision of a messroom (a class of welfare provision not usually required

by the Act itself) and, where the inspector's enquiries indicate that this is desirable, a condition to enable transport facilities to be secured for workers living at a distance.

*Employment at night.* Fifty-seven Orders have been made authorising the employment of women at night. These have been confined almost entirely to factories producing armaments or engaged in processes incidental thereto.

The system authorised is usually one of the following: (a) a system of three eight-hour shifts in the 24 hours, with an interval of at least half-an-hour for meals and rest in each turn; (b) a system of day and night shifts allowing a weekly total of working hours of about 54 for the day-shift and about 50 for the night-shift. Under the latter system intervals for meals and rest, amounting to at least one hour, are required to be allowed during each turn. In all but a few cases such Orders provide for a short Saturday and only five night turns a week. Care is taken to ensure that suitable welfare facilities are provided; to supplement the welfare provisions of the Act itself, special conditions as to a messroom, adequate supervision, and suitable transport facilities, are included in each Order permitting the employment of women at night. Except for a few cases where the workers have expressed a wish to remain permanently in the night-shift, the Orders require weekly or fortnightly alternation of the shifts.

Twelve Orders have been made modifying the system under which male young persons aged 16 years or over are normally permitted to be employed at night in certain industries, or extending the shift system to work on non-continuous processes.

Orders have also been made for 30 factories allowing the employment of male young persons over 16 in a system of two day- and night-shifts or three eight-hour shifts. Eleven of these factories were engaged in the manufacture of aircraft or aircraft components, four in making wire ropes or cables, and 15 in miscellaneous processes in the manufacture of armaments. Special conditions were attached as to a messroom, and suitable transport facilities.

Sixty-two applications for Orders allowing the employment of women or young persons at night have been refused, at any rate for the time being, and in no case has authority for the night employment of girls under 18 or of boys under 16 been given.

*Rearrangement of weekly hours.* Most of the 133 Orders made under Regulation 59 have been granted to meet cases where, as a result of restrictions on lighting, it was considered advantageous, whether from the point of view of safety or of facilitating work, to modify some requirements of the Factories Act which were framed to meet peace-time circumstances.

It has thus been possible, in cases where the workers preferred it, to make Orders permitting a rearrangement of the daily hours of work within the statutory weekly maximum, e.g., by having an earlier stopping time on five days of the week with employment on Saturday afternoon. Such Orders were all made for limited



periods, and with the coming into operation of "summer-time" had served their purpose and were no longer required.

The length of the maximum spell of continuous work prescribed in the Pottery Regulations was also slightly modified until February 1940, to meet black-out conditions.

#### *Weekly Rest.*

Work on Sunday (not in a shift system) has hardly ever been applied for ; but it has been allowed in a few cases on some special Sunday or Sundays to enable some particularly urgent job or unforeseen emergency to be dealt with.

### CONCLUSION

The report concludes as follows: "It will be seen from the foregoing that notwithstanding the exceptional demands being made upon industry for increased and accelerated production to meet the war emergency the hours and conditions of employment of women and young persons are being kept under supervision and control.

"The experience of the present emergency is necessarily limited and, as the war continues, fresh problems for industry in the matter of production and output will almost certainly arise. It is, however, the policy of the Government while authorising, where necessary, hours which would not be permissible in peace-time, not to authorise hours which are found in the light of experience and of scientific investigation to be detrimental to health or efficient production."

# REPORTS AND ENQUIRIES

## Conditions of Domestic Employment in the Scandinavian Countries

In recent years the Scandinavian countries have shown a special interest in the conditions of employment of domestic servants, whether paid or unpaid. Reports on this subject published in Sweden, Norway, and Denmark, during 1938 and 1939 are summarised below.

### SWEDEN

#### *Report and Bill Concerning the Regulation of the Engagement and Employment of Domestic Servants*<sup>1</sup>

In accordance with suggestions made in the Riksdag in 1931 and 1932 with regard to the conditions of engagement and employment of domestic employees, the Swedish Minister of Social Affairs set up a committee of experts on 30 June 1933 to consider these conditions and submit proposals. At the request of the experts the Social Board was instructed, on 29 December 1933, to collaborate with them in an enquiry into the conditions of employment of domestic servants in towns and urban centres. The results were published in September 1936.<sup>2</sup> On the proposal of the experts, the Social Board was then instructed, on 5 November 1937, to collaborate in an enquiry into the conditions of employment and wages of domestic employees in agricultural households. The results of that enquiry were submitted in December 1938.<sup>3</sup> In April 1937 the experts submitted a report and proposals concerning vocational training for domestic employees.<sup>4</sup> The Government has

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<sup>1</sup> SOCIALDEPARTEMENTET : *Betänkande med förslag till lag om reglering av anställnings- och arbetsförhållandena inom det husliga arbetet*. Hembiträdesutredningens betänkande II. Statens offentliga utredningar 1939 : 15. Stockholm, 1939.

<sup>2</sup> Cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. XXXV, No. 1, Jan. 1937, p. 83.

<sup>3</sup> SOCIALSTYRELSEN : *Arbetsförhållandena inom det husliga arbetet å landsbygden*. Sveriges officiella statistik. Socialstatistik. Stockholm, 1939.

<sup>4</sup> Cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. XXXVI, No. 3, Sept. 1937, p. 394.

not so far taken any decision on this subject. On 9 June 1939 the experts presented their second report, with proposals for legislation governing the conditions of engagement and employment of domestic servants.

The experts point out in their report that the above-mentioned enquiries showed that the hours of work of domestic servants were unduly long, and that these workers are therefore obviously unable to enjoy the social and cultural advantages guaranteed to most other groups of workers by labour legislation. It is not only for social reasons, however, that the introduction of legislation is desirable ; it is necessary also in order to raise the standing of an occupation which seems at present to be generally looked down upon. As the conditions of employment of domestic servants are much worse than those of other groups of workers, more particularly as regards hours, spare time, vocational training, etc., there has for many years been a shortage of domestic servants, while in several branches of industry and other activities women have to a considerable extent taken the place of men because they accept lower wages, with the result that in periods of depression there has been more male unemployment than there would otherwise have been. Regulations governing domestic service should therefore aim at increasing the prestige of that occupation and thus exercising a favourable influence on the employment market.

The experts realise how difficult it would be to take the 8-hour day as a basis for regulating hours of work. In view of the special nature of domestic work and the large number of workplaces, they think it impossible to introduce legislation involving a system of inspection. They have therefore prepared two Bills : the principal one would apply to all domestic contracts of employment, while the alternative one, which they hope will be accepted if the first is rejected, would be binding only on those who signed a standard form of contract.

The two Bills contain the same provisions concerning working conditions. The principal Bill, however, excludes from its scope members of the employer's family, governesses or other persons holding a position of supervision in the household, certificated nurses, and valets and ladies' maids engaged mainly in personal attendance on the employer or his wife.

The experts propose that hours of work should be regulated indirectly by fixing the minimum amount of spare time to which domestic servants should be entitled in every case. According to the two Bills, the day's work would end, unless there was any agreement to the contrary, at 7 p.m. ; in agricultural households it might continue until 8 p.m. during the months from April to September. It was obviously impossible to prohibit overtime, but the Bills provide that overtime shall be worked only by agreement between the parties and that extra wages shall be paid. In this connection the experts make a distinction between housework in the strict sense and the task of looking after children or the sick ; for work of this latter type

no special remuneration for overtime is prescribed. Time off might be given in lieu of the extra pay for overtime.

According to the two Bills, domestic servants would have the following free time<sup>1</sup>: on one Sunday or public holiday out of three from the time work ceases on the day preceding the holiday until the time of beginning work on the day after the holiday; on one day a week from 2 p.m.; and on 1 May from 1 p.m. if it does not happen to be a Sunday. It would be possible for domestic servants, by arrangement, to be free every second Sunday from 1 p.m. until the time of beginning work the following day. In special circumstances equivalent free time might be given on other days, subject to agreement between the parties.

The prescribed period of notice would be 14 days in the case of contracts containing no other stipulation on the subject. The employer would be entitled to break the contract immediately if the servant was guilty of serious negligence, was sentenced for a criminal offence, or was found to be suffering from tuberculosis, venereal disease, or any other contagious disease. The servant would have the same right if the employer was two working days late in the payment of wages (which should be paid on the last day of the month), if she did not receive adequate food or accommodation, if the employer or his wife grossly neglected their duties towards the servant, if the employer or a member of his family suffered from one of the diseases mentioned above, or if the employer settled permanently in some other locality.

The Bills further provide that the accommodation supplied to the servant must comply with the provisions of the Public Health Act and that the servant shall have the free use of that accommodation, the employer and members of his family not being entitled to enter it. A servant living in the employer's household would be entitled, unless she is transferred to hospital, to accommodation, food, and personal attendance—even after the contract had expired—until she could leave the employer's house without risk to her life or health. The employer would then be entitled to claim a refund by the servant of the expenses arising out of the illness. If a servant were prevented by illness from performing her work for more than 14 days, the employer would be entitled, in the case of a contract for a specified period, to break the contract after these 14 days by giving a further 14 days' notice. If it were expected from the outset that the incapacity for work would last at least four weeks, and if the illness were not due to an occupational accident, the employer would be entitled immediately to give 14 days' notice. If, however, the servant had recovered before the end of that period, the notice would not take effect.

The Bills contain special provisions for domestic servants under the age of 16 years. Such persons could not be required to work more than 7 hours' overtime a week or to perform any work involving

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<sup>1</sup> It should be noted that the Act of 17 June 1938 concerning holidays with pay applies to domestic employees (cf. *Industrial and Labour Information*, Vol. LXVII, No. 5, 1 Aug. 1938, p. 127).

a risk of accident or strain or likely to have any unfavourable influence on the health, physical development, or morals, of the servant. The employer would be obliged to see that a young domestic servant had the necessary rest periods during her work.

It would be compulsory for the employer to give a servant a certificate containing information as to the nature of the work performed, her length of service, and her assiduity and ability.

The Bills also contain a clause providing that the employer or the servant shall be entitled to claim damages if the other party does not fulfil the obligations laid down in the contract of employment or in the legislation.

As the experts consider these Bills simply as a first step towards legislation concerning domestic service, they propose that the legislation should provisionally be enacted for three years. They intend to undertake separate enquiries into placing in domestic service and the problem of pensions.

#### *Views of the Social Board on the Bills*<sup>1</sup>

On 15 September 1939 the Department of Labour and Social Welfare published its views on the Bills analysed above. With regard to the shortage of female labour for domestic service, the Department points out that the state of war may bring about a change in the employment market. It is possible that women whose husbands are mobilised may look for domestic employment, while on the other hand the decline in income or difficulties connected with rationing may induce families to dispense with domestic help. Apart from these considerations, it is to be expected that women will still seek employment in other fields in preference to domestic service. The tendency to admit women more freely to other branches of employment will continue, and domestic work will therefore have to suffer severe competition from other forms of activity. In recent years there has been a shortage of female labour in industry, nursing, and restaurants. The present trend of the population shows that it is impossible to count on any great increase in the amount of female labour, a greater shortage being more probable. Consequently the competition between domestic service and other kinds of employment will become more acute, and domestic service must be made more attractive. The enquiries that have been carried out show the need for legislation, and the Board is therefore in favour of introducing it. It is agreed that in view of the great difficulties of legislating on hours of work in this particular field the legislation should regulate spare time. Domestic work, except in agricultural households, should end by 7 p.m., or possibly by 7.30 p.m. provided that proportionate time off is granted. The legislation should, as the experts propose, deal not only with spare time but also with various other conditions of employment. The Social Board, however, is not convinced that in the present circumstances it would be desirable to put forward a proposal of this nature now.

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<sup>1</sup> *Sociala Meddelanden*, 1939, No. 9, pp. 657-666.

*Conditions of Work of Domestic Employees in the Country*<sup>1</sup>

In order to obtain the necessary information, those responsible for the enquiry into conditions on farms sent out to employers and employees questionnaires similar to those used for the 1936 enquiry.<sup>2</sup> In addition, a special questionnaire was sent to institutions and persons likely to have special knowledge of conditions of work on farms. A study of the replies showed that there was a shortage of female labour, which appeared to have become more marked from 1928 to 1938. The increase in the demand for female labour for industry and the attraction exercised by the towns were contributory factors in this phenomenon. At the same time, men had replaced women for certain farm work, more particularly looking after cattle.

Practically half of the domestic servants covered by this enquiry were under the age of 20 years, and only one-tenth were 30 years of age or over. The reason is that girls normally find their first places near their own homes.

*Vocational Training.*

Three-fourths of the replies referred to domestic servants who had merely had some training in cooking, and one-third to servants who had had a course in a continuation school. Only a very small percentage had attended courses in an agricultural domestic school, a people's university, or some other vocational school. It was found that the younger domestic servants had more frequently obtained some training than the older ones; this is probably because in recent years domestic science courses have been introduced in an increasing number of schools. On the other hand, it was found that the older servants had more frequently been trained in an agricultural domestic school or a people's university, because training of this kind is given only after the pupils have spent a certain time in remunerative employment. Rather more than one-fourth of the total had been in domestic service for less than three years, about half for three to nine years, and only one-seventh for 10 years or over.

*Change of Place.*

Domestic servants do not seem to remain long in the same place. According to the replies received from mistresses and servants, about half of the servants had been with the same family for more than a year, and rather more than one-fourth for less than a year; three-fourths had been less than three years in the same place, and about one-tenth from three to five years. The replies indicate that changes from one place to another in the same occupation are not so frequent as changes to another occupation.

Four-fifths of the servants replied that there was no stipulation in their contract concerning notice of dismissal. When such a stipulation existed, the period was generally three weeks or one month.

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<sup>1</sup> SOCIALSTYRELSEN : *op. cit.*

<sup>2</sup> Cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. XXXV, No. 1, Jan. 1937, p. 83.

In 1 per cent. of the replies, the period of notice was said to be a fortnight or less. Two-thirds of the servants had obtained their posts by personal recommendation, and only one-third had made use of the public employment exchanges; one-tenth had made use of advertisements, and only a very small percentage had applied to private employment agencies. It appeared that two-fifths of the total were members of youth organisations, study circles, temperance associations, trade unions, or sports clubs.

### *Hours of Work.*

In the last few years, and more particularly since the introduction of the legislation of 1936 and 1937 concerning the hours of work of agricultural workers, domestic servants on farms have been claiming shorter hours and demanding regulations concerning rest periods and spare time.

The information supplied by mistresses indicates that the average hours of work, including breaks for meals, were rather more than 13 in the day in summer and  $12\frac{1}{2}$  in winter. According to the servants, the corresponding figures were 14 and 13. A very few replies stated that hours of work, even in winter, were 15 or more in the day. The average hours of work in the course of the week, according to the employers, were  $84\frac{1}{2}$  in winter and  $88\frac{1}{2}$  in summer; according to the servants, they were  $88\frac{1}{2}$  and  $93\frac{1}{2}$  respectively. There are usually from three to six breaks for meals and refreshments during the day, generally three for meals and two for coffee.

### *Holidays.*

There do not appear to be any formal agreements concerning spare time, which is generally given according to the inclination of the employer. The mistresses reported that from one-fourth to one-third of the servants had no fixed spare time, while the servants stated that this was the case for one-third of the total.

There were great discrepancies in the information supplied concerning regular Sunday holidays. A weekday holiday would seem to be given regularly once a week. The most usual arrangement is one Sunday in three or four and one working day every week.

Rather more than half the servants, according to the mistresses, and about two-thirds according to the servants themselves, are entitled to holidays with pay. The discrepancy may probably be explained by the fact that the right to these holidays is recognised only after a certain period of service, which is generally one year. The replies of the two parties agreed in stating that holidays are given more frequently on large farms than on small ones. The length of the holiday is usually one week. Holidays of two to three weeks are granted to about one-third of the servants, according to the mistresses, and to a smaller proportion according to the servants themselves. A very small number of servants are entitled to a month's holiday. A subsistence allowance during holidays would seem rarely to be paid in the country districts.

*Wages and Housing.*

The cash wages are as follows : for domestic servants on small farms working only in the house, 30 kr. a month on the average ; on large farms 39 kr. ; for those who are also required to milk the cows, the figures are 34 and 38 kr. respectively ; for other domestic servants engaged in work outside the house, the wages are 31 and 37 kr. These figures vary, of course, according to the age, ability, and length of service, of the individual.

With regard to accommodation, the employers state that two-thirds of the servants have rooms of their own, but according to the servants themselves only half enjoy this privilege. One-fifth of the servants, according to the employers, and one-fourth according to the servants, sleep in the kitchen. Conditions of accommodation vary greatly according to the size of the farm, the size of the family, and the district concerned.

*Medical Treatment.*

Since the repeal of the old masters and servants legislation in 1926, employers are under no legal obligation to pay for the treatment of their employees in case of sickness. For certain groups of women employees in agriculture formerly covered by that legislation, the matter is now regulated by a special provision of collective agreements whereby the employer is responsible to some extent for paying the medical expenses of his workers and their families. No such provision exists in the case of domestic servants on farms. A special question was therefore included in the questionnaire so as to obtain information on this point. The replies show that in two-thirds of the cases of short illness the employers pay the expenses ; according to certain replies, medical expenses are paid only in certain cases, depending on the length of service of the employee, whether or not the disease was contracted in the course of her service, etc. Some employers pay only the cost of medical attendance, and others only the cost of drugs or hospital treatment.

According to the employers, 13 per cent. of the servants, and according to the servants 15 per cent., are members of sickness funds. One-fifth, according to the employers, and one-fourth according to the servants, have life insurance policies.

*Suggested Improvements.*

The main reasons why domestic servants on farms endeavour to change their occupation appear to be the long hours, the low wages, their repugnance for the work (particularly milking and looking after cattle), the lack of spare time, the fact that such work is looked down upon, etc. The mistresses as well as the servants seem to consider that conditions of employment in farm households leave much to be desired. Many of the replies refer to the need for improved vocational training, either by means of a compulsory course of domestic training organised by the State or by some form of supplementary education for all girls between the ages of 15 and 16 years, or else by means of one year of compulsory service.



Certain mistresses expressed themselves as being opposed to statutory regulation of working conditions; very many of the servants, on the other hand, showed a desire for legislation or collective agreements to regulate conditions. Many of the mistresses stated that domestic work in rural areas was badly organised and that it should be facilitated by the introduction of modern equipment; many of them hoped that the public authorities would give economic assistance to enable rationalisation to be carried out. In this connection, the managers of employment exchanges favoured installing practical kitchens, electric light, and running water, the construction of cellars for wood and food in the house itself, and sounder methods of house construction and planning. The majority of the mistresses' replies drew attention to the consequences of the labour shortage, and in particular to the fact that mothers of families were overworked.

The report concludes with a comparison between the conditions of employment of domestic servants in the country and in the towns.

#### *Measures to Facilitate the Work of Women in Small Agricultural Households*<sup>1</sup>

Another enquiry was instituted by the Minister of Agriculture in 1938 with a view to finding means of simplifying household work in small agricultural holdings by the use of technical equipment. In 1937 an enquiry had been carried out into conditions of work in small agricultural holdings and had shown the need for the collective use of machinery. The 1938 enquiry was intended to take account of hygienic and health conditions, but the main purpose was to consider the possibility of simplifying women's work in rural households.

#### *Defects in the Conditions of House Work.*

The report, submitted on 25 February 1939, shows that most of the women working on small agricultural holdings are overworked because they have to perform their household tasks and in addition assist with the agricultural work by attending to the cattle and at certain periods of the year working in the fields. Their houses and kitchens generally lack many practical requirements such as running water; their hours of work are long and their work fatiguing. These facts doubtless constitute one of the main reasons why so many young women leave the country to seek employment elsewhere. The committee of enquiry, wishing to have some idea of the extent to which women took part in agricultural work, carefully examined the data supplied by small farms the accounts of which are subject to supervision, and which must therefore regularly supply information to the agricultural authorities concerning agricultural work in the strict sense (the care of cattle, work in the fields, etc.) performed by members of the families of small farmers.

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<sup>1</sup> JORDBRUKSDEPARTEMENTET : *Underlättandet av kvinnornas arbete i de mindre lanthemmen*. Statens offentliga utredningar 1939 : 6. Stockholm, 1939.

In five districts the committee also enquired into the time required by housewives for different tasks. According to the figures published in the report, their average hours of work are 13 in the day, of which 4 are devoted to agricultural work (in the stables, gardens, or fields), about  $3\frac{3}{4}$  to the preparation of meals,  $1\frac{1}{4}$  to other household tasks, and  $1\frac{1}{4}$  to the care of children. The time spent in moving from one workplace to another within the house or from the house to other buildings is estimated at  $\frac{3}{4}$  of an hour, and another  $\frac{3}{4}$  of an hour must be reckoned for movements in the kitchen during the preparation of meals. That means that  $1\frac{1}{2}$  hours, or 11.5 per cent. of the total working time, are taken up in moving from one place to another. The time spent in carrying water, etc., is estimated at a quarter of an hour on the average.

These figures show that the hours of work are unduly long and that steps should be taken to simplify the work of housewives on small farms, but there is an obstacle to any improvement in the very limited economic resources of small farmers, so that some improvement in their financial situation must be considered as the most important factor in securing better working conditions.

#### *Causes of the Unsatisfactory Conditions.*

As a rule the small farmer does not earn enough for the satisfactory maintenance of his family, and therefore it is often necessary for his wife to do some of the agricultural work. If she does this for four hours a day, which is half a normal working day, it means that she is overworked with her other duties. The committee points out that this difficulty is closely bound up with the special structure and working conditions of small agricultural holdings and therefore cannot be eliminated entirely. Something might, however, be done to facilitate the performance of the work. The report mentions among the desirable improvements: (a) an improvement in the economic situation of small farmers; (b) the creation of larger agricultural units producing a better return by joining unduly small farms to larger ones; (c) increased mechanisation on small agricultural holdings, more particularly by the collective use of machinery. The committee is doubtful, however, whether the establishment of co-operative stables, which has been advocated recently, would facilitate the work on these farms. It should, however, be possible to have certain household tasks, such as washing, done on a collective basis. Very often those concerned have not the slightest idea of what might be done to organise household work more scientifically, and very little interest is often taken in the problem of improving household conditions because this work is considered to be unproductive. Not enough has so far been done in this field, probably because of lack of knowledge and of practical ideas. The efforts made to improve working conditions in rural households are extremely slight compared with what has been done in the towns.

The report draws attention to the faulty construction and inadequate equipment of rural houses, and particularly to the absence of modern technical installations such as running water, central heating, and in many cases even electricity.

The report sums up as follows the main causes of the bad working conditions in small agricultural holdings : (1) unsatisfactory economic conditions and the resulting difficulties ; (2) lack of understanding of the importance of household work ; (3) defective and badly planned buildings and the absence of labour-saving devices ; (4) inadequate utensils and lack of knowledge as to the organisation of work.

*Suggested Improvements.*

There has been a considerable increase in the interest taken in all matters concerning domestic work, and peasant families themselves have tried to introduce certain improvements. The rural women's organisations and other bodies have also dealt with the question. The possibilities of action by private organisations, however, are necessarily limited, and the State must intervene, either by giving direct assistance to the individual or by carrying out general enquiries and collecting information.

The collection of information in the various provinces by advisers on household matters will have to be supplemented by newspaper articles, wireless talks, the cinema, and the distribution of pamphlets.

With regard to the rationalisation of working methods and utensils, the committee proposes that a Government institute for the rationalisation of domestic work should be set up. This institute would have the following tasks : (1) to carry out enquiries into working methods and study new and more scientific systems ; (2) to test utensils and other appliances used in household work ; (3) to publish the results of its enquiries, these publications being sent free of charge to schools, experts in domestic science, teachers in agricultural domestic schools, and organisations engaged in the collection and distribution of information. The institute would also be responsible for training housewives by means of propaganda leaflets, newspaper articles, courses, lectures, wireless talks, and films. The institute would organise domestic training in elementary and secondary schools, since the training at present given is not based on scientific methods.

With regard to housing, the committee proposes that the State should grant subsidies and loans for installing labour-saving equipment in the houses of peasant farmers. A more detailed plan on this point will be drawn up with the assistance of experts on housing questions. The committee also proposes that a number of model houses should be built.

The committee further considered as one of the means of improving the conditions of work of rural housewives the establishment of collective laundries. This problem has already been studied by various organisations of housewives. The washing is still one of the most arduous tasks in household work, and on many farms it has to be carried out under very primitive conditions, often outside even in winter, with serious results for the health of the women concerned. The committee has prepared a number of plans on this subject adapted to varying local conditions. It is proposed, for example, that travelling laundries should be organised in sparsely populated

areas. Experts have calculated that between 70 and 80 per cent. of the time at present required for laundry work could be saved if suitable machines were used. The committee considers that a number of laundries should be established as an experiment so as to obtain information as to the results ; it suggests a State subsidy for this purpose.

#### NORWAY

##### *Conditions of Employment of Domestic Servants in Towns*<sup>1</sup>

When the new Workers' Protection Act was being drafted in Norway in 1936 the Trade Union of Domestic Employees requested Parliament to extend the scope of the Act to domestic servants. The Social Questions Committee of Parliament, in submitting its proposals, favoured legislation to regulate the conditions of employment of domestic servants but considered that these regulations could not be included in a general Act for the protection of the workers because that would involve excessive interference with work in private households. It therefore asked the Government to set up a special committee to study the problem and prepare a Bill on the conditions of employment of domestic servants. In December 1936 the Department of Social Affairs appointed a committee, which, at its first meeting in January 1937, decided that a statistical enquiry was necessary in order to determine the existing conditions of employment of domestic servants and requested the Department to entrust the enquiry to the Central Statistical Office. The necessary credits were voted and the statistical report was published as a basis for future legislation relating to domestic service.

The Norwegian legislation concerning masters and servants has been in force for more than two hundred years, and there are many rules established by custom. Domestic servants are also covered by the legislation concerning compulsory sickness and old-age insurance.

As the proposed enquiry had to be based on information supplied by individuals and as the Statistical Office considered that it should be carried out on as wide a basis as possible, questionnaires were sent to all housewives and all domestic servants working solely in private houses in 26 towns and in the suburbs of three of them. A Royal Order of 1 October 1937 made it compulsory to reply to the questionnaire.

According to the 1930 census, about 120,000 women (including 26,969 in towns) are engaged in domestic work in Norway, constituting about one-third of the total number of women engaged in economic activities. Between the 1920 and 1930 censuses the number of domestic servants increased very considerably. Domestic work is numerically the most important occupation for women after agricultural employment. There are only 60,000 women employed in industry. The number of questionnaires sent to housewives and servants in the towns covered by the enquiry was 57,221, and the number of replies that could be used was 38,505, or 67.3 per cent.

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<sup>1</sup> STATISTISKE CENTRALBYRÅ : *Arbeidsvilkårene for hushjelp i norske byer*. Norges Offisielle Statistikk. IX. 146. Oslo, 1938.

*Results of the Enquiry.*

As the Norwegian enquiry was intended primarily to reveal the conditions of employment of domestic servants, detailed consideration was not given to the question of the supply and demand of domestic labour.

After a detailed allocation of domestic servants to various categories, the largest being that of general servants, the enquiry went on to consider various matters such as accommodation, the ages of domestic servants in different towns, their places of birth (in towns or in the country), etc.

*Vocational Training.*

As a general rule the information supplied by mistresses as to vocational training is vague and inadequate. It would appear that 19 per cent. of the servants received vocational training, lasting as a rule for five or six months. Those who received such training were generally cooks or children's nurses. The report states that there is no organised vocational training for domestic servants in Norway. In 1938 the Department of Agriculture set up a committee to report on the reorganisation of domestic training, and in the same year the city of Oslo also appointed a committee to make proposals for a vocational school for domestic servants.

According to the report, 13 per cent. of domestic employees had formerly been in some other occupation. The majority of these were over the age of 30 years and quite a number of them had been employed in hotels and restaurants, which may be considered as a kind of training for household work. Many of the young domestic servants had previously worked in factories; the older ones had been employed in handicrafts or sewing. As the information concerning vocational training is scanty, and as most domestic servants obtain their training, through practice, it was felt necessary to consider the length of the period during which servants remained in the same occupation. According to the information supplied by themselves, the period is longest in the case of cooks, followed by ladies' maids, and is shortest for nursemaids. Half of the cooks covered by the enquiry had followed that occupation for more than ten years. A large number of domestic servants under the age of 20 years had already been in that occupation for two to five years. The report remarks on the fact that domestic servants do not usually remain long in the same place.

*Period of Notice.*

The period of notice would seem to be fourteen days as a general rule, but in some cases it is as long as a month or even three months.

*Wages.*

Wages vary widely, being influenced by numerous factors such as local conditions, the age, ability, and experience, of the servant, the special requirements of the employer, the conditions of accommo-

dation, the employer's economic situation, supply and demand, etc. The wages of very young servants, who may be considered as apprentices and who live with their parents, are sometimes as low as 10 kr. a month, while the wages of an experienced cook often exceed 100 kr. The data concerning average wages show that there are considerable differences from one category to another. The highest wages are those of cooks and ladies' maids and the lowest are those of general servants and children's nurses. The last-mentioned group consists of a variety of types: some are very young girls with no experience, earning very low wages, and some are trained nurses with good wages. The report indicates that 45 per cent. of all domestic servants earn between 30 and 50 kr. a month, 15 per cent. from 20 to 30 kr., 18 per cent. from 50 to 60 kr., 2 per cent. less than 20 kr., and 8 per cent. more than 70 kr. There is a considerable difference between the wages paid in large and small towns; wages are higher in the larger towns, and this can be attributed to the different age distribution of servants in large and small towns and the higher standard required of servants in towns.

The wages of domestic servants living with their employers are generally higher than those of servants who are not provided with accommodation. Those who live with their parents generally receive much lower wages than the others. These are often apprentices who work shorter hours or servants with no personal responsibility. The wages of servants who rent rooms of their own are also lower than those of servants of the same category living in the employers' house. Hours of work play a part in determining wage rates. In a few rare cases it would seem that a supplement is paid for accommodation. As a rule the rents paid for rooms by domestic servants are low (from 10 to 25 kr. a month in the large towns, generally below 15 kr. in smaller towns, and below 10 kr. in 43 per cent. of the cases). Sometimes the rent is paid partly in cash and partly by work, such as washing down the stairs. The work of domestic servants of this group is generally different from that of servants who live in the employers' house. Many of them come at a fixed time to do some definite work, often the heaviest work, although others do the general house work in the same way as resident servants.

The report contains statistics showing the differences between the wages of different categories of servants according to the length of time spent in the occupation, length of service in the same household, and the number of rooms in the employers' dwelling. The highest wages are paid in households of six persons or over. The wages are higher in childless households than in those with children, although the maid has naturally more work in the latter. The reason probably is that households with children are not able to pay high wages and are content to employ young and inexperienced servants. One interesting fact is that in households in which the mother engages in some occupation the servant's wages are lower than in households where the mistress has no outside occupation, although it might be supposed that in the former case the servant would have greater responsibilities.

*Accommodation.*

Of the domestic servants living in their employers' houses, 84 per cent. have rooms of their own (77 per cent. in the smaller towns), 8 per cent. share a room with another servant, and 7.6 per cent. sleep in the kitchen, hall, children's room, or some other room. Servants with rooms of their own were asked to give the length and breadth of the room. The replies show that there are very few of these rooms less than four square metres in size. Most of them are from six to eight or from eight to ten square metres and quite a number exceed twelve square metres. According to the legislation on the subject six square metres is the minimum area which is permitted.

*Hours of Work.*

As domestic service cannot be organised and restricted as precisely as other forms of employment the Statistical Office found that it was difficult to make exact calculations of hours of work and therefore decided to determine if possible the gross hours. These are calculated from the time of beginning to the time of ending work, without deducting breaks for meals or rests. According to the mistresses the average hours of work of servants living in are 11.8 in the day, while according to the servants they are 12.1. The hours of work vary according to the size of the house, the number of rooms, the size of the family, the number of children, the type of heating, etc.

*Breaks and Holidays.*

There are considerable discrepancies between the information supplied by mistresses and that supplied by servants as regards breaks. According to the former, 82.3 per cent. of servants have regular breaks during their working time; of that number, 1.4 per cent. have breaks of less than an hour, 11.6 per cent. from 1 to 2 hours, 18.2 per cent. from 2 to 3 hours, and 8.4 per cent. 3 hours or over; for 60.4 per cent. no information as to the length of the breaks was supplied. According to the servants the corresponding figures are 59.3 per cent. and 3.6, 21.9, 21.4, and 6.8, per cent., no details being given in 46.3 per cent. of the cases. As there were so many cases in which the duration of the breaks was not indicated it is impossible to arrive at a definite conclusion on this subject. There are also great divergences in the information supplied with regard to overtime for entertaining or other purposes. According to the mistresses, 88.2 per cent. of the servants are entirely free in the evenings, 5.2 per cent. are sometimes free, and 3.2 per cent. must work in the evenings. According to the servants the corresponding figures are 74.7, 2.6, and 18.9, per cent.

With regard to the weekly rest the mistresses state that 92 per cent. of the servants have one day's holiday a week, 2.8 per cent. are free twice a week, and only 0.7 per cent. less than once a week; 16.4 per cent. are free every Sunday, 51.6 per cent. every second Sunday, and 26.6 per cent. every third Sunday. The corresponding percentages supplied by the servants are 93.1, 1.9, 0.7, 15, 51.5, and 27.2.

According to the mistresses, holidays with pay are granted to 93 per cent. of the servants, but only to 86 per cent. according to the servants themselves. The holiday is generally a fortnight, but often longer, according to the period of service. The mistresses state that half the servants who are entitled to holidays receive a subsistence allowance (and sometimes also travelling expenses) ; according to the servants this is the case for 44 per cent.

### *Insurance.*

Servants were asked to state whether they had a life insurance or annuity policy. Their replies show that in general 21.4 per cent. had such a policy, the highest percentage (31.7) being among those between the ages of 31 and 55 years. A very few mistresses would appear to pay their servants' life insurance premiums. As was mentioned above, domestic servants are covered by compulsory sickness insurance in Norway, and the replies show that their contributions are generally paid by the mistresses.

### *Persons Working by the Hour.*

The report also contains a chapter on those who are not in full-time employment but do household work for a certain number of hours. Special questionnaires were sent out to housewives and servants to obtain information concerning this group. The material obtained may not be complete but it gives some idea of the conditions of work of this type of servant in a few of the larger towns. The labour problem for these servants is quite different from that of domestic servants in the accepted sense. For the latter the gross working hours may be longer, although it is impossible to indicate the exact figure, but the former work for a fixed number of hours and are fully employed during the whole of that period except during breaks for meals. The figures published show that most of these servants work three days a week, generally for eight hours a day, or else for three to six hours a day on six days a week. They often work in several households. The hours of work usually vary from 30 to 60 in the week, the average being 42 in the week, or seven in the day. They do not usually work on Sundays, but for them the free Sunday has the disadvantage that they receive no wages and have to provide their own meals. Most servants of this type are paid partly in cash and partly in meals, and some of them are also housed by the employer. It is difficult to compare the wages of those in permanent service with the wages of those working on an hourly basis. The average wage of the former in Oslo is 52.94 kr. a month, or 53.02 kr. if accommodation is provided. The wages of servants working on an hourly basis from 45 to 70 hours a week are, on the average, 49.81 kr. monthly if accommodation and all meals are supplied and 64.84 kr. a month with all meals but no accommodation. These servants have much shorter hours but also lower wages ; generally, however, they have some other employment or source of income.

Holidays with pay are granted to 47.8 per cent. of servants of this type ; for 42.1 per cent. there is no stipulation in the contract of



employment, and certain others have holidays without pay. In all, 64.3 per cent. receive a holiday ; for 2.4 per cent. of these the holiday is one week ; for 75.6 per cent. it is a fortnight, and for 19.3 per cent. longer. The arrangements for the payment of subsistence allowance during the holiday also vary ; for 44.3 per cent. no allowance is paid, 27.3 per cent. receive an allowance, and for 28.4 per cent. no information was supplied. The period of notice of dismissal would seem to be 14 days as a general rule, but in a quarter of the cases there is no stipulation on the subject. For this group also the sickness insurance contribution would seem usually to be paid by the employer, sometimes by several employers. Many members of the group apparently prefer this type of work to permanent domestic service in spite of the disadvantages.

### *Criticisms and Suggested Improvements.*

The report concludes with a chapter devoted to criticisms of the present organisation of domestic work and proposals for improvements. The question " Do you wish to change your occupation and if so for what reasons ? " was answered in the affirmative by 40 per cent. of the servants, mostly those under the age of 30 years ; more than half of those who had received vocational training as domestic servants expressed this wish.

The reason most frequently given for desiring a change is the length of the working day and the inadequate free time. Low wages are never given by themselves as a motive for changing, but they were often indicated jointly with overwork.

Many servants said that they were content with their work but wished their occupation to be more highly organised and respected.

Several mistresses saw no reason to change the present system of domestic service, but a large number indicated a desire for reforms. The reform most frequently mentioned was proper vocational training for domestic servants, followed by the fixing of wages according to qualifications. Many mistresses and servants urged the adoption of regulations concerning hours of work, holidays, and free time. Many of the replies drew attention to the need for a more scientific organisation of domestic work.

Very many mistresses and servants seemed to consider it possible to adopt statutory provisions concerning conditions of work in domestic service.

### *The Committee's Proposals*

On 13 October 1939 the committee submitted its report and a Bill to the Department of Social Affairs.<sup>1</sup> The Bill would cover domestic servants in towns and those in rural households other than farms.

The most important provisions of the Bill are as follows. Hours of work would be from 6 a.m. to 8 p.m. or, in the case of those working by the day, from 7 a.m. to 6 p.m. For both groups the maximum

<sup>1</sup> SOSIALDEPARTEMENTET : *Innstilling om Vernelov for Hushjelp.* Oslo, 1939.

length of the working day would be 10 hours, and for those working half-days five hours. Provision is made for looking after the house or working overtime three times a week, but in the case of those under the age of 17 years this service must not extend beyond 9 p.m. Remuneration for such work would be granted in the form of additional time off or in cash at the rate of 1 per cent. per hour of the monthly wage for looking after the house and 2 per cent. for overtime work.

Servants would be free from 3 p.m. one afternoon a week. In addition, they would be entitled to one Sunday or public holiday out of two; on alternate free days the free time would extend from the end of the previous day's work to the morning of the following day; on the other free days the employee would be free from 11 a.m. until the following morning.

After six months' service in the same household servants would be entitled to eight days' holiday with pay and subsistence allowance, to be granted between 1 June and 1 September. For each additional month of service the holiday would be increased by one day up to a total of 14 days for 12 months, including Sundays. The period of notice of dismissal would be 14 days. No servant could be dismissed while sick and receiving benefits under the sickness insurance legislation and in no case during the first four weeks of sickness. The accommodation provided would have to be in accordance with the legislation concerning building, suitably furnished, and provided with a lock and key. The employer would supply the servant with an employment book which would act as a reference and would contain information as to the nature and conditions of work, membership of the sickness fund, etc. It is also proposed that a committee on domestic employment should be set up in each locality and that fines should be imposed on employers failing to comply with the provisions of the legislation.

#### DENMARK

##### *Report of a Committee on Domestic Training*<sup>1</sup>

As various appeals had been made to the Danish Government from different quarters to deal with the training of women for domestic employment, the Prime Minister decided at the end of April 1938 to appoint a committee representing the various Government departments and the more important institutions and organisations concerned to consider this problem.

The report submitted to the authorities by the committee on 13 January 1939 contains a survey of the present organisation of domestic training, the committee's proposals, and a Bill, which has already come before Parliament.

The report shows that the subsidies granted for domestic training in various schools and the courses at present organised are spread over the budgets of various Government departments, and that there is little co-ordination of the scheme.

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<sup>1</sup> *Betænkning afgivet af den af Statsministeriet nedsatte Husholdningskommission af 1938. Copenhagen, 1939.*

*The Committee's Proposals.*

The Committee points out that, according to statistics, 71 per cent. of the women between 15 and 70 years of age in Denmark are engaged in household work, 56 per cent. as mistresses and about 15 per cent. as housekeepers, domestic servants, etc. From 40 to 50 per cent. of the total national income is in the hands of housewives, who spend from 1,600 to 1,900 million kr. annually in the purchase of household necessities. It is therefore extremely important, both for the individual household and for society as a whole, that the women engaged in domestic work should be as well trained as possible for carrying out their numerous tasks. It is also extremely important for reasons of health, and more particularly of nutrition, that training in domestic science should be organised in such a way as to be available for the great majority of the population. Various organisations and schools and certain individuals have tried to develop domestic training and to bring home to the public the value of such training for the individual and for the community. As a result, the number of pupils in domestic science schools and evening classes increased considerably in the last few years. At present, however, there is no uniform curriculum for domestic science training, and the training does not meet the needs of the population as a whole.

The committee had been asked, if it thought it necessary, to submit proposals for the organisation of a single system for the training of housewives and domestic servants, for the organisation of satisfactory school courses (in vocational schools, domestic science schools, etc.), and for the training of domestic science teachers. It felt, however, that it was concerned solely with the problem of the preparation of women for domestic work. It draws attention to the necessity for making it compulsory for boys as well as girls to have a certain period of domestic training, as is the case, for example, in Norway.

There are two possible types of preparation for domestic work : the first is practical work in a household under the direction of an experienced housewife ; the second is theoretical and practical training in school.

The committee considered that what was chiefly required was to develop domestic training in schools so that such training would be available throughout the whole country. If subsequently it was found necessary to consider the problem of vocational training in approved households, this should, in the committee's opinion, be done mainly under the apprenticeship legislation.

*The Bill Submitted by the Committee.*

In the Bill which it drew up, the Committee proposes that all domestic training for girls should be under the supervision of the Ministry of Education. In dealing with preparation for domestic work, the Ministry should have the assistance of an advisory committee of experts on various forms of domestic training, both in towns and in rural districts. The State Council on Domestic Work should be represented on this committee.

All girls should receive domestic training during the last two years of the period of compulsory school attendance. The Ministry would draw up the curriculum, which would be the same for the whole country, and which would be given in all public schools and in all approved private schools in receipt of a State grant.

The Bill further provides that every girl between the ages of 14 and 20 should have the possibility of attending a three-year course in domestic science following the training given in the elementary school. The curriculum for this course would be drawn up by the Minister of Education and there would be three consecutive classes of 100 to 150 hours each. The curriculum would include the following subjects: cleaning, cooking, including the theory of nutrition, qualities of goods, housekeeping, the preparation of accounts and family budgets, the theory of hygiene and child welfare, needle-work, the maintenance of utensils, and laundry work.

The courses would be free, but the Minister might arrange for a small fee to be charged, possibly on condition that the fee would be refunded to those who regularly attended the courses.

In each county there would be a committee on domestic training, consisting of six members under the chairmanship of the governor. This committee would be responsible for supervising the training provided for girls between the ages of 14 and 20 years. The committee would decide in what place the training should be organised, take decisions as regards the curriculum, appoint the teachers, etc.

In each centre in which domestic training was organised, a local committee would be set up, consisting of three to five members, to supervise the training and take decisions on all points not falling within the competence of other authorities. The training would be given by certificated teachers of domestic science or by women specially trained for the purpose.

It would be desirable to co-ordinate the two schemes of training, because the three-year courses for girls between the ages of 14 and 20 would not provide full-time employment for a teacher, and the elementary schools in country districts often have several women teachers whose time is not fully occupied. It would be in the interests of the teachers and of the community to utilise the available time of these teachers as far as possible, in which case they could be given permanent contracts with the right to a pension. The local committees mentioned above would be responsible for ensuring this co-ordination.

The Bill provides for a State grant to domestic science schools giving not less than five months' advanced vocational training, both theoretical and practical, to young women on the basis of the knowledge gained during the three-year courses for those between the ages of 14 and 20 years. If pupils attending these schools were in difficult financial circumstances, the schools might receive a subsidy of 40 kr. per pupil in respect of two-thirds of the total number of pupils, and this subsidy might be extended at a later stage.

The Bill also provides for State grants to institutions for training domestic science teachers. Admission to such institutions would be

granted to those who had followed the three-year course for girls between the ages of 14 and 20 or some equivalent course and the five-month course in a domestic science school. Here again grants would be paid in respect of pupils whose financial situation made it necessary.

The committee thought that the course of training for domestic science teachers should be three years, but it was considered desirable to leave the decision to the Ministry of Education in consultation with the committees on domestic training. The curriculum for the training of teachers of domestic science in elementary schools would also be drawn up by the Minister of Education, who should take into account the fact that these teachers should also fulfil the conditions required for the training of girls between the ages of 14 and 20 years.

From time to time teachers of both types should, in accordance with rules to be drawn up by the Ministry of Education, attend refresher courses organised by the State. Attendance at these courses would be free of charge and the teachers concerned would receive a travelling allowance, a subsistence allowance, and if necessary a grant towards the cost of a substitute during their absence. By decision of the Minister, other teachers of domestic science and advisers on domestic questions might be permitted to attend these courses, and the State might also grant subsidies in respect of these persons.

The Bill also mentions grants to pupils attending other domestic science courses, such as those for adults who have not been able to attend the supplementary domestic science courses or those who wish to specialise in some particular branch.

Domestic science teaching in elementary schools and in courses for girls between the ages of 14 and 20, as well as the training for domestic science teachers, should be under the supervision of a woman inspector, who would be a civil servant and would assist the county committees mentioned above. If necessary the Minister of Education would appoint one or two assistants to help this inspector. The State would also exercise supervision over domestic science training in all other institutes, schools, and courses, in receipt of Government grants.

It is pointed out that in recent years there has often been a certain confusion between domestic science schools approved by the State and those subsidised by private undertakings as a means of advertising their products. The Bill therefore proposes that schools of the latter type should be required to make it perfectly plain in their publications that they are managed or subsidised by the undertakings concerned. The same provision would apply to the activities of domestic economy organisations.

# STATISTICS

## Employment, Unemployment, and Hours of Work

According to the plan adopted for the publication in the *Review* of the periodical statistics on labour conditions in different countries, statistics of employment, unemployment, and hours of work, are given in this issue.

Table I gives statistics of *unemployment in general*; table II gives statistics of *employment in general* covering besides industry the other main branches but excluding in most cases agriculture; table III gives statistics of *industrial employment* and is divided into two parts—the first relating to numbers employed and the second to total hours worked; table IV gives statistics of *hours of work in industry*, and is also divided into two parts—the first relating to hours actually worked per worker and the second to the percentage distribution of workers working a certain range of hours. Figures for the different industries or occupations covered by these series are given in the *Year-Book of Labour Statistics, 1939*.

For further information on the scope and method of these statistics, see the January 1940 issue of the *Review*: Statistics, Explanatory Notes, pp. 88-98.

### EXPLANATION OF SIGNS USED IN THE TABLES

The sign	*	signifies: "figures do not exist".
"	—	" : "figures not yet received".
"	†	" : "provisional figures".
"	°	" : "covering men only".
"	r	" : "figure revised since the previous issue".
"	e	" : "economic group represented by a few branches only".
"	—	between two figures of a series signifies that the former series has been replaced by another, or revised.
Figures in <i>thick-faced</i> type: indexes (100) of the base year.		
"	<i>italics</i>	: index numbers with a year later than 1929 as base.
"	<i>brackets</i>	: series subject to certain reservations (see the January issue of the <i>Review</i> : Statistics, Explanatory Notes).

TABLE I. STATISTICS OF UNEMPLOYMENT IN GENERAL 635

Date	GERMANY					AUSTRALIA		
	Old territory		Austria	Sudetenland	Total	Trade union returns		
	Employment exchange statistics					Unemployed		
	Unemployed registered		Unemployed registered					
	Number	Per cent.						
1929	1,898,604	9.3	192,062	*	*	47,359	11.1	
1930	3,075,580	15.2	242,612	*	*	84,767	19.3	
1931	4,519,704	23.3	300,223	*	*	117,866	27.4	
1932	5,575,492	30.1	377,894	*	*	120,454	29.0	
1933	4,804,428	26.3	405,740	*	*	104,035	25.1	
1934	2,718,309 <sup>1</sup>	14.9 <sup>1</sup>	370,210	*	*	86,865	20.5	
1935	2,151,039 <sup>2</sup>	11.6 <sup>2</sup>	348,675	*	*	71,823	16.5	
1936	1,592,655	8.3	349,663	*	*	53,992	12.2	
1937	912,312	4.6	320,961	*	*	41,823	9.3	
1938	429,461	2.1	244,788 <sup>3</sup>	*	*	40,526	8.7	
1939	*	*	*	*	284,132 <sup>4</sup>	47,033	9.8 <sup>4</sup>	
1939: April	93,933	0.4	77,134	45,479	216,546	*	*	
May	69,555	0.3	59,372	22,628	151,555	46,249	9.7	
June	48,840	0.2	45,793	12,288	106,921	*	*	
July	38,379	0.2	29,692	5,834	73,905	*	*	
Aug.	*	*	*	*	—	49,954	10.4	
Sept.	*	*	*	*	—	*	*	
Oct.	*	*	*	*	—	*	*	
Nov.	*	*	*	*	126,000	45,319	9.5	
Dec.	*	*	*	*	128,000	*	*	
1940: Jan.	*	*	*	*	—	*	*	
Feb.	*	*	*	*	—	38,830 †	8.1	
March	*	*	*	*	—	*	*	
April	*	*	*	*	—	*	*	
Persons covered (thousands)	22,090		*	*	*	479		

Date	BELGIUM		CANADA			CHILE	
	Voluntary unempl. insurance stat.		Estimates		Employment exchange statistics	Employment exchange statistics	
	Unemployed (daily average during the month)	Days of unemployment	Unemployed				Applicants for work registered
		Per cent. <sup>a</sup>	Number	Per cent.			
1929	13,000 <sup>s</sup>	1.9	107,000	4.2	14,996	*	
1930	36,000 <sup>s</sup>	5.4	341,000	12.8	33,008	*	
1931	110,000 <sup>s</sup>	14.5	442,000	17.4	69,719	29,345	
1932	211,000 <sup>s</sup>	23.5	639,000	26.0	75,140	107,296	
1933	210,000 <sup>s</sup>	20.5	646,000	26.5	81,809	71,805	
1934	235,000 <sup>s</sup>	23.4	521,000	20.6	88,888	30,055	
1935	210,927	21.7	483,000	19.0	84,050	10,674	
1936	154,038	16.2	430,000	16.7	90,133	6,474	
1937	125,929	13.1	337,000	12.5	88,516	3,215	
1938	173,913	17.6	407,000	15.1	105,236	4,578	
1939	195,211	18.8	386,000	14.1	103,739	—	
1939: April	181,039	17.6	473,000	17.8	116,077	8,538	
May	186,993	17.9	395,000	14.5	107,738	8,886	
June	175,250	16.8	369,000	13.4	103,759	9,342	
July	173,732	16.5	352,000	12.7	99,842	9,260	
Aug.	176,033	17.0	332,000	11.9	92,612	9,757	
Sept.	222,884	21.0	300,000 <sup>r</sup>	10.7	93,623	10,245	
Oct.	194,209	18.7	283,000	10.0	95,255	11,198	
Nov.	203,143	19.8	296,000	10.5	103,207	9,652	
Dec.	213,632	20.6	364,000	13.2	95,785	—	
1940: Jan.	241,336	23.0	377,000	13.8	112,062	7,662	
Feb.	213,616	20.5	387,000	14.1	120,154	7,636	
March	163,598	—	—	—	—	—	
April	—	—	—	—	—	—	
Persons covered (thousands)	1,016		2,757		*	*	

<sup>1</sup> Since 31 July 1933, not including persons employed in labour camps. <sup>2</sup> Since March 1935, including the Saar Territory. <sup>3</sup> Before April 1938, applicants for work registered. <sup>4</sup> Average of 9 months.

<sup>b</sup> Estimates. <sup>c</sup> Percentage of total possible working days of insured workers during the month.

<sup>d</sup> From September 1939 including previously unemployed wage earners, who have enlisted.

636 TABLE I. STATISTICS OF UNEMPLOYMENT IN GENERAL (cont.)

Date	DENMARK		DANZIG (Free City of)	ESTONIA	FINLAND	UNITED STATES				
	Trade union fund returns	Employment exchange statistics	Employment exchange statistics	Employment exchange statistics	Employment exchange statistics	Estimates	Trade union returns	Employment exchange statistics	Applicants for work registered	
										Percentage unemployed
	Number	Per cent.	for work registered	Unem- ployed registered	Applicants for work registered	Unem- ployed registered	N.I.C.B. <sup>1</sup>	A.F.L. <sup>2</sup>	Weighted	
1929	42,817	15.5	44,581	12,905	3,172	3,877	0.9	3.9	8.2	*
1930	39,631	13.7	40,551	18,291	3,089	8,009	7.8	9.7	14.5	*
1931	53,019	17.9	59,430	24,898	3,542	11,495	16.3	17.4	19.1	*
1932	99,508	31.7	126,039	33,244	7,121	17,351	24.9	25.9	23.8	*
1933	97,478	28.8	121,115	31,408	8,284	17,139	25.1	26.4	24.3	*
1934	81,756	22.1	97,595	20,326	2,970	10,011	20.2	22.5	20.9	*
1935	76,195	19.7	92,406	17,983	1,779 <sup>3</sup>	7,163	18.4	20.8	18.5	7,449,841
1936	78,669	19.3	93,261	13,553	1,276	4,796	14.5	18.2	13.3	7,705,270
1937	95,103	21.9	108,634	8,009	1,160	3,695 <sup>4</sup>	12.0	15.8	10.5	5,125,094
1938	97,136	21.4	112,050	3,499	1,243	3,602	18.8	20.7	15.3	7,404,187
1939	88,924	18.4	102,066	1,067 <sup>1</sup>	1,418	3,300	16.7	19.1	10.7	6,246,036
1939: April	80,242	16.9	94,093	654	1,477	3,509	17.7	20.3	11.1	6,547,051
May	55,180	11.5	67,141	524	708	2,985	17.3	19.9	10.8	6,386,827
June	53,341	11.1	64,082	246	582	2,091	16.4	19.0	10.3	6,271,017
July	53,296	11.0	63,688	136	460	2,072	17.2	19.2	10.5	6,100,925
Aug.	46,097	9.5	56,327	*	502	2,299	16.2	18.8	10.1	5,766,073
Sept.	60,805	12.5	71,922	*	758	4,862	15.0	17.6	9.6	5,680,310
Oct.	78,367	16.0	90,537	*	1,515	3,213	14.6	17.1	9.3	5,462,272
Nov.	105,065	21.3	118,091	*	2,601	3,962	15.3	17.4	9.4	5,621,697
Dec.	159,259	32.2	173,728	*	2,393	855	15.1	17.2	9.8	5,729,484
1940: Jan.	149,179	30.1	165,498	*	2,871	—	20.1	19.8	—	6,017,691
Feb.	163,871	32.9	181,304	*	2,570	—	17.2	19.6	—	—
March	152,495	30.6	169,790	*	—	—	—	—	—	—
April	131,263	26.3	147,248	*	—	—	—	—	—	—
Persons covered (thousands)	494	*	*	*	*	54,711	53,713	1,017†	*	*

Date	FRANCE		GREAT BRITAIN AND NORTHERN IRELAND			GREAT BRITAIN	
	Public relief fund statistics	Employment exchange statistics	Unemployment insurance statistics (16-64 years)			Employment exchange statistics	
			Wholly unempl. (incl. casuals)	Un. owing to temporary stoppages	Total	Applicants for work registered	
		Unemployed in receipt of relief				Applications for work	Wholly unempl. (incl. casuals)
Percentages							
1929	928	10,052	8.2	2.2	10.4	950,593	264,911
1930	2,514	13,859	11.8	4.3	16.1	1,399,492	517,823
1931	56,112	75,215	16.7	4.6	21.3	2,049,710	579,851
1932	273,412 *	308,096	17.6	4.5	22.1	2,178,311	566,478
1933	276,033	307,844	16.4	3.5	19.9	2,070,046	450,570
1934	345,033	376,320	13.9	2.8	16.7	1,795,437	363,794
1935	426,931	465,875	13.1	2.4	15.5	1,730,194	306,228
1936	431,897	475,272	11.2	1.9	13.1	1,507,979	246,996
1937	350,333	379,095	9.3	1.5	10.5 <sup>10</sup>	1,283,523	200,876
1938	375,742	408,024	10.0 <sup>10</sup>	2.6 <sup>10</sup>	12.6	1,418,725	371,956
1939	361,930 *	404,604 *	8.8 <sup>7</sup>	1.5	10.3	1,297,801	215,759
1939: April	386,158	425,072	9.6	1.6	11.2	1,405,665	238,729
May	375,522	408,533	8.9	1.3	10.2	1,293,665	198,617
June	348,985	383,479	8.0	1.3	9.3	1,153,954	195,625
July	320,367	351,152	7.4	1.3	8.7	1,066,060	190,364
Aug.	302,479	333,150	7.0	1.5	8.5	1,019,714	211,978
Sept.	316,552	*	7.3	1.5	8.8	1,103,829	227,099
Oct.	*	*	8.3	1.0	9.3	1,284,187	146,451
Nov.	338,415 <sup>7</sup>	380,278 <sup>7</sup>	8.3	0.9	9.2	1,267,355	135,233
Dec.	*	*	8.1	1.0	9.1	1,218,460	143,065
1940: Jan.	*	*	8.5	1.7	10.2	1,269,173	249,723
Feb.	*	*	8.2	2.1	10.3	1,189,028	315,072
March	175,473 *	223,732 *	7.0	0.7	7.7	1,011,833	109,380
April	*	*	—	—	—	—	—
Persons covered (thousands)	*	*	15,032			*	

<sup>1</sup> I-VII. <sup>2</sup> Before January 1935, unemployed registered. <sup>3</sup> National Industrial Conference Board.<sup>4</sup> American Federation of Labor. <sup>5</sup> From July 1932 onwards, including unemployed in receipt of relief from the welfare offices. <sup>6</sup> Average of 10 months. <sup>7</sup> Figure of 18 November. <sup>8</sup> Figure of 9 March.<sup>9</sup> Average of 9 months. <sup>10</sup> Including agriculture.



TABLE I. STATISTICS OF UNEMPLOYMENT IN GENERAL (cont.) 637

Date	HUNGARY	NETHERLANDS INDIES	IRELAND		JAPAN *		LATVIA
	Employment exchange statistics	Employment exchange statistics	Employment exchange statistics		Official estimates		Employment exchange statistics
	Applications for work registered	Applicants for work registered	Applicants for work registered		Unemployed		Applications for work registered
			With claims to unempl. benefit	Total	Number	Per cent.	
1929	15,173	*	14,679	20,702	*	*	5,617
1930	43,592 <sup>1</sup>	*	16,378	22,398	369,408	5.3	4,851
1931	52,305	6,964	17,852	25,230	422,755	6.1	8,709
1932	66,235	10,922	20,217	62,817 <sup>2</sup>	485,681	6.8	14,587
1933	60,595	14,576	19,788	72,472	408,710	5.6	8,156
1934	52,157	15,784	20,558	103,671	372,941	5.0	4,972
1935	52,048	17,418	18,410	119,498	356,044	4.6	4,825
1936	52,114	19,700	16,035	99,272	338,365	4.3	3,851
1937	48,359	19,281	19,112	81,760	295,443	3.7	3,014
1938	47,426	16,814	20,571	88,714	237,371	3.0	2,164
1939	48,348	17,906	21,232	93,074	—	—	2,484
1939: April	53,795	17,817	19,160	104,945	—	—	2,967
May	50,046	16,256	18,265	96,477	—	—	1,254
June	46,876	16,710	17,746	70,470	—	—	727
July	44,846 <sup>3</sup>	17,063	17,280	70,784	—	—	638
Aug.	42,670	17,527	16,953	70,961	—	—	446
Sept.	41,712	18,349	21,774	77,888	—	—	491
Oct.	44,834	19,186	22,929	81,719	—	—	755
Nov.	43,799	18,637	23,706	118,130	—	—	3,502
Dec.	41,811	17,771	26,060	108,180	—	—	6,153
1940: Jan.	46,767	18,011	27,391	118,461	—	—	11,921
Feb.	—	18,583	25,244	117,394	—	—	13,366
March	—	—	25,681	87,689	—	—	14,652
April	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Persons covered (thousands)	*	*	*	*	8,172	*	*

Date	LITHUANIA *	MEXICO	NORWAY		NEW ZEALAND	
	Employment exchange statistics	Official estimates	Trade union fund returns		Employment exchange statistics	
	Unemployed registered	Number unemployed	Unemployed		Un-employed *	
			Number	Per cent.		Unemployed (males) Registered
1929	.	*	5,902	15.4	19,089	2,895
1930	.	75,695*	7,175	16.6	19,353	5,318
1931	.	257,979	*	22.3	27,478	41,431
1932	.	339,378	14,790	30.8	33,831	51,549
1933	.	275,774	16,588	33.4	36,279	46,944
1934	.	234,538	15,963	30.7	36,339	39,235
1935	3,780	191,371	14,783	25.3	36,103	38,234
1936	3,533	186,904	13,267	18.8	32,643	36,890
1937	3,144 <sup>2</sup>	180,128	16,532	20.0	28,520	*
1938	2,618	204,702	19,230	22.0	28,923	4,757 <sup>2</sup>
1939	1,893 <sup>4</sup>	—	16,789	18.3	26,777	6,422 <sup>3</sup>
1939: April	2,217	201,393	18,981	21.1	30,212	4,915
May	1,263	181,331	14,050	15.5	25,037	5,565
June	1,660	168,132	12,108	13.1	20,802	8,465
July	1,112	153,356	10,996	11.8	17,643	8,000
Aug.	1,184	—	11,360	12.1	18,009	8,066
Sept.	1,251	—	12,308	13.1	22,672	6,805
Oct.	1,852	—	14,177	15.0	26,283	6,015
Nov.	2,517	—	15,731	16.6	29,275	4,924
Dec.	2,302	—	20,773	21.9	29,358	5,042
1940: Jan.	—	—	22,712	23.9	29,924	4,200
Feb.	—	—	—	—	29,159	—
March	—	—	—	—	—	—
April	—	—	—	—	—	—
Persons covered (thousands)	*	*	95		*	*

<sup>1</sup> Since January 1930, including non-fee-charging private employment agencies.<sup>2</sup> Series enlarged.<sup>3</sup> The figures relate to the 1st of the following month. <sup>4</sup> From January 1939, excluding the territory of Klaipeda (Memel).<sup>5</sup> Figure for the month of May.<sup>6</sup> The figures relate to the 15th of the month. <sup>7</sup> Excluding persons totally unfit for employment for health or other reasons (approximately 8,000 at the end of 1937).<sup>8</sup> From April 1939, numbers of unemployment benefits current.

Date	NETHERLANDS				POLAND <sup>4</sup>		SWEDEN			
	Voluntary unemployment insurance statistics <sup>1</sup>			Employment exchange statistics	Employment exchange statistics		Trade union returns		Statistics of local unemployment committees	
	Unemployed		Days of unemployment		Wholly unemployed registered	Applications for work registered		Unemployed		
	Number	Per cent.		Per cent. <sup>3</sup>		Number	Per cent.	Number	Per cent.	Applicants for relief registered
1929	24,300	7.1	5.9	*	129,450	4.9	32,621	10.7	10,212	
1930	37,800	9.7	7.8	*	226,659	8.8	42,016	12.2	13,723	
1931	82,800	18.1	14.8	138,231	299,502	12.6	64,315	17.2	46,540	
1932	153,500	29.5	25.3	271,092	255,582	11.8	90,677	22.8	113,907	
1933	163,000	31.0	26.9	322,951	249,660	11.9	97,316	23.7	164,773	
1934	160,400	32.1	28.0	332,772	342,166	16.3	84,685	18.9	114,802	
1935	173,700	36.3	31.7	384,691	381,935	16.7 <sup>6</sup>	81,385	16.1	61,581	
1936	169,387	36.3	32.7	414,512	367,327	15.6	71,884	13.0	35,601	
1937	137,674	29.2	26.9	368,909	375,088	14.6	67,351	11.6	18,213	
1938	134,304	27.2	25.0	353,646	347,509	12.7	74,582	11.8	14,927	
1939	112,595	21.8	19.9	253,261 <sup>8</sup>	414,584 <sup>8</sup>	14.1 <sup>8</sup>	71,467 <sup>7</sup>	10.0 <sup>7</sup>	15,360	
1939: April	115,299	22.4	20.5	240,001	380,525	12.8	72,542	10.3	22,790	
May	103,598	20.0	18.5	212,661	293,999	9.9	52,323	7.4	15,310	
June	98,247	18.9	17.5	196,166	241,464	8.1	46,516	6.6	9,917	
July	97,873	18.8	17.2	192,344	*	*	41,193	5.8	6,634	
Aug.	95,790	18.4	16.8	191,308	*	*	42,529	6.0	6,071	
Sept.	96,964	18.6	16.7	203,823	*	*	52,180	7.2	7,063	
Oct.	97,226	18.6	16.8	198,395	*	*	64,507	8.9	9,846	
Nov.	98,221	18.7	17.0	211,634	*	*	81,374	11.2	13,495	
Dec.	119,951	22.8	20.9	270,811	*	*	115,213	15.9	13,268	
1940: Jan.	154,993	29.3	27.5	297,874	*	*	104,044	14.2	13,945	
Feb.	149,220†	28.7†	27.5†	274,068	*	*	105,576†	14.5†	13,838	
March	100,826†	19.3†	19.9†	—	*	*	—	—	—	
April	—	—	—	—	*	*	—	—	—	
Persons covered (thousands)	527			*	2,978		725		250 † <sup>8</sup>	

Date	ROMANIA <sup>9</sup>	SWITZERLAND			CZECHO-SLOVAKIA <sup>10</sup>			YUGOSLAVIA
	Employment exchange statistics	Unemployment insurance statistics		Employment exchange statistics	Trade union fund returns	Employment exchange statistics		Employment exchange statistics
	Unemployed registered	Percentage unemployed		Applications for work registered	Unemployed in receipt of benefit		Applicants for work registered	Unemployed registered
		Wholly	Partially		Number	Per cent.		
1929	7,449	1.8	1.7	8,131	23,763	2.2	41,630	8,370
1930	23,367	3.4	7.2	12,881	51,371	4.5	105,442	8,198
1931	35,737	5.9	12.1	24,208	102,179	8.3	291,332	9,930
1932	38,958	9.1	12.2	54,366	184,555	13.5	554,059	14,761
1933	29,060	10.8	8.5	67,867	247,613	16.9	738,267	15,997
1934	17,253	9.8	6.1	65,440	245,953	17.4	676,994	15,647
1935	13,778	11.8	5.9	82,468	235,623	15.9	686,269	16,752
1936	13,549	13.2	5.3	93,009	208,096	13.1	622,687	19,436
1937	10,851	10.0	2.5	71,130	151,167	8.8	408,949	21,650
1938	7,271	8.6	4.5	65,583	161,391 <sup>11</sup>	9.1 <sup>11</sup>	335,518 <sup>11</sup>	22,517
1939	5,989	6.5	2.9	40,324	*	*	44,080 <sup>12</sup>	24,223
1939: April	5,716	6.4	3.0	37,123	*	*	56,901	27,965
May	4,091	5.1	2.8	35,285	*	*	26,488	21,751
June	4,017	4.4	2.7	27,977	*	*	17,272	19,788
July	4,532	4.2	2.4	29,105	*	*	10,924	17,509
Aug.	4,358	4.2	2.1	27,939	*	*	9,077	15,952
Sept.	4,280	4.2	2.7	25,275	*	*	9,686	17,027
Oct.	4,694	4.2	2.5	23,823	*	*	*	21,505
Nov.	5,278	4.3	2.2	23,670	*	*	13,726	22,318
Dec.	7,258	6.1	2.2	29,535	*	*	14,792	23,822
1940: Jan.	9,297	6.7	2.1	41,080	*	*	*	36,896
Feb.	—	5.7	2.0	28,320	*	*	*	44,844
March	—	3.2	1.7	13,447	*	*	*	43,109
April	—	—	—	9,582	*	*	*	*
Persons covered (thousands)	*	521		*	1,782†		*	*

<sup>1</sup> Excluding agriculture. <sup>2</sup> Percentage of total possible working days of insured workers during the month. <sup>3</sup> From April 1939, excluding persons employed on special relief works. <sup>4</sup> Since January 1939, including the territory of Silesia beyond the Olza. <sup>5</sup> I-VI. <sup>6</sup> Since 1935, percentage based on the number of persons covered by compulsory social insurance schemes. <sup>7</sup> From January 1939, including agricultural workers. <sup>8</sup> Number of relief funds (units). <sup>9</sup> The figures relate to the 1st of the following month. <sup>10</sup> Since Jan. 1939: Bohemia-Moravia. <sup>11</sup> I-VIII. <sup>12</sup> Average for 11 months.

*Indexes of numbers employed*  
(1929 = 100<sup>1</sup>)

Date	GERMANY <sup>a</sup>	CANADA	UNITED STATES			FRANCE	GREAT BRITAIN		HUNGARY	JAPAN
	Sickness insur. statistics	Statist. of establ. (A)	B.L.S.	N.I.C.B.	A.F.L.	Statist. of establ. (A)	Compulsory unempl. ins. stat.		Sickness insur. statist.	B.S.A.
	A.M.I.T.C. <sup>c</sup>	M.I.T.C. <sup>c</sup>	Estimate			M.I.T. <sup>c</sup>	M.I.T. <sup>c</sup>	M.I.T. <sup>c</sup>	M.I.T.C. <sup>c</sup>	Estimate
	Wage earners, sal. empl.	Wage earners, sal. empl.	Wage earn., salar. empl.	Wage earn., salar. empl.	Wage earn., salar. empl.	Wage earners, salaried empl.	Wage earn., salar. empl.	Wage earn., salar. empl.	Wage earn., salar. empl.	Wage earners
1929	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	*	100.0	*	100.0	100.0
1930	93.3	95.3	91.4	94.3	95.2	100.0	95.8	*	94.3	97.8
1931	81.5	86.1	79.9	86.7	88.1	92.5	92.2	*	89.2	96.9
1932	71.1	73.5	68.6	78.7	79.8	80.9	91.4	*	82.0	97.7
1933	74.0	70.1	69.6	79.5	80.0	79.4	94.7	*	81.2	103.1
1934	85.5	80.7	77.8	85.6	85.0 <sup>†</sup>	76.9	99.2	*	86.9	115.5
1935	90.6 <sup>a</sup>	83.5	81.1	88.4	87.8	73.5	101.5	*	91.2	121.6
1936	97.2	87.1	87.1	93.4	91.7	74.1	106.7	*	97.7	123.8
1937	104.3	95.9	92.8	97.3	95.3	78.6	112.3	*	104.0	131.2
1938	110.9	93.9	83.2	91.0	90.8	81.2	111.1	100.0 <sup>a</sup>	110.6	135.9 <sup>†</sup>
1939	116.5 <sup>a</sup>	95.7	—	94.6	93.6	83.4 <sup>a</sup>	114.2 <sup>b</sup>	102.7 <sup>b</sup>	118.8	—
1939: April	117.6	89.2	—	93.2	92.0 <sup>†</sup>	83.8	114.1	102.2	118.0	*
May	119.9	95.0	—	93.7	92.6	83.4	115.7	103.5	121.9	*
June	120.9	97.3	—	94.8	93.7	83.5	117.1	104.7	116.3	*
July	121.7	98.7	—	94.0	93.5 <sup>†</sup>	81.8	118.1	105.6	118.9	*
Aug.	*	100.5	—	95.2	94.0 <sup>†</sup>	*	118.0 <sup>†</sup>	105.6 <sup>†</sup>	121.9	*
Sept.	*	102.3	—	96.7	95.5	*	*	*	121.1	*
Oct.	*	103.9	—	97.3	96.2	*	*	*	124.6	*
Nov.	*	103.1	—	96.6	95.9	*	*	*	126.8	*
Dec.	*	97.6	—	96.9	96.3	*	*	*	117.3	*
1940: Jan.	*	96.1	—	95.1	93.3	*	*	*	—	*
Feb.	*	95.4	—	94.7	93.6	*	*	*	—	*
March	*	94.0	—	—	—	*	*	*	—	*
April	*	—	—	—	—	*	*	*	—	*
Persons covered (thousands)	21,414	1,136	20,250	46,454	44,465	2,403	12,110	12,940	1,233	6,600 <sup>†</sup>

Date	LATVIA	LUXEM-BURGO	NORWAY	NETHERLANDS	CZECHO-SLOVAKIA <sup>a</sup>	UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA		U.S.S.R.	YUGO-SLAVIA
	Sickness insur. statist.	Statist. of establ. (A)	Statist. of establ. (B)	Accident unempl. insur. statist. <sup>a</sup>	Sickness insur. statist.	Statist. of establ. (A/B)		Statist. of establ. (A)	Sickness and accident insur. statist.
	I.T.C. <sup>c</sup>	M.I.T.	M.I.T.C. <sup>c</sup>	M.I.T.C. <sup>c</sup>	A.I.T. <sup>c</sup>	Europeans   Total		A.M.I.T.C. <sup>c</sup>	I.T. <sup>c</sup>
	Wage earners, sal. empl.	Wage earners	Wage earners, salaried empl.	Wage earners, sal. empl.	Wage earners	Wage earners, salaried empl.		Wage earners, sal. empl.	Wage earners, sal. empl.
1929	100.0	100.0	*	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1930	104.9	98.1	*	102.2	97.6	98.4	99.3	119.4	104.3
1931	97.5	84.1	*	96.0	92.3	96.0	95.2	156.1	100.7
1932	82.5	67.6	*	85.3	82.6	91.9	88.7	188.6	88.6
1933	87.8	64.8	*	85.0	75.4	98.0	94.9	183.5	86.1
1934	95.1	65.5	*	86.6	75.0	111.0	108.1	194.6	89.8
1935	100.8	66.8	100 <sup>†</sup>	84.2	76.6	123.2	122.1	203.1	93.3
1936	107.1	68.8	101	85.1	82.4	134.2	134.9	211.8 <sup>†</sup>	101.8
1937	116.3	74.9	107	91.5	90.0	143.6	143.1	221.8 <sup>†</sup>	112.4
1938	123.6	76.2	108	95.4	91.0 <sup>a</sup>	146.2	148.1	228.5 <sup>†</sup>	118.2
1939	*	74.3	114	102.6 <sup>a</sup>	54.9 <sup>b</sup>	148.1	148.9	—	119.2
1939: April	*	75.6	*	102.7	49.4	147.8	150.3	*	117.8
May	*	76.3	*	106.3	53.5	148.2	150.4	*	123.3
June	*	76.8	114	106.3	55.0	148.0	149.9	*	124.2
July	*	76.4	*	106.2	55.1	148.1	149.4	*	123.4
Aug.	*	75.5	*	106.6	50.6	148.2	149.0	*	126.9
Sept.	*	72.2	119	*	*	148.3	148.9	*	120.9
Oct.	*	71.0	*	*	*	148.6	148.4	*	119.5
Nov.	*	70.8	*	*	*	149.1	147.5	*	121.5
Dec.	*	69.9	118	*	*	149.2	147.8	*	116.9
1940: Jan.	*	—	*	*	*	148.5	147.9	*	—
Feb.	*	—	*	*	*	—	—	*	—
March	*	—	*	*	*	—	—	*	—
April	*	—	—	*	*	—	—	*	—
Persons covered (thousands)	212	31	207	1,326/527	1,393	—/180	—/713	27,800 <sup>†</sup>	707

Abbreviations: A = Agriculture; M = Mines; I = Industries; T = Transport; C = Commerce and services; B.L.S. = Bureau of Labor Statistics; N.I.C.B. = National Industrial Conference Board; A.F.L. = American Federation of Labor; B.S.A. = Bureau of Social Affairs.

(A), (B), (A/B): See *International Labour Review*, Oct. 1939, p. 537, par. 3 (types of establishment statistics).

<sup>1</sup> Except for series in italics. <sup>2</sup> Old territory. <sup>3</sup> Since November 1935 including the Saar territory. <sup>4</sup> I-VII. <sup>5</sup> I-VIII. <sup>6</sup> 18 July 1938 = 100. <sup>7</sup> September 1935 = 100. <sup>8</sup> Until 1938, insurance-accident statistics; from 1939, extrapolation with reference to unemployment-insurance statistics. <sup>9</sup> Since January 1939: Bohemia-Moravia.

(a) *Indexes of numbers employed*  
(1929 = 100<sup>1</sup>)

Date	GERMANY *		AUSTRALIA	CANADA	DENMARK	ESTONIA	UNITED STATES	FINLAND	FRANCE
	Statistics of establishments (B)		Statist. of establ. (A/B)	Statist. of establ. (A)	Statist. of establ. (A)	Statist. of establ. (A)	Statist. of establ. (A/B)	Statist. of establ. (B)	Statist. of establ. (A)
	Wage earners *	Salar. empl. *	Wage earn., sal. empl. *	Wage earn., sal. empl. *	Wage earners *	Wage earners *	Wage earners *	Wage earners *	Wage earners *
1929	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	*	100.0	100.0	100.0	*
1930	87.0	94.7	93.0	93.1	*	95.9	87.2	87.0	100
1931	72.0	83.6	74.6	81.4	100.0	88.5	73.7	77.5	91.6
1932	59.5	69.6	74.1	72.1	91.7	81.9	62.5	77.6	79.0
1933	65.9	68.4	81.8	69.1	102.9	82.9	69.2	83.1	73.0
1934	83.5	76.3	89.7	77.0	116.0	96.4	80.8	93.2	76.7
1935	91.9	83.5	99.6	82.9	125.8	108.6	86.1	101.4	72.1
1936	100.5	90.0	109.4	88.3	131.5	125.8	93.4	101.8	73.0
1937	110.8 <sup>4</sup>	97.9	116.3	97.7	138.1	144.5	102.5	108.8	77.5
1938	117.4	105.4	124.3	94.8	—	146.8	84.6	109.0	80.7
1939	122.9 <sup>6</sup>	112.3 <sup>6</sup>	122.6	95.9	—	150.1	91.3	102.7	81.3 <sup>6</sup>
1939: April	123.6	112.8	123.2	92.6	—	152.0	88.8	103.4	81.3
May	124.6	113.8	122.5	95.1	—	162.0	87.7	*	81.5
June	125.1	114.9	121.0	95.0	—	161.0	88.1	*	*
July	125.1	115.1	119.5	96.3	—	155.6	88.2	108.9	*
Aug.	*	*	120.2	98.5	—	151.7	90.8	*	*
Sept.	*	*	121.2	102.2	—	144.1	94.5	*	*
Oct.	*	*	124.5	104.3	—	143.7	97.7	95.0	*
Nov.	*	*	126.4	104.4	—	143.8	97.9	*	*
Dec.	*	*	126.5 <sup>†</sup>	100.9	—	137.6	98.2	*	*
1940: Jan.	*	*	—	102.9	—	139.1	95.8	—	*
Feb.	*	*	—	104.7	—	—	—	*	*
March	*	*	—	—	—	—	—	*	*
April	*	*	—	—	—	—	—	—	*
Persons covered (thousands)	3,500 <sup>†</sup>	*	450/225 <sup>†</sup>	607	166	43	8,569/4,238 <sup>†</sup>	63 <sup>†</sup>	1,850

Date	GREAT BRITAIN and N. IRELAND	HUNGARY	ITALY		JAPAN		LATVIA	NORWAY	NEW ZEALAND
	Compulsory unempl. insur. statist.	Sickness insur. statist.	Statist. of establ. (B)	Statist. of establ. (A/B)	Statist. of establ. (A/B)	Statist. of establ. (B)	Sickness insur. statist.	Statist. of establ. (A/B)	Statist. of establ. (A)
	Wage earn., sal. empl. *	Wage earners	M.C.	F.C.I.	M.C.I.	B.J.	Wage earn., sal. empl. *	Wage earners *	Wage earn., sal. empl. *
1929	100.0	100.0	*	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1930	92.5	91.3	*	97.3	86.1	90.0	107.5	100.4	94.0
1931	84.5	82.9	*	88.8	84.3	81.7	98.3	79.9	83.1
1932	84.7	73.0	*	78.5	87.7	82.0	82.6	91.8	83.1
1933	89.8	73.6	*	79.2	95.9	89.9	93.4	93.2	88.0
1934	94.5	79.9	100.0	82.9	109.2	100.2	108.4	98.4	95.2
1935	96.0	85.9	117.1	94.0	115.6	109.7	117.7	106.2	104.8
1936	102.2	94.7	121.6	94.9	126.3	115.8	123.7	115.7	115.7
1937	110.2	104.0	135.6	104.5	142.9	128.8	135.1	124.9	122.9
1938	104.1	112.3	141.0	110.7	157.3 <sup>10</sup>	141.8	144.0	121.5 <sup>10</sup>	—
1939	113.0	123.9	144.9 <sup>9</sup>	113.3 <sup>9</sup>	171.1 <sup>11</sup>	154.3 <sup>11</sup>	140.6	125.7	—
1939: April	*	117.8	144.9	112.0	174.0	156.9	142.8	*	*
May	*	125.4	145.4	123.3	174.7	157.5	145.9	*	*
June	113.0	125.3	145.0	124.2	175.3	158.0	146.3	129.0	*
July	*	123.0	*	*	175.0	157.8	145.2	*	*
Aug.	*	128.1	*	*	175.3	158.0	145.4	*	*
Sept.	*	128.6	*	*	*	*	141.1	127.8	*
Oct.	*	130.4	*	*	*	*	141.7	*	*
Nov.	*	134.3	*	*	*	*	137.4	*	*
Dec.	*	128.6	*	*	*	*	130.3	130.3	*
1940: Jan.	*	—	*	*	*	*	128.5	*	*
Feb.	*	—	*	*	*	*	127.1	*	*
March	*	—	*	*	*	*	—	—	*
April	*	—	*	*	*	*	—	*	*
Persons covered (thousands)	6,152	789	1,167	3,037/1,522	2,995/1,510 <sup>†</sup>	1,510 <sup>†</sup>	100	144/102	102

Abbreviations: M.C. = Ministry of Corporations; F.C.I. = Fascist Confederation of Industry; M.C.I. = Ministry of Commerce and Industry; B.J. = Bank of Japan.

(A), (B), (A/B): see *International Labour Review*, Oct. 1939, p. 537, par. 3 (types of establishment statistics).

<sup>1</sup> Except for series in italics. <sup>2</sup> Old territory. <sup>3</sup> Including mines. <sup>4</sup> Since 1937, including the Saar territory. <sup>5</sup> Excluding building. <sup>6</sup> I-VII. <sup>7</sup> Including part of transport, but excluding a large part of building. <sup>8</sup> I-V. <sup>9</sup> I-VI. <sup>10</sup> Statistics of type B, linked up with statistics of type A of the preceding period. <sup>11</sup> I-VIII.

TABLE III. STATISTICS OF INDUSTRIAL EMPLOYMENT (continued) 641

(a) *Indexes of numbers employed* (continued)  
(1929 = 100<sup>1</sup>)

Date	NETHER- LANDS	POLAND <sup>2</sup>	RUMANIA	SWEDEN	SWITZERLAND		UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA	U.S.S.R.	YUGO- SLAVIA
	Accident unempl. insurance statist. <sup>3</sup>	Statist. of establ. (A)	Statist. of establ. (A)	Statist. of establ. (B)	Statist. of establ. (A)	Statist. of establ. (B)	Statist. of establ. (A/B)	Statist. of establ. (A)	Sickness and accident insur. statist.
	Wage earn., sal. empl.	Wage earners	Wage earn., sal. empl. <sup>4</sup>	Wage earners <sup>4</sup>	Wage earners <sup>4</sup>	Wage earners	Wage earn., sal. empl. <sup>4</sup>	Wage earn., sal. empl. <sup>4</sup>	Wage earn., sal. empl.
1929	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	*
1930	101.6	84.5	86.6	99.8	95.8	96.5	98.6	135.4	*
1931	92.9	71.3	75.6	91.3	88.7	88.3	97.7	183.4	*
1932	80.2	62.3	75.6	86.0	78.8	75.9	94.2	216.0	*
1933	80.9	65.0	92.0	85.0	76.9	73.3	108.0	195.5	100.0
1934	83.3	72.0	103.5	91.6	78.1	73.7	130.1	208.2	106.8
1935	80.2	77.1	114.9	96.9	76.0	70.4	146.2	211.9	111.4
1936	80.6	83.4	129.9	102.1	76.4	70.2	160.3	224.1†	124.6
1937	88.4	94.1	138.8	109.1	88.0	78.1	170.8	—	141.5
1938	92.7	101.6	143.9	110.0	86.3	77.9	167.1	—	150.7
1939	99.8 <sup>5</sup>	102.0 <sup>7</sup>	—	—	—	76.8	164.6	—	—
1939: April	101.7	104.8	*	*	*	*	*	*	148.8
May	105.1	106.7	*	*	*	*	*	*	159.2
June	105.1	108.3	*	*	*	82.1	*	*	160.2
July	105.1	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	177.4
Aug.	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	164.4
Sept.	*	*	*	*	*	67.1	*	*	165.9
Oct.	*	*	*	100.0 <sup>6</sup>	*	*	*	*	152.2
Nov.	*	*	*	100.3	*	*	*	*	—
Dec.	*	*	*	94.2	*	79.4	*	*	—
1940: Jan.	*	*	*	94.2	*	*	*	*	—
Feb.	*	*	*	94.2	*	*	*	*	—
March	*	*	*	—	*	80.3	*	*	—
April	*	*	*	—	*	*	*	*	—
Persons covered (thousands)	820/388	688	289	385/262	353	225	—/57	10.225†	457

(b) *Indexes of total hours worked*  
(1929 = 100<sup>1</sup>)

Date	GER- MANY <sup>10</sup>	DEN- MARK	ESTO- NIA	UNITED STATES	FIN- LAND	FRANCE	HUNGARY	ITALY	JAPAN	NOR- WAY	POLAND	SWE- DEN
	Statist. of establ. (B)	Statist. of establ. (B)	Statist. of establ. (A)	Statist. of establ. (A/B)	Statist. of establ. (B)	Statist. of establ. (A)	Sickness ins. stat. of establ. (A) <sup>15</sup>	Statist. of establ. (A/B)	Statist. of establ. (A/B) <sup>15</sup>	Statist. of establ. (A/B)	Statist. of establ. (A)	Statist. of establ. (B)
	Wage earners <sup>3</sup>	Wage earners <sup>4</sup>	Wage earners <sup>4</sup>	Wage earners <sup>4</sup>	Wage earners <sup>4</sup>	Wage earners <sup>13</sup>	Wage earners <sup>4</sup>	Wage earners	Wage earners <sup>4</sup>	Wage earners <sup>4</sup>	Wage earners	Wage earners <sup>4</sup>
1929	100.0	*	100.0	100.0	100.0	*	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1930	83.5	*	94.7	82.8	81.9	100	89.7	94.2	*	99.6	82.9	98.6
1931	66.4	100.0	84.4	68.0	71.1	89.1	79.8	83.5	*	79.9	69.3	85.8
1932	53.8	91.6	75.6	53.7	71.9	71.9	69.4	72.4	85.9	90.6	56.9	77.8
1933	61.5	102.4	77.9	58.0	77.6	73.6	70.5	75.5	97.1	90.3	58.3	78.4
1934	80.6	113.5	95.0	62.8	88.0	70.5	78.2	77.8	109.2	96.9	67.1	89.5
1935	88.4	123.2	105.4	69.7	97.6	66.8	84.5	81.0	115.8	104.9	72.6	96.2
1936	99.4	128.9	120.0	79.8	98.2	69.5	91.2	81.0	126.6	115.1	77.9	102.2
1937	110.8 <sup>11</sup>	134.6	139.6	84.7	105.5	64.9	99.6	91.7	144.0	119.4 <sup>16</sup>	89.8	109.8
1938	118.8	133.8	141.4	63.8	103.4	65.0	105.1†	95.5	159.0 <sup>18</sup>	117.3	97.8	107.7
1939	124.1 <sup>1</sup>	141.0†	143.8	—	95.7	68.0 <sup>14</sup>	—	97.7 <sup>7</sup>	173.2 <sup>17</sup>	124.3	97.7 <sup>7</sup>	—
1939: April	127.0	137.1 <sup>12</sup>	130.4	—	97.6	68.6	*	92.9	177.0	*	101.3	*
May	129.0	144.4	152.8	—	*	69.1	*	109.8	177.1	*	101.1	*
June	126.4	146.9	144.4	—	*	*	*	110.1	177.8	126.1	102.9	100.2 <sup>19</sup>
July	122.2	144.7	150.1	—	101.0	*	*	*	176.8	*	*	*
Aug.	*	148.4	158.8	—	*	*	*	*	176.9	*	*	*
Sept.	*	148.8	148.3	—	*	*	*	*	*	126.1	*	101.7
Oct.	*	147.5	141.9	—	85.6	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Nov.	*	146.3	146.7	—	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Dec.	*	142.7	123.0	—	*	*	*	*	*	133.2	*	*
1940: Jan.	*	131.8	133.4	—	—	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Feb.	*	127.7	—	—	—	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
March	*	127.8	—	—	—	*	*	*	*	—	*	*
April	*	*	—	—	—	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Persons covered (thousands)	3,500†	90†	43	8,569/ 4,238†	63†	1,850	789/275	3,037/ 1,522	2,995/ 1,510†	176/102	688	385/309

<sup>1</sup> Except for series in italics. <sup>2</sup> See table II, footnote <sup>5</sup>. <sup>3</sup> I-VII. <sup>4</sup> Excluding building. <sup>5</sup> Including mines. <sup>6</sup> Since January 1939, including the territory of Silesia beyond the Olza. <sup>7</sup> I-VI. <sup>8</sup> New statistics, base October 1938=100. <sup>9</sup> Factories as defined by Factory Act. <sup>10</sup> Old territory. <sup>11</sup> Since 1937, including the Saar territory. <sup>12</sup> Monthly figures are of a smaller scope than the annual figures. <sup>13</sup> Including part of transport, but excluding a large part of building. <sup>14</sup> I-V. <sup>15</sup> Calculated by the I.L.O. by multiplying index of numbers employed by an index of hours worked per worker. <sup>16</sup> See table III (a), footnote <sup>10</sup>. <sup>17</sup> I-VIII. <sup>18</sup> New statistics, December 1938=100.

(a) *Hours actually worked per worker*

Date	GER- MANY <sup>2</sup>	ESTONIA	UNITED STATES		FIN- LAND	FRANCE	HUN- GARY	ITALY	
	Per week <sup>3</sup>	Per day <sup>4</sup>	B.L.S. <sup>5</sup>	N.I.C.B. <sup>6</sup>	Per fortnight	Per week <sup>7</sup>	Per day	M.C. <sup>8</sup>	C.F.I. <sup>10</sup>
			Per week					Per week <sup>9</sup>	Per month
Number of hours									
1929	46.02	8.18	*	48.3	93.0	*	8.97	(46.7-48.3)	182
1930	44.22	8.16	*	43.9	90.8	48.0	8.82	(44.5-47.7)	175
1931	42.48	8.05	*	40.4	88.5	46.7	8.64	(43.9-47.5)	170
1932	41.46	7.86	38.2	34.8	90.9	43.7	8.53	(43.0-47.2)	168
1933	42.96	7.88	37.8	36.4	92.8	45.3	8.59	(44.4-47.5)	174
1934	44.58	7.91	34.5	34.7	94.0	44.7	8.78	(42.7-47.1)	172
1935	44.46	7.97	36.5	37.2	93.4	44.5	8.83	(39.6-42.9) <sup>11</sup>	159
1936	45.54	8.00	39.1	39.5 <sup>†</sup>	93.2	45.7	8.64	(39.4-42.7)	157
1937	46.08	8.03	38.6	38.7 <sup>†</sup>	95.1	40.2	8.59	(41.0-43.5)	163
1938	46.50	8.15	35.5	34.3 <sup>†</sup>	93.0	38.7	8.40 <sup>†</sup>	(39.8-42.8)	159
1939	46.58 <sup>*</sup>	8.10	37.6	37.6	91.5	40.8 <sup>†</sup>	—	(40.3-43.1) <sup>11</sup>	157 <sup>12</sup>
1939 : April	47.34	8.13	36.6	36.7 <sup>†</sup>	*	40.7	*	(40.4-43.2)	153
May	47.94	8.13	36.8	36.5	*	40.9	*	(40.7-43.4)	*
June	46.79	8.27	37.3	37.2	*	41.4	*	(40.7-43.4)	*
July	45.18 <sup>†</sup>	8.29	36.7	37.1	*	*	*	*	*
Aug.	*	8.29	38.0	37.9	*	*	*	*	*
Sept.	*	8.19	38.0	38.2	*	*	*	*	*
Oct.	*	8.12	39.1	39.0	*	*	*	*	*
Nov.	*	8.09	38.5 <sup>†</sup>	39.1	*	*	*	*	*
Dec.	*	8.03	38.6	39.1	*	*	*	*	*
1940 : Jan.	*	8.04	37.4	38.7	*	*	*	*	*
Feb.	*	8.02	—	38.0	*	*	*	*	*
March	*	—	—	—	*	*	*	*	*
Index numbers : 1929 = 100									
1929	100	100	*	100	100	*	100	100	100
1930	96.1	99.8	*	90.9	97.6	100	98.3	97.1	96.2
1931	92.3	98.4	*	83.6	95.2	97.3	96.3	96.2	93.4
1932	90.1	96.1	100	72.0	97.7	91.0	95.1	94.9	92.3
1933	93.4	96.3	99.0	75.4	99.8	94.4	95.8	96.8	95.6
1934	96.9	96.7	90.3	71.8	101.1	93.1	97.9	94.5	94.5
1935	96.6	97.4	95.5	77.0	100.4	92.7	98.4	86.9 <sup>11</sup>	87.4
1936	99.0	97.8	102.4	81.8 <sup>†</sup>	100.2	95.2	96.3	86.5	86.3
1937	100.1	98.2	101.0	80.1 <sup>†</sup>	102.3	93.8	95.8	89.1	89.6
1938	101.0	99.6	92.9	71.0 <sup>†</sup>	100.0	80.6	93.6 <sup>†</sup>	86.9	87.4
1939	101.2 <sup>*</sup>	99.0	98.3	77.8	98.4	85.0 <sup>†</sup>	—	87.8 <sup>11</sup>	86.1 <sup>12</sup>
1939 : April	102.9	99.4	95.8	76.0 <sup>†</sup>	*	84.8	*	88.0	84.1
May	104.2	99.4	96.3	75.6	*	85.2	*	88.6	*
June	101.7	101.1	97.6	77.0	*	86.3	*	88.6	*
July	101.2 <sup>*</sup>	101.3	96.1	76.8	*	*	*	*	*
Aug.	*	101.3	99.5	78.5	*	*	*	*	*
Sept.	*	100.1	99.5	79.1	*	*	*	*	*
Oct.	*	99.3	102.4	80.7	*	*	*	*	*
Nov.	*	98.9	100.8 <sup>†</sup>	81.0	*	*	*	*	*
Dec.	*	98.2	101.0	81.0	*	*	*	*	*
1940 : Jan.	*	98.3	97.9	80.1	*	*	*	*	*
Feb.	*	98.0	—	78.7	*	*	*	*	*
March	*	—	—	—	*	*	*	*	*
Persons covered (000's)	3,500 <sup>†</sup>	40	3,936	*	*	1,810	275 <sup>†</sup>	1,156	1,485

<sup>1</sup> Excluding building: in Germany (up to 1936), United States, Finland, France (partly), Hungary and Italy (Ministry of Corporations series); including mines in Germany (from 1939). <sup>2</sup> Territory before 1938. <sup>3</sup> Average hours slightly lowered by absence for sickness, holidays, etc.; 1939: average from January to July. <sup>4</sup> Annual figures: up to 1937, averages of two half-yearly figures; 1938: average for April-December. <sup>5</sup> Bureau of Labor Statistics.

<sup>6</sup> National Industrial Conference Board; monthly figures: first week of the month. <sup>7</sup> Monthly figures: 1st of the following month; 1939: average from January to July. <sup>8</sup> Ministry of Corporations.

<sup>9</sup> Monthly figures: last week of the month. <sup>10</sup> I.L.O. estimates from percentages of table IV (b). <sup>11</sup> In 1935: average for May-December; 1939: average from January to June. <sup>12</sup> Fascist Confederation of Employers.

<sup>13</sup> 1939: average from January to April.

TABLE IV. STATISTICS OF HOURS OF WORK IN INDUSTRY <sup>1</sup> 643(a) *Hours actually worked per worker (concl.)*

Date	JAPAN <sup>2</sup>	LATVIA	NORWAY	NETHER- LANDS	POLAND	SWEDEN	SWITZERLAND
	Per day	Per week	Per week	Per week <sup>7</sup>	Per week <sup>8</sup>	Per week <sup>9</sup>	Per week
Number of hours							
1929	(9.83) <sup>8</sup>	*	*	*	44.8	(47.7) <sup>10</sup>	(47.8-48.2) <sup>11</sup>
1930	*	*	*	*	43.9	*	*
1931	*	*	*	*	43.3	*	*
1932	9.63 <sup>4</sup>	(41.1-45.1) <sup>6</sup>	*	*	41.4	*	*
1933	9.95 <sup>4</sup>	(43.9-45.5)	*	*	41.5	46.0	(45.3-46.5) <sup>12</sup>
1934	9.83 <sup>4</sup>	(44.4-45.9)	*	*	42.2	47.0	(45.7-46.9) <sup>12</sup>
1935	9.85 <sup>4</sup>	(43.6-46.1)	*	46.9	42.6	47.4	*
1936	9.85 <sup>4</sup>	(43.8-46.2)	45.5	46.7	42.7	47.6	*
1937	9.91 <sup>4</sup>	(44.8-46.4)	44.9	47.1	43.3	47.2	(46.4-47.0) <sup>11</sup>
1938	9.94 <sup>4</sup>	(44.7-46.5)	44.1	46.8	43.7	46.3	(45.8-46.9)
1939	—	(44.0-46.3)	45.2	—	43.7 <sup>13</sup>	—	(46.8-47.7)
1939: April	9.58	(44.5-46.5)	*	*	43.8	*	*
May	9.35	(44.5-46.5)	*	*	43.2	*	*
June	9.77	(45.1-46.7)	45.0	—	43.7	45.2	(47.0-47.8)
July	9.33	(44.9-46.7)	*	*	*	*	*
Aug.	9.30	(44.9-46.7)	*	*	*	*	*
Sept.	9.43	(43.3-46.0)	45.2	*	*	—	(46.6-47.5)
Oct.	9.33	(42.4-45.8)	*	*	*	*	*
Nov.	9.40	(42.0-45.7)	*	*	*	*	*
Dec.	—	(42.6-45.9)	46.5	—	*	—	(47.2-48.1)
1940: Jan.	—	(42.8-45.8)	*	*	*	*	*
Feb.	—	(43.2-45.9)	*	*	*	*	*
March	—	(43.5-46.0)†	—	*	*	—	—
Index numbers : 1929 = 100							
1929	100	*	*	*	100	100	100
1930	*	*	*	*	98.0	*	*
1931	*	*	*	*	96.7	*	*
1932	98.0	100 <sup>4</sup>	*	*	92.4	*	*
1933	101.2	102.5	*	*	92.6	96.4	95.6 <sup>12</sup>
1934	100.0	103.7	*	*	94.2	98.5	96.5 <sup>12</sup>
1935	100.2	103.0	*	100	95.1	99.4	*
1936	100.2	103.2	100	99.6	95.3	99.8	*
1937	100.8	104.6	98.7	100.4	96.7	99.0	97.3
1938	101.1	104.6	96.9	99.8	97.5	97.1	96.7
1939	—	103.7	99.3	—	97.5 <sup>13</sup>	—	98.5
1939: April	97.5	104.4	*	*	97.8	*	*
May	95.1	104.4	*	*	96.4	*	*
June	99.4	105.3	98.9	—	97.5	94.8	98.8
July	94.9	105.0	*	*	*	*	*
Aug.	94.6	105.0	*	*	*	*	*
Sept.	95.9	102.5	99.3	*	*	—	98.1
Oct.	94.9	101.1	*	*	*	*	*
Nov.	95.6	100.7	*	*	*	*	*
Dec.	—	101.6	102.3	—	*	—	99.4
1940: Jan.	—	101.6	*	*	*	*	*
Feb.	—	102.3	*	*	*	*	*
March	—	102.8†	—	*	*	—	—
Persons covered (000's)	1,564	39	102†	86	629	351	223

<sup>1</sup> Excluding building: in Japan, Norway, Netherlands (partly), and Sweden; including mines in Sweden. <sup>2</sup> After deduction by I.L.O. of rest periods. <sup>3</sup> I.L.O. estimate, based on Imperial Cabinet Statistics of normal hours. <sup>4</sup> From 1932 to 1938, statistics of the Bank of Japan; from 1939, statistics of the Imperial Cabinet, to which the statistics of the Bank of Japan have been incorporated. <sup>5</sup> I.L.O. estimates from percentage of table IV (b). <sup>6</sup> Average for February-December. <sup>7</sup> Annual figures: averages for the second half-year. <sup>8</sup> Monthly figures: averages of weeks without holidays. <sup>9</sup> Annual figures: November figures; 1938: average for July-December. <sup>10</sup> I.L.O. estimates based on statistics of earnings. <sup>11</sup> I.L.O. estimates based on census of establishments (August 1929 and September 1937). <sup>12</sup> Averages for the second and third quarters. <sup>13</sup> 1939: average from January to June.

(b) *Percentage distribution of workers working a certain range of hours*

Date	ESTONIA			FINLAND			FRANCE			ITALY			
	Per day <sup>a</sup>			Per fortnight			Per week <sup>a</sup>			Ministry of Corporations			
	Up to 7 h.	7.1-8.0 h.	Over 8 h.	Under 80 h.	80 to 95.9 h.	96 h. and more	Under 40 h.	40 h.	Over 40 h.	Under 40 h.	40 to 44.9 h.	45 to 48 h.	Over 48 h.
1929	1.9	51.8	46.3	7.5	58.9	33.6	*	*	*	a 8.9	b 75.5		15.6
1930	1.7	50.1	48.2	3.3	62.0	34.7	0.4	0.8	98.8	20.8	66.7		12.5
1931	2.5	59.2	38.3	25.2	45.4	29.4	8.0	7.7	84.3	24.2	64.6		11.2
1932	2.1	81.3	16.6	8.8	66.7	24.5	20.2	11.2	68.6	28.4	63.6		8.0
1933	*	*	*	3.7	64.8	31.5	9.2	8.3	82.5	20.8	70.7		8.5
1934	1.9	72.4	25.7	0.8	68.1	31.1	13.1	9.5	77.4	30.5	61.9		7.6
1935	1.8	69.5	28.7	0.6	68.8	30.6	13.7	9.4	76.9	28.3 <sup>a</sup>	39.6 <sup>a</sup>	21.7 <sup>a</sup>	10.4 <sup>a</sup>
1936	1.9	62.8	35.4	0.3	68.2	31.5	7.1	6.9	86.0	27.5	44.0	18.7	9.8
1937	1.8	55.5	42.7	0.9	62.9	36.2	6.7	84.9	8.4	16.5	47.4	26.7	9.4
1938	*	*	*	2.8	62.1	35.1	21.5	76.6	0.2	21.7	52.2	18.8	7.3
1939	*	*	*	—	—	—	11.1 <sup>a</sup>	63.2 <sup>a</sup>	25.7 <sup>a</sup>	19.1 <sup>a</sup>	51.9 <sup>a</sup>	20.4 <sup>a</sup>	8.6 <sup>a</sup>
1939 : April	*	*	*	*	*	*	10.0	59.6	30.4	18.8	50.7	21.0	9.5
May	*	*	*	*	*	*	9.4	55.8	34.8	17.5	50.0	22.5	10.0
June	*	*	*	*	*	*	6.9	49.8	43.3	17.1	51.2	21.4	10.3
July	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Aug.	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Sept.	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Oct.	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Nov.	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Dec.	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
1940 : Jan.	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Feb.	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
March	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Persons covered (000's)	31			*			1,810			1,156			

Date	LATVIA			SWEDEN				SWITZERLAND			
	Per week			Per week <sup>1</sup>				Per week			
	Under 46 h.	46 h.	Over 46 h.	Up to 40 h.	41 to 47 h.	48 h.	Over 48 h.	Under 36 h.	36 to 48 h.	48 h.	Over 48 h.
1929	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
1930	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
1931	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
1932	24.9 <sup>a</sup>	73.0 <sup>a</sup>	2.1 <sup>a</sup>	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
1933	13.6	84.6	1.8	8.5	32.7	51.3	7.5	7.2 <sup>a</sup>	20.8 <sup>a</sup>	59.5 <sup>a</sup>	12.5 <sup>a</sup>
1934	11.3	80.4	8.3	8.0	29.1	42.5	20.4	4.2 <sup>a</sup>	21.2 <sup>a</sup>	65.3 <sup>a</sup>	9.3 <sup>a</sup>
1935	17.6	62.0	20.4	6.1	35.4	37.1	21.4	*	*	*	*
1936	16.1	63.8	20.1	4.6	35.8	39.6	20.0	*	*	*	*
1937	13.4	62.9	23.7	4.6	41.9	36.5	17.0	*	*	*	*
1938	11.0	64.7	24.3	9.8	52.9	25.6	11.7	2.8	22.1	69.9	5.2
1939	15.4	61.2	23.4	—	—	—	—	1.7	14.2	71.8	12.3
1939 : April	12.3	63.6	24.1	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
May	12.9	60.9	26.2	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
June	9.1	64.2	26.7	16.3	58.0	12.3	13.4	1.3	12.1	75.4	11.2
July	10.5	62.4	27.1	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Aug.	10.6	61.9	27.5	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Sept.	19.7	59.5	20.8	—	—	—	—	2.8	15.3	67.7	14.2
Oct.	24.8	54.8	20.4	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Nov.	27.2	53.9	18.9	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Dec.	23.5	56.3	20.2	—	—	—	—	1.0	12.0	69.1	17.9
1940 : Jan.	22.1	59.8	18.1	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Feb.	20.0	62.0	18.0	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
March	18.0 <sup>†</sup>	65.0 <sup>†</sup>	17.0 <sup>†</sup>	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Persons covered (000's)	41			351				223			

<sup>1</sup> Excluding building : in Finland, France (partly), Italy, and Sweden ; including mines in Sweden. <sup>2</sup> Annual figures : July of each year. <sup>3</sup> Monthly figures : 1st of the following month ; 1939 : average from January to July. <sup>4</sup> Before May 1935, a = under 48 hours, b = 48 hours. Monthly figures : last week of the month. <sup>5</sup> 1935 : average for May-December ; 1939 : average from January to June. <sup>6</sup> Average for February-December. <sup>7</sup> Annual figures : figures for November ; 1938, average for July and December. <sup>8</sup> Average for the second and third quarters.



## **An International Survey of Recent Family Living Studies : III**

### **Families of Unemployed Workers**

The contrast between the modes of family living of workers who are employed and those who are unemployed is revealed by a comparison between the results of family living studies of the two types of families. This contrast is of special interest in connection with the war : on the one hand, the war of 1914-1918 had as an aftermath an increase in unemployment in practically all countries, and on the other hand the present war will almost certainly result in a drastic lowering of living standards. The results of family living studies of the unemployed offer a bench-mark in the form of a low standard of living with which can be compared the changes that may take place in the living standards of workers in countries affected by the war. The study of family living among the unemployed throws light not only on what a low standard of living means in concrete terms but also on the changes that take place in passing from the status of employment to that of unemployment. The results of this survey should be compared, therefore, with those for families whose heads were in employment for the whole or the greater part of the period surveyed, as shown in the first two articles of this series.<sup>1</sup> But in this comparison special attention must be paid to differences in methods in the two types of study.

The present study of family living in families of the unemployed covers fourteen enquiries carried out in nine countries. In some countries, data for single families or for a few specimen families are available, but these are not included in the present survey, which is limited to enquiries covering a selection of families, more or less representative of the unemployed. The general characteristics and scope of these enquiries are first discussed, and the principal data of income, expenditure, and consumption, are given. Comparisons with the results of studies of "employed workers" are reserved for a later article.

#### **SCOPE OF THE ENQUIRIES**

The enquiries covered by this survey may be divided into types corresponding to differences in scope and method :

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<sup>1</sup> See *International Labour Review*, Vol. XXXIX, Nos. 5 and 6, May and June 1939.

*Type A* : Those which form part of a general family living study. Enquiries of this type are available for Germany, Austria (Vienna), Great Britain, Sweden, Switzerland, and Czecho-Slovakia.

*Type B* : Those which are held specifically to throw light on family living under conditions of prolonged unemployment. Enquiries of this type are available for Germany, Austria (1937), Belgium, the United States, Great Britain, and the Netherlands.

The differences in the methods followed in these two types as well as variations in scope may have considerable effect on the average results and should be borne in mind in using the figures. Table I gives, for each of the enquiries, the number and type of families covered, the duration of the enquiry and of the period of unemployment, and the geographical scope.

#### *Number and Kinds of Families*

In general, enquiries are limited to families whose head is unemployed and whose income consequently is derived largely from unemployment benefits or other aid ; in a few studies families in receipt of assistance or poor relief are included irrespective of whether the head of the family was "unemployed" in the strict sense of the word — that is, he may have been chronically ill, incapacitated, or absent from the family or not contributing to its support ; in one case (the Newcastle study) a small number of families of employed workers with low incomes are covered in addition to a group of unemployed and the Cambridge (Massachusetts) enquiry includes a relatively large number of families whose heads worked part or full time.

In type A enquiries the families included formed part of a general sample of wage earners' families ; a sub-sample was then formed of the unemployed families as representative of conditions among families of those out of work. This includes all families whose heads were unemployed during a longer or shorter part of the period of the enquiry. In some cases the unemployed are subdivided according to the duration of unemployment (for example, in Sweden, under 4 months, 4-8 months, 8 months and over) ; in other cases, the analysis is limited to families whose heads were out of work for periods exceeding 6 or 8 months (for example, in Zurich and Vienna).

In type B studies, though in principle the families were considered eligible if the breadwinner was not following a regular employment at the beginning of the survey, in practice families were selected whose heads had been out of work for some time previously, since this afforded a better basis for a study of the effects of unemployment on the budget and living conditions. The families selected in the Cambridge study were drawn from a list of relief applicants.

So far as the number of families is concerned, table I shows that the number varied from 17 to 397. In type A enquiries the number of cases depends upon the prevalence of unemployment

TABLE I. SCOPE AND DURATION OF ENQUIRIES INTO FAMILY LIVING OF THE UNEMPLOYED

Country	Date	Number of families	Duration		Geographical scope
			Enquiry	Unemployment period <sup>1</sup>	
<i>Type A.</i>					
Germany	1927-28	54	*	15 weeks (average)	Large and medium-sized towns. Vienna. Merseyside.
Austria	1934	19	1 year	Over 240 days	
Great Britain (Merseyside)	1929-31	115	1 week	Not stated	
Sweden	1933	109	1 year	58 families, less than 4 months; 36 families, 4-8 months; 15 families, 8-12 months	} Whole country. Zurich.
Switzerland	1936-37	17	1 year	Over 6 months 26 families, 1-3 months; 7 families, 4-12 months; 7 families, over 12 months; (previous to enquiry)	
Czecho-Slovakia	Feb. 1932	40	1 month		Bohemia, Moravia.
<i>Type B.</i>					
Germany	Summer 1933	89	1 week	In most cases over 2 years	Berlin.
Austria <sup>2</sup>	End of 1937	237 <sup>4</sup>	1 week	Not stated	Austria (excluding Vienna).
Belgium <sup>5</sup>	July-Aug. 1932	28	1 month	In most cases over 1 year	Charleroi region.
United States <sup>7</sup>	1934-35	397 <sup>8</sup>	1 year	Not stated	Cambridge (Massachusetts).
Great Britain <sup>9</sup>					
(a) Newcastle	Nov. 1933, Sept. 1934	100 <sup>6</sup>	1 month	Not stated	Newcastle.
(b) Rhondda Valley	July 1936	29	1 month	Not stated	Rhondda Valley.
Netherlands					
(a) Amsterdam	Oct. 1934-Feb. 1935	78	1-13 weeks	18 families, 1-2 years; 31 families, 2-3 years; 29 families, 3 years and over; (previous to enquiry) 23 families, less than 6 months; 20 families, 6-12 months; 86 families, over 1 year; (previous to enquiry)	} Amsterdam. The Hague.
(b) The Hague	March-May 1935	129	1-13 weeks		

<sup>1</sup> Duration of unemployment or of relief.<sup>2</sup> Period of unemployment during the year of the general enquiry.<sup>3</sup> Enquiry covers food consumption only.<sup>4</sup> Includes a small number of persons (unoccupied) receiving pensions.<sup>5</sup> Besides this study in the Charleroi region, other studies by the same author (not analysed here) covered the Brussels region, Liège, Antwerp, and Bruges.<sup>6</sup> 34 families of unemployed, Nov. 1933, and 66 families (38 unemployed and 28 employed of low incomes), Sept. 1934.<sup>7</sup> Besides this study for Cambridge, similar but less detailed information is available for 5 other Massachusetts towns: Winchester, Sudbury, Dracut, Marlboro, and Gilbertville.<sup>8</sup> Families applying for relief (A list of the Emergency Relief Administration): at the time of the survey 191 out of the 327 families for which occupational data are available were at work on part time or on odd jobs and 48 were in full employment.

in the group selected for study, as well as upon the size of the enquiry as a whole. In this group of cases the numbers ranged from 17 to 115. In type B studies the numbers were somewhat larger and ranged from 28 in the Belgian study<sup>1</sup> to 397 in the case of the Cambridge enquiry.

### *Geographical Scope*

All but one of the enquiries relate to European industrial countries. In three of the six studies of type A, families in the "unemployed" sample are drawn from the entire country or from the most important industrial centres; all the rest, including Vienna, the Merseyside and Zurich enquiries of type A, and all the enquiries of type B except the Austrian study, relate to a single town or industrial region.

### *Duration*

Table I shows also the periods covered, which vary from one week to one year. With two exceptions, the Merseyside enquiry with a duration of one week, and the Czecho-Slovak enquiry with a duration of one month, the studies of type A cover a yearly period. In the German study, however, though the investigation as a whole covers a period of one year, the analysis for the unemployed families is limited to the number of weeks during which the family heads were actually out of work. One of the enquiries of type B, the Cambridge study, covers a full year. The Belgian and the British (Newcastle and the Rhondda Valley) enquiries cover a period of one month, the Austrian one week, and the Netherlands enquiries cover periods varying from one to thirteen weeks. The large majority of families in the Netherlands studies, however, kept records for the full thirteen weeks, and only a relatively small number of households furnished reports for shorter periods.

## ANALYSIS AND COMPARISON OF RESULTS

The principal results obtained in these studies of family living in households of the unemployed are given in tables II-VI. In general, the method of analysis is similar to that described in the previous articles of this series covering family living of wage earners and salaried employees; attention is here directed to those points on which important differences in methods or results are to be noted. Three topics are discussed: receipts and current income, surplus and deficit, and disbursements and consumption expenditure.

### *Receipts and Income*

Table II gives an analysis of receipts according to source.

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<sup>1</sup> This was the largest of a series of five covering in all 105 unemployed families in five districts, besides 23 families of employed persons and 11 families of persons on strike in the Charleroi region. In the present tables only the unemployed in the Charleroi region are included.

TABLE II. ANALYSIS OF RECEIPTS<sup>1</sup> ACCORDING TO SOURCE IN 8 COUNTRIES

Country and group	Date	Period	Cur- rency	Current income											Deficit		
				Per cent.											Total	Amount	Per- centage of outgo
				Earnings				Sources other than earnings									
				Hus- band	Wife	Children and other family members	Total	Un- employment benefits or assistance	Pensions and other insurance	Gifts	Boarders and lodgers	Other	Total				
Type A. Germany	1927-28	Month	Marks	6.4	4.3	4.1	14.8	67.0	15.8	2.4	85.2	157.46	14.20	8.3			
Sweden																	
(a) Unemployed, less than 4 months	1933	Year	Crowns	82.7 <sup>2</sup>	1.2	3.0	86.9	1.7	2.4	1.6	4.2	3.2	13.1	2,668.6	31.1	1.2	
(b) Unemployed 4-8 months				61.4 <sup>2</sup>	11.2	6.1	78.7	7.3	1.7	4.3	5.7	2.3	21.3	2,592.7	108.7	4.0	
(c) Unemployed 8-12 months				52.4 <sup>2</sup>	2.6	3.5	58.5	14.5	7.9	10.1	5.1	3.9	41.5	2,119.1	83.2	3.8	
Average				72.0 <sup>2</sup>	4.7	4.1	80.8	5.4	2.8	3.1	4.9	3.0	19.2	2,568.0	63.8	2.4	
Switzerland (Zurich)	1936-37	Year	Francs	33.9	5.5	0.1	39.5	52.8	3.0	1.8	2.8	60.5	3,487.70	83.22	2.3		
Czecho-Slovakia <sup>4</sup>																	
(a) Unemployed 1-3 months	1932	Month	Crowns	29.2	9.4	11.1	49.7	38.0	*	1.6	10.7	50.3	702.50	119.85	14.6		
(b) Unemployed 4-12 months				54.9	1.0	12.6	68.5	26.8	*	1.8	2.9	31.5	614.71	113.72	15.6		
(c) Unemployed over 12 month				33.0	11.9	3.4	48.3	24.8	*	15.2	11.7	51.7	543.00	65.43	10.8		
Average				33.9	8.4	10.3	52.6	34.3	*	3.6	9.5	47.4	659.23	109.27	14.2		
Type B.																	
Germany, Berlin																	
(a) With private income	Summer 1933	Week	Marks	*	*	*	39.9	52.4	*	5.3	2.4 <sup>2</sup>	*	60.1	28.43	*	*	
(b) Without private income				—	—	—	—	99.3	*	*	0.7 <sup>2</sup>	*	100.0	14.50	*	*	
Average				*	*	*	25.4	69.7	*	3.3	1.6 <sup>2</sup>	*	74.6	20.01	*	*	
Belgium, Charleroi	July-Aug. 1932	Month	Francs	*	*	*	27.9 <sup>2</sup>	63.1	*	*	1.2	7.8	72.1	843.89	—11.76 <sup>2</sup>	—1.4 <sup>2</sup>	
United States, Cambridge	1934-35	Year	\$	*	*	*	69.4 <sup>2</sup>	22.7 <sup>2</sup>	*	4.5	*	3.4	30.6	761	158	17.2	
Great Britain, Rhondda Valley																	
(a) Without earners	July 1936	Month	£ s. d.	3.0 <sup>2</sup>	*	*	3.0 <sup>2</sup>	79.6	9.9	*	*	7.5	97.0	£ 716s. 5d. <sup>10</sup>	*	*	
(b) With earners other than head of family				*	65.3	65.3	33.0	1.7	*	*	—	34.7	£ 1411s. 1d. <sup>10</sup>	*	*		
Netherlands, Amsterdam																	
(a) With unemployment ben- efit and relief only	Oct. 1934- Feb. 1935	Week	Florins	*	*	*	0.0	96.2	*	*	3.8 <sup>2</sup>	*	100.0	15.72	0.28	1.8	
(b) With other income but no earnings				*	*	*	0.0	86.0	*	*	4.4 <sup>2</sup>	9.6	100.0	18.93	0.20	1.0	
(c) With earnings				*	*	*	26.8	65.4	*	*	4.8 <sup>2</sup>	3.0	73.2	21.31	0.17	0.8	
Average				*	*	*	14.2	77.6	*	*	4.5 <sup>2</sup>	3.7	85.8	19.09	0.21	1.1	
Netherlands, The Hague																	
(a) Union workers	March- May 1935	Week	Florins	4.8	5.3	10.1	84.2	0.3	0.9	4.5 <sup>2</sup>	0.0	89.9	17.87	0.32	1.8		
(b) Non-union workers				10.1	0.0	10.1	82.4	0.0	2.3	4.9 <sup>2</sup>	0.3	89.9	17.49	0.27	1.5		
(c) On relief				0.3	5.2	5.5	78.1	5.2	4.8	5.2 <sup>2</sup>	1.2	94.5	17.66	0.37	2.1		
Average				5.0	4.0	9.0	82.4	1.4	2.1	4.8 <sup>2</sup>	0.3	91.0	17.72	0.33	1.8		

\* No information available. <sup>1</sup> "Other receipts", including conversion of assets into cash and borrowings, are shown for four studies: Germany, 20.40 marks (15.8 per cent. borrowings); Sweden: less than 4 months, 304.9 crowns (36.7 per cent. borrowings); 4-8 months, 321.1 crowns (28.1 per cent. borrowings); 8-12 months, 168.5 crowns (23.7 per cent. borrowings); average, 291.5 crowns (32.5 per cent. borrowings); The Hague (Netherlands): union workers, 0.32 florins (100 per cent. borrowings); non-union workers, 0.27 florins (66.7 per cent. borrowings); "on relief" group, 0.37 florins (100 per cent. borrowings); average, 0.32 florins (93.8 per cent. borrowings); United States (Cambridge), \$183 (64.5 per cent. borrowings). For Germany, total receipts including 0.80 marks receipts unaccounted for, were 178.66 marks. For Austria (Vienna), the total of current income and other receipts is given as 1,631 schillings without any data on the subdivision among the different items. <sup>2</sup> Includes earnings in kind. <sup>3</sup> 29.1 per cent. from occupations on relief works. <sup>4</sup> Duration prior to study. <sup>5</sup> Figures relating to income received in kind (food, clothing, etc.), and not to boarders and lodgers. <sup>6</sup> Surplus. <sup>7</sup> Per cent. of income. <sup>8</sup> 9.5 per cent. from work relief. <sup>9</sup> From "odd jobs". <sup>10</sup> Calculated from figures for a shorter period.

*Income.*

Income, which includes income received in kind as well as income in cash, is derived from two kinds of sources, earnings and sources other than earnings. In contrast with families of employed workers, whose earnings form the predominant source of their incomes, unemployed and assisted families obtain the bulk of their incomes from unemployment benefits and assistance. The very fact that the chief breadwinner is idle for the whole or for part of the period covered by the survey excludes husbands' earnings from contributing any considerable amounts to the family income; as a consequence, income from earnings during the period of unemployment of the head of the household is limited to the irregular or meagre earnings from subsidiary occupations or to the earnings of the wife or children.

For the enquiries shown in table II the contribution of *earnings* to the total income varied from zero to 86.9 per cent. Low percentages, less than 15 per cent., were returned in the enquiries covering families whose heads were wholly unemployed, such as the German study (14.8 per cent.), two groups in the Amsterdam enquiries (both 0.0 per cent), and the Hague study. On the other hand, the figures in investigations covering families whose heads worked part time or were in full employment during part of the period varied from 27.9 per cent. for Belgium to 86.9 per cent. for the group of Swedish families whose heads were unemployed for less than four months in the survey year.

As regards the husband's earnings, studies of type A are of special interest since they throw light on the extent to which the duration of unemployment affects the proportion of family income derived from different sources. The low figure of 6.4 per cent. in the German enquiry represents arrears of wage payments. The figures of 29 to 55 per cent. for Czecho-Slovakia reflect the influence of part-time work, while for Zurich, where the study was limited to families whose chief breadwinner was unemployed for over six months in the year, the percentage was 33.9. In the Swedish study, in families unemployed for less than four months the proportion of income derived from the husband's earnings rose to 83 per cent., while in families whose head was unemployed from four to eight months it was 61.4 per cent., and in families whose head was unemployed from eight to twelve months it was only 52.4 per cent., nearly three-fifths of this representing income from work relief (29.1 per cent.), which was not counted as "employment".

Earnings of other family members, wife or children or other relatives, contributed amounts varying from 4 per cent. in The Hague to about 20 per cent. in Czecho-Slovakia, while in the case of the Rhondda Valley enquiry the percentage rose to 65.3 in the families where the head was out of work but other members of the family were in employment.

*Sources other than earnings* are the most important form of income for families whose heads are unemployed. These sources include principally unemployment benefits and assistance, relief, gifts, pensions, etc. They contributed from 13.1 per cent. to 100 per

cent. of the income in the enquiries shown in table II. Income from unemployment benefits or assistance was by far the most important source. For enquiries of type B — leaving the Cambridge study and the Rhondda Valley group already mentioned out of account — the bulk of current income was derived from this item, the proportions being 52.4 per cent. in Berlin (families with private income) and 96.2 per cent. in the case of Amsterdam families which depended entirely upon unemployment benefits and relief. For type A enquiries receipts from unemployment benefits and assistance amounted to 67 per cent. in Germany, 53 per cent. in Zurich, and 34 per cent. in Czecho-Slovakia. In Sweden, where the duration of unemployment varied from one to twelve months and work relief for unemployed persons was provided on a large scale, receipts from unemployment benefits and assistance contributed only from 1.7 per cent. to 14 per cent. of income. Gifts contributed up to 10-15 per cent. in Germany and in the Swedish and Czecho-Slovak groups where economic pressure was highest. In Sweden, income from boarders and lodgers accounted for 5 per cent. of the total income, and in the Netherlands enquiries 5 per cent. of income was received in kind.

#### *Other Receipts.*

The importance of this group of deficit items drawn from savings or borrowings obviously depends upon there being savings to draw upon or ways to secure credit, and for the unemployed, and especially those who have been unemployed for long periods, neither of these "sources" is likely to yield much effective income, even though the budgets may well be considered deficiency budgets. The data available on this point are extremely limited, only four of the ten studies listed including figures on this type of receipts.

#### *Average Surplus and Deficit*

Average net deficits (or surpluses) for all families in the studies are also given in table II. In all but one of the studies, average outgo exceeded average income and the average budget had to be balanced by drawing upon savings or by borrowing. The amount of the deficits was small, less than 2.5 per cent., for the Swedish, Zurich and Netherlands enquiries; it was moderate in Germany, where the unemployment was of short duration, and substantial, from 15 to 17 per cent., in Czecho-Slovakia and Cambridge. In one case there was a "surplus", which does not indicate that the families concerned found no difficulties in balancing their accounts; on the contrary, especially for a short period, excess of income over outgo — i.e., a "surplus" — may result from "forced savings", such as an obligation to pay off arrears in rent or small bills incurred prior to the survey period.

#### *Disbursements and Outgo*

On the disbursements side, the principal items are the consumption expenditures. The other items — "other disbursements"

TABLE III. ANALYSIS OF DISBURSEMENTS ACCORDING TO MAIN GROUPS OF DISBURSEMENTS IN NINE COUNTRIES <sup>1</sup>

Country and group	Date	Period	Currency	Outgo										Amount
				Consumption expenditure								Non-consumption outgo		
				Per cent.					Clothing	Miscellaneous	Amount	Amount	Per cent. of current income (table II)	
				Food	Housing		Fuel and light	Total						
					Rent	Furniture, upkeen, etc.								
Type A.														
Germany	1927-28	Year	Marks	52.9	14.9	2.7	4.6	22.2	10.8	14.1	170.92	0.74	0.5	171.66
Austria, Vienna	1934	Year	Schillings	61.2 <sup>a</sup>	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	1,615
Sweden														
(a) Unemployed less than 4 months	1933	Year	Crowns	41.8	11.5	3.9	4.2	19.6	14.1	24.5	2,543.1	156.6 <sup>a</sup>	5.9 <sup>a</sup>	2,699.7
(b) Unemployed 4-8 months				44.2	15.2	3.6	4.6	23.4	11.6	20.8	2,596.0	105.4 <sup>a</sup>	4.1 <sup>a</sup>	2,701.4
(c) Unemployed 8-12 months				46.3	14.4	3.7	4.4	22.5	13.1	18.1	2,178.1	24.2 <sup>a</sup>	1.1 <sup>a</sup>	2,202.3
Average				43.1	13.0	3.8	4.4	21.2	13.1	22.6	2,510.7	121.1 <sup>a</sup>	4.7 <sup>a</sup>	2,631.8
Switzerland, Zurich	1936-37	Year	Francs	37.4	25.2	3.4	5.2	33.8	8.9	19.9 <sup>a</sup>	3,545.07	25.85	0.7	3,570.92
Czecho-Slovakia														
(a) Unemployed 1-3 months <sup>4</sup>	1932	Month	Crowns	58.1	7.3	1.3	9.9	18.5	7.4	16.0	820.00	2.35	0.3	822.35
(b) Unemployed 4-12 months <sup>4</sup>				57.6	5.6	1.6	10.8	18.0	7.4	17.0	728.86	1.57	0.3	728.43
(b) Unemployed over 12 months <sup>4</sup>				56.4	7.4	2.0	11.3	20.7	6.2	16.7	608.43	—	—	608.43
Average				57.8	7.0	1.4	10.3	18.7	7.3	16.2	766.70	1.80	0.3	768.50
Type B.														
Germany, Berlin <sup>5</sup>														
(a) With private income	1933	Week	Marks	49.6	24.9	*	*	*		25.5 <sup>a</sup>	*	*	*	*
(b) Without private income				57.4	34.1	*	*	*		8.5 <sup>a</sup>	*	*	*	*
Average				54.3	29.3	*	*	*		16.4 <sup>a</sup>	*	*	*	*
Belgium, Charleroi	1932-33	Month	Francs	52.7	13.9		7.1	21.0	7.3	19.0	832.13	—	—	832.13
United States, Cambridge	1934-35	Year	\$	46.3	25.6		10.7	36.3	5.7	11.7	919	0.00	0.0	919
Great Britain, Merseyside														
(a) Unemployed families	1929-1931	Week	s. d.	47.1	23.5	0.8	10.6	34.9	7.1	10.9	36s.10d.	*	*	*
(b) Assisted families				52.2	20.2	0.3	9.9	30.4	6.7	10.7	37s.5½d.	*	*	*
Rhondda Valley														
(a) Without earners	July 1936	Month	s. d.	49.2	17.8	*	7.8	25.6 <sup>7</sup>	7.5	17.7	*	*	*	*
(b) With earners other than head of family				47.8	14.0	*	5.3	19.3 <sup>7</sup>	13.2	19.7	*	*	*	*
Netherlands, Amsterdam														
(a) Depending entirely on assistance	1934-35	Week	Florins	41.5	32.9	0.7	10.7	44.3	3.8	10.4	16.00	0.00	0.0	16.00
(b) With incomes other than earnings				37.4	31.9	1.8	10.3	44.0	4.2	14.4	19.13	—	—	19.13
(c) Assisted, with earnings				42.3	29.1	1.4	9.8	40.3	6.1	11.3	21.48	0.00	0.0	21.48
All groups				41.1	30.7	1.3	10.1	42.1	5.0	11.8	19.30	0.00	0.0	19.30
Netherlands, The Hague														
(a) Union workers	1935	Week	Florins	41.6	28.4	1.7	8.6	38.7	5.0	14.7 <sup>a</sup>	18.19	0.00	0.0	18.19
(b) Non-union workers				42.8	30.9	1.5	8.7	41.1	6.0	10.1 <sup>a</sup>	17.76	0.00	0.0	17.76
(c) On relief				41.5	31.0	1.6	8.4	41.0	5.8	11.7 <sup>a</sup>	18.03	0.00	0.0	18.03
All groups				*	*	*	*	*	*	*	18.05	0.00	0.0	18.05

<sup>a</sup> No information available. <sup>1</sup> "Other disbursements", including savings and repayment of debts, were as follows: Germany, 6.54 marks (23.4 per cent. savings); Austria, 16 schillings; Sweden, less than 4 months, 274.0 crowns (75 per cent. savings); 4-8 months 212.4 crowns (62.9 per cent. savings); 8-12 months 85.3 crowns (58.1 per cent. savings); average, 227.7 crowns (70.4 per cent. savings). The total of all disbursements for Germany (178.66 marks) includes 0.46 unaccounted for. <sup>2</sup> Includes tobacco. <sup>3</sup> Includes "life insurance". <sup>4</sup> Duration prior to study. <sup>5</sup> Percentages based on current income (see table II). <sup>6</sup> Relates to furniture.



and non-consumption outgo — are of such minor significance that they can be dismissed after a very brief consideration.

*“ Other Disbursements ”.*

The group of “ other disbursements ”, which are surplus items such as savings and repayment of debts, is of small importance, as indeed would be expected in the study of deficit budgets like those of the unemployed. Detailed data are available only for two studies, the German and the Swedish, and the amounts are of negligible size except for the groups in the Swedish study where unemployment was under four months or from four to eight months. In these groups the percentages of the total receipts which other disbursements represented were 9.2 and 7.3 per cent. respectively. It is interesting to note the high proportion of savings (75 per cent.) in the total surplus in the case of the former of these two groups, suggesting that these families of the unemployed, as their resources permitted, sought immediately to reconstitute reserves of savings.

*Non-consumption Outgo.*

The only item of consequence here is (direct) taxes, which do not ordinarily take any considerable proportion of the income of unemployed persons. The only data available are for four studies of type A, where the percentage is less than 1.<sup>1</sup>

*Consumption Expenditure.*

Table III gives an analysis of consumption expenditure in the form of percentages spent on food, housing, clothing, and miscellaneous.

The percentage spent on *food* in the different studies varied from 37.4 for Zurich unemployed (over six months) and the group of Amsterdam families which had as income benefits and relief and other sources but no earnings<sup>2</sup>, to 61.2<sup>3</sup> for the unemployed families the Austrian enquiry in of 1934.

If the groups studied in the various enquiries are classified according to the percentage spent on food in four classes — below 40, 40-50, 50-60, and 60 and over — the two enquiries already noted, with a percentage of 37.4, are the only ones found in the first group. In the second group, 40-50, are the United States, the Swedish and five out of the six Netherlands groups, and the unemployed families of the Merseyside enquiry ; in the third group,

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<sup>1</sup> Except in the case of Sweden, where the figures include besides taxes certain general (life) insurance premiums, which properly belong to savings.

<sup>2</sup> In the case of Zurich the low percentage is closely parallel to the percentage for employed families (35.2) and suggests that the unemployed in Zurich were able to maintain their food standard in spite of loss of income ; in the case of Amsterdam, however, the low percentage is due in considerable part to the extraordinarily high proportion taken by rent among families with very meagre resources. It is clear that the low food percentages do not justify without further analysis any conclusions as to the quality of food or level of living.

<sup>3</sup> This figure includes tobacco with food.

50-60, are found Germany, Czecho-Slovakia, Belgium, the assisted families of the Merseyside enquiry, and the families of the Rhondda Valley ; Austria is the only country with a food percentage above 60.

*Housing* (including rent, furniture and upkeep, and fuel and light) accounted for one-fifth, to over two-fifths of total consumption expenditure, the important items in this group being rent and fuel and light. As regards *rent*, the percentages ranged from 5.6 in Czecho-Slovakia — a very low figure — to 34.1 for Berlin families without "private incomes" — that is, depending entirely on unemployment benefits and assistance. Countries with low percentages spent on rent (less than 15 per cent.) included Germany, Sweden, one group in the Rhondda Valley, and Belgium, in addition to Czecho-Slovakia ; those with medium percentages (20-25 per cent.) Switzerland, the United States (Cambridge), and Great Britain (Merseyside) ; and those with a high proportion the Netherlands, in addition to the Berlin families already noted. Expenditure for *furniture and upkeep* shows variations from 4 per cent. to less than 1 per cent. The expenditure on *fuel and light* shows a wide range, varying from 4.4 per cent. in Sweden to over 10 per cent. in Amsterdam and Czecho-Slovakia. These percentages are not specially significant, however, since where the study is based on a short period, a week or a month, the expenditures for fuel are largely determined by the special conditions prevailing at the time of the enquiry. Thus, the high figure for Czecho-Slovakia reflects conditions in the month of February 1932. In the Netherlands enquiries expenditure on housing appears to be as important an item as expenditure on food, approximately two-fifths of the total consumption outlay being spent on each of these groups ; in these cases, the heavy expenditure on fuel was due to the fact that the enquiry was conducted during the winter months.

*Clothing* expenditure shows variations from 3.8 per cent. for the group of Amsterdam families with incomes from unemployment benefits and assistance only to 14.1 per cent. for the Swedish families of unemployed persons who had been out of work for less than four months. Enquiries of type B show on the whole lower proportionate expenditures on clothing than studies of type A, the percentages in the former ranging from 3.8 to 7.5 (leaving out of account the Rhondda Valley families with earners other than the head of the household) and in the latter from 6.2 to 14.1. These low percentages show the extent to which families with meagre revenues reduce their expenditure on clothing.

*Miscellaneous items.* According to the figures of table III the percentage of total consumption expenditure available for miscellaneous items varied from 10 to 25 per cent. Enquiries of type B indicate percentages between 10 and 20, while enquiries of type A show proportions ranging from 14 per cent. in Germany to 24.5 per cent. in Sweden (for families whose heads were unemployed for less than four months in the survey year).

TABLE IV. PERCENTAGE EXPENDITURE ON MISCELLANEOUS ITEMS IN 8 COUNTRIES

Country and group	Insurance	Contributions	Cleaning	Transport	Education	Hygiene and personal care	Medical care	Recreation, amusement	Tobacco	Gifts and assistance	Other	Total miscellaneous
Germany	2.1	1.4	—	1.0	2.5	1.5	—	1.4	1.8	1.0	1.4	14.1
Belgium, Charleroi	*	*	*	*	6.8	4.8	—	3.8	—	*	3.6	19.0
United States, Cambridge	*	*	*	2.9	1.1	0.8	3.4	0.7	2.0	0.8	0.1	11.7
Great Britain, Merseyside												
(a) Unemployed families	*	4.5	2.5	*	0.2	1.4	—	—	1.8	0.5	—	10.9
(b) Assisted families	*	4.0	2.6	*	0.0	0.8	—	—	1.8	1.6	—	10.7
Great Britain, Rhondda Valley												
(a) Without earners	5.1	1.8	2.2	*	1.3	1.3	—	*	*	*	6.0	17.7
(b) With earners other than head of family	5.3	1.7	1.6	*	1.7	1.6	—	*	*	*	7.8	19.7
Netherlands, Amsterdam												
(a) With unemployment benefit and relief only	4.1	0.8	1.7	0.3	0.9	*	*	0.6	1.2	0.1	0.7	10.4
(b) With other income but no earnings	3.1	0.8	1.7	0.3	2.0	*	*	0.4	0.7	0.3	5.1	14.4
(c) With income from earnings	3.1	0.7	1.7	0.6	1.0	*	*	0.5	0.8	0.1	2.8	11.3
Average	3.3	0.8	1.7	0.4	1.2	*	*	0.5	0.9	0.1	2.9	11.8
Netherlands, The Hague												
(a) Union workers	4.8	3.6	1.7	—	*	0.6	—	1.1	1.0	1.9	—	14.7
(b) Non-union workers	3.6	0.9	1.9	—	*	0.4	—	0.9	1.1	1.3	—	10.1
(c) On relief	4.8	1.4	1.6	—	*	0.4	—	1.0	0.4	2.0	—	11.7
Sweden												
(a) Unemployed less than 4 months	4.7	2.4	2.3	2.4	2.1	*	2.4	1.7	1.5	4.9	—	24.5
(b) Unemployed 4-8 months	5.7	1.8	2.0	2.4	1.9	*	1.7	1.4	1.7	3.0	—	20.8
(c) Unemployed 8-12 months	3.5	1.2	2.7	1.6	1.9	*	1.6	1.2	1.8	2.7	—	18.1
Average	4.7	2.1	2.2	2.3	2.0	*	2.1	1.6	1.6	4.0	—	22.6
Switzerland, Zurich	6.1	0.6	1.3	2.8	2.3	—	2.5	2.0	1.2	0.7	0.5	19.9
Czecho-Slovakia	3.9	2.0	1.3	0.9	1.6	0.9	0.5	1.1	2.0	0.4	1.4	16.2

\* No information available.

As compared with the figures shown in studies of families of employed workers, these percentages are extraordinarily low. In general, as economic pressure lightens a larger and larger proportion is available for miscellaneous items, rising, for example, for non-manual workers in the Netherlands to 44.3 per cent.<sup>1</sup> For working-class families, however, the figure tends to vary between 10 and 30 per cent. and the higher the economic pressure the smaller the proportion available for miscellaneous items. In other words, as income falls off, miscellaneous expenditures are sharply reduced. At the lower limit, however, 10 per cent. appears, from the evidence of the present survey, to be a fairly irreducible minimum. In the groups reviewed here, even families living on relief or unemployment benefits spend as much as 10 per cent. on the various items included under "miscellaneous".

Details of the individual items included in this category are given in table IV. By far the most important item is insurance, which takes up to two-fifths of the miscellaneous expenditure and from 2 to 6 per cent. of the entire consumption expenditure. Other items are of less importance — contributions, medical care, cleaning, education, transport, and tobacco — each showing small percentages. It is difficult to draw any general conclusions from these rather meagre data. Perhaps, however, considering the Swedish groups with shorter periods of unemployment as representing the relatively better off and the Amsterdam groups of assisted families as representing the relatively worse off, one might conclude that, as economic pressure increases, recreation and amusement, tobacco, and transport, show a sharply reduced proportionate expenditure, while cleaning and contributions, and to a lesser degree education, show slightly reduced proportionate expenditures. On the other hand, insurance shows little change. These conclusions, however, are so subject to special circumstances of the particular country and investigation that it would be hazardous to lay much weight upon them. For some items, furthermore, notably medical care, data are lacking.

#### *Food Expenditure and Consumption Habits*

As already noted in table III, the percentage of consumption expenditure which went for food varied from 37 to 61 for the unemployed groups covered in this survey. In view of the importance of food expenditure and consumption in any appraisal of the level of living and particularly in the case of families of the unemployed, an analysis according to main food groups is presented in tables V and VI. The studies analysed in this section exclude one or two for which data on foods consumed are wanting, but include others which do not give general data in expenditures.

Certain general reservations must be stated at the outset. In the first place the data, though stated in terms of annual consumption, are in fact derived from data covering the entire year in only three

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<sup>1</sup> Cf. *International Labour Review*, loc. cit., p. 691.

cases, while in other cases they are converted<sup>1</sup> from data for short periods in a particular season and reflect therefore the particular characteristics of that season. A winter diet, for example, in Czecho-Slovakia, Amsterdam, and Austria (1937), reflects the absence of fresh vegetables or a disproportionate consumption of fats. In addition, a sample based upon a single week or even a month is subject to much wider fluctuations of sampling than one based upon a full year. Secondly, differences in family composition are perhaps especially important in the case of unemployed and assisted families, especially where there is no male head of the household. These difficulties, however, are allowed for later in the discussion on consumption per adult male unit. In one or two cases, finally — Austria (1937) and the Newcastle study — the data cover certain important items only, and do not extend to the whole range of foods.

#### *Food Expenditure According to Main Food Groups*

Table V shows the proportionate food expenditures for nine groups of foods classified according to the International Labour Office's scheme of classification for purposes of international comparisons, the groups being : bread and cereals ; meat and fish ; fats ; milk, milk products, and eggs ; vegetables and fruit ; miscellaneous foods ; alcoholic beverages ; unclassified foods ; and meals taken outside the home.

*Milk, milk products, and eggs*, the most important group of protective foods, accounted for from 12.1 per cent. (one of the Amsterdam groups and Newcastle) to 29.2 per cent. (Zurich) and 35.5 per cent. (Charleroi) of the total food expenditure. However, in the case of Newcastle the proportion is unduly low on account of the omission of butter and cheese, while in the case of Belgium the inclusion of margarine may overstate the proportion. The countries with over 20 per cent. include, besides Switzerland and Belgium, Czecho-Slovakia (20.3 per cent.), Germany (22.5 per cent.) and the United States (27.3 per cent.).

It is of special interest to note how closely these percentages correspond to the percentages expended by wage earners' families in the same countries.<sup>2</sup> Thus, the percentages for the unemployed and employed wage earners respectively are for Zurich 29.2 and 28.1 ; for Germany 22.5 and 21.3 ; for Belgium 35.5 and 29.8 ; and for Czecho-Slovakia 20.3 and 19.7. These percentages indicate how much more important the national habits and customs which depend in turn upon prices and conditions of supply are than the cramped economic position in the families of the unemployed in determining the percentage expended for a group of foodstuffs. In spite of increased economic pressure or lowered resources about the same percentage expenditures are made in the unemployed as in the employed wage earners' families in the same country.

*Vegetables and fruit.* The proportion of food expenditure devoted to items of this group varied roughly from 10 to 20 per cent., leaving

<sup>1</sup> By the I.L.O.

<sup>2</sup> Cf. *International Labour Review*, loc. cit.

TABLE V. ANALYSIS OF FOOD EXPENDITURE PER FAMILY IN 8 COUNTRIES

Country and group	Date	Period	Percentages of food expenditure devoted to									Average number of consumption units <sup>1</sup>
			Bread and cereals	Meat and fish	Fats	Milk, milk products, and eggs	Vegetables and fruit	Miscellaneous foods	Alcoholic beverages	Unclassified	Meals taken outside and ready meals	
<i>Type A.</i>												
Germany	1927-28	1 year	20.0 <sup>2</sup>	26.9	7.1	22.5	11.4	6.3	3.8	1.2	0.8	2.9
Great Britain, Merseyside												
(a) Unemployed	1929-31	1 week	24.8	30.3	*	19.2 <sup>3</sup>	8.7	13.7	*	*	3.4	4.3
(b) Assisted			20.4	25.2	*	17.9 <sup>3</sup>	9.2	14.3	*	*	7.0	4.5
Switzerland, Zurich	1936-37	1 year	13.3	17.3	3.8	29.2	16.0	9.8	7.0	0.3	3.2	2.2
Czecho-Slovakia	Feb. 1932	1 month	22.2	21.0	8.2	20.3	8.6	12.8	4.0	0.3	2.6	2.7
<i>Type B.</i>												
Germany, Berlin												
(a) With private income	Summer 1933	1 week	17.6 <sup>4</sup>	25.0	11.5	16.0	18.4	9.8	1.0	*	0.7	2.8
(b) Without private income			19.6 <sup>4</sup>	18.2	15.2	15.6	20.1	9.2	0.1	*	2.0	2.0
Average			18.5 <sup>4</sup>	22.0	12.8	15.9	19.1	9.7	0.5	*	1.5	2.3
Austria (excluding Vienna)	End of 1937	1 week	32.4	13.2	13.0 <sup>5</sup>	16.3	3.5 <sup>6</sup>		21.6			3.4
Belgium, Charleroi	July-Aug. 1932	1 month	14.4	15.5	4.5 <sup>3</sup>	35.5 <sup>3</sup>	10.4	9.0	4.8	5.9	*	2.8
United States, Cambridge <sup>7</sup>	1934-35	1 week	18.2	24.4	2.7	27.3	15.9		11.5			
Great Britain, Newcastle	Nov. 1933	1 week	18.5	23.2	*	12.1 <sup>8</sup>	4.8 <sup>6</sup>		41.2			4.3
Netherlands, Amsterdam	Sept. 1934											
(a) Income from unemployment assistance only			22.1	8.7	17.0	15.0	19.2	13.5	0.1	0.8	3.6	2.9
(b) With other incomes (not earnings)	Oct. 1934	13 weeks	25.7	7.6	14.8	16.0	18.3	12.9	0.0	1.1	3.5	3.4
(c) With earnings	Feb. 1935		28.1	8.9	14.2	13.2	17.1	13.1	0.0	1.1	4.2	4.5
Average			26.1	8.6	15.1	14.2	17.8	13.3	0.0	1.1	3.8	3.8
Netherlands, The Hague												
(a) Union workers	March-	13 weeks	28.0	10.1	14.0	15.4	15.4	14.9	0.0	2.1	*	3.4
(b) Non-union workers	May		26.9	12.0	13.3	17.2	14.6	14.2	0.0	1.7	*	3.3
(c) On relief	1935		28.6	11.1	15.1	13.7	15.9	13.5	0.0	2.2	*	3.4

\* No information available. <sup>1</sup> The data in the national enquiries are converted by the I.L.O. into a uniform unit by means of a standard scale (see *International Labour Review*, loc. cit., p. 821). <sup>2</sup> Includes dried peas, beans, and lentils. <sup>3</sup> Margarine included with and milk products. <sup>4</sup> Bread only. <sup>5</sup> Excludes vegetable oils. <sup>6</sup> Relates to potatoes. <sup>7</sup> Figures based on information secured from 203 families. <sup>8</sup> Relates to milk and eggs.

out of account the figures for Austria (1937) and Newcastle, which gave information for potatoes only.

The expenditure on *cereals and bread* ranged from 13.3 per cent. of total food expenditure in Zurich to 32.4 per cent. in Austria (1937). A low figure of 14.4 per cent. was also expended by the families in the Charleroi study. Here, again, the percentages followed closely those found for employed wage earners' families in the same country (13.3 and 13.2 in Switzerland and 14.4 and 14.5 in Belgium), but in Austria the percentage found for the unemployed was 32.4 in contrast with 19.0 for the employed group.

The proportionate expenditure on *meat and fish* ranged from 8.6 per cent. in the Amsterdam enquiry to over 30 per cent. for the unemployed families in the Merseyside study. Other investigations with low percentages were the Hague study (10.1 to 12.0 per cent.) and the Austrian enquiry of 1937 (13.2 per cent.); high proportions over 20 per cent. were obtained in the German, British and Cambridge enquiries.

As regards the percentages spent on *fats*, studies of type A show figures of less than 10 per cent. (Switzerland 3.8, Germany 7.1, and Czecho-Slovakia 8.2). These percentages were only slightly higher than the corresponding percentages for the employed families. In the case of enquiries of type B, except the Cambridge study, relatively higher percentages varying from 11.5 to 17.0 are found, and in these enquiries the group of fats is almost as important as the group of meats and fish.

Comparatively little information is given in table V for expenditure on other items. *Miscellaneous* foods, mainly sugar and coffee, show a percentage expenditure ranging from 6.3 in Germany to 14.9 for the trade union members' families in The Hague. *Alcoholic beverages* were of some importance in Switzerland (7.0 per cent.) and Charleroi (4.8 per cent.); *meals taken outside the home* (in soup kitchens, etc.) accounted for 7 per cent. of food expenditures for assisted families in the Merseyside enquiry, and from 3 to 4 per cent. of those for unemployed families in the Merseyside and the Swiss and Amsterdam studies.

#### *Quantities Consumed per Consumption Unit.*

Table VI presents for seven countries and nine enquiries information available on quantities of different foods consumed in the form of annual consumption per adult male unit.<sup>1</sup> In interpreting these results particular note should, of course, be taken of the period and season to which the figures relate.

*Milk, milk products, and eggs.* The consumption of *milk, milk products, and eggs*, per unit of consumption (milk and eggs being converted into kilogrammes) was lowest (47.2 kg., milk only) in Newcastle and highest (304.5 and 297.8 kg.) in Zurich and Sweden.

<sup>1</sup> The data in the original sources relating to different periods and expressed in different units (per head or per consumption unit established according to different scales) have been converted by the International Labour Office to annual data in terms of a uniform unit. For details as to the scale adopted, see *International Labour Review*, loc. cit., p. 821.

TABLE VI. ANNUAL QUANTITIES CONSUMED PER CONSUMPTION UNIT IN 7 COUNTRIES

Foodstuffs	Austria, Vienna	Sweden	Switzerland, Zurich	Austria (Excluding Vienna)	Netherlands, Amsterdam	Czecho- Slovakia	Netherlands, The Hague (trade union members)	Belgium, Charleroi	Great Britain, Newcastle
	1934	1933	1936-37	End of 1937	Oct. 1934- Feb. 1935	Feb. 1932	March-May 1935	July-Aug. 1932	Nov. 1933, Sept. 1934
	(Year)	(Year)	(Year)	(1 week)	(1-13 weeks)	(1 month)	(1-13 weeks)	(1 month)	(1 week)
	Yearly diets			Winter diets			Spring diet	Summer diet	Autumn diet
Bread	101.8	33.8	87.2	94.4	150.6	94.4	165.3	188.8	15.4
Cakes, biscuits, pastry	2.6	5.8	*	2.0	1.5	12.3	2.2	*	2.3
Flour	24.3	68.1	9.5	46.3	3.4	47.8	*	*	98.2
Cereals, macaroni, etc.	9.7	6.6	19.4	27.1	9.1	8.6	*	*	*
I. Bread and cereals	138.4	114.3	116.1	169.8	164.6	163.1	167.5	188.8 <sup>1</sup>	115.9
Beef, fresh	4.3	5.5	6.1	16.2	7.2	10.3	4.2	19.3	15.8
Pork, fresh	13.3 <sup>2</sup>	9.9	7.7		2.7	8.2	3.0	3.0	*
Mutton, fresh	0.1	0.2	*		0.8	1.1	1.0	*	2.5
Veal, fresh	1.1	3.9	1.2		0.4	1.9	1.3	*	*
Ham and bacon	* <sup>3</sup>	3.1	*		*	*	*	7.1	3.4
Sausages, charcuterie	5.6	9.8	13.1	1.7	1.5	11.2	1.6	*	6.4
Preserved meat	*	3.8	*	*	*	*	8.2 <sup>4</sup>	*	1.4
Fish	0.6	16.8	*	*	4.2	*	*	*	*
Poultry, other meat	9.6	5.2	3.3	*	0.4	2.5	1.2	*	5.8
II. Meat and fish	34.6	58.2	31.4	17.9	17.2	35.2	20.5	29.4 <sup>4</sup>	35.3 <sup>4</sup>
Animal fat	14.7	0.9	1.0	12.6	11.3	10.1	9.2	2.3	*
Margarine	3.8	13.4	—	5.3	11.8	3.9	13.9	22.5 <sup>5</sup>	*
Vegetable fats and oil <sup>6</sup>	18.5	—	9.6	*	0.4	*	0.9	*	*
III. Fats and oils <sup>6</sup>		14.3	10.6	17.9	23.5	14.0	24.0	24.8	*
Milk (litres)	112.6	259.1	273.4	124.4	125.1	149.1	139.9	154.1	47.2 <sup>7</sup>
Cream (litres)	0.4	5.0	*	*	*	*	0.0	*	*
Cheese	2.8	5.5	7.9	0.5	1.5	2.5	3.2	*	*
Butter	2.1	9.8	6.8	1.1	0.8	3.4	0.3	*	*
Eggs (number)	117	207	173	80	8	134	77	151	71
IV. Milk and milk products <sup>8</sup>	128.1	297.8	304.5	134.5	131.8	167.3	152.1	*	*
Peas and beans	3.1	1.8	*	*	9.9	3.0	*	*	*
Potatoes	59.9	110.9	66.9	107.3	151.7	130.6	172.3	205.9	53.1 <sup>9</sup>
Fresh vegetables	40.8	13.2	59.9	*	68.6	*	75.6	*	93.8 <sup>10</sup>
Fresh fruit	31.0	31.6 <sup>11</sup>	74.2	*	4.9	*	4.9	*	*
Preserved vegetables and fruit	*	0.4	6.8 <sup>12</sup>	*	8.0	*	*	*	*
V. Vegetables and fruit	134.8	157.9	207.8	*	243.1	*	252.8	*	*
Sugar	22.1	43.2	34.8	*	18.2	24.2	20.5	20.4	*
Condiments	3.3	3.2	*	*	4.9	5.1	*	*	*
Tea	0.1	0.0	0.3	*	1.9	*	*	*	*
Coffee, beans	5.7	6.0	4.0	*	2.7	0.6	*	5.8	*
Coffee, substitutes		*	*	*	*	6.2	*	4.2	*
Cocoa, chocolate		0.3	2.8	*	0.1	*	*	*	*

\* No information available. <sup>1</sup> Relates to bread only. <sup>2</sup> Ham and bacon included with pork. <sup>3</sup> Preserved beef. <sup>4</sup> Excludes fish. <sup>5</sup> Butter included with margarine. <sup>6</sup> Including vegetable oils in kg. <sup>7</sup> Includes condensed and drink milk in terms of liquid milk. <sup>8</sup> Including milk, cream and eggs, in kg. <sup>9</sup> Figures based on information for September 1934. <sup>10</sup> Figures based on information for November 1933. <sup>11</sup> Includes preserved fruit. <sup>12</sup> Includes nuts.



In the other countries the consumption varied between 128 and 167 kg. The exceptionally high figures for Sweden and Switzerland may perhaps be influenced by the fact that the sample included families who were employed during part of the year surveyed. The consumption of milk alone shows the same fluctuations as the group of milk and milk products as a whole. Zurich had the largest consumption of cheese (7.9 kg.); Sweden the largest consumption of butter (9.8 kg.). In the Netherlands and Austria exclusive of Vienna the consumption of butter was extremely low, the amount being 1.1 kg. or less. As to eggs, seasonal influences give in some cases a distorted picture of the annual egg consumption. The yearly diets, the Czech winter diet, and the summer diet for Charleroi, include over a hundred eggs per unit per year, while the winter diet for the unemployed in Amsterdam families, converted to a yearly basis, yields only 8 eggs as an annual ration.

Information for the entire group of *vegetables and fruit* is available only for the yearly enquiries and the Dutch studies, while for four out of the nine enquiries information is practically restricted to figures on potatoes. In any case the dominant item in the whole group is potatoes, which are, as regards weight, the most important single food item in Charleroi (206 kg.), The Hague (172 kg.), and Amsterdam (152 kg.). For the rest the consumption of fresh vegetables and fruit is particularly influenced by seasonal supplies as well as the geographical situation of the countries, and hence no attempt is made to draw definite conclusions as to the importance of fresh vegetables and fresh fruit in these diets.

The average consumption of *cereals and bread* ranged from 114.3 kg. in Sweden to 188.8 kg. in Belgium, the latter figure being limited to the consumption of bread. Other countries with low consumption included Switzerland (Zurich) and Great Britain (Newcastle). In four enquiries (Austria, the Netherlands — Amsterdam and The Hague — and Czecho-Slovakia), almost the same quantities (165 kg. to 170 kg.) were found. Bread was the most important item in the group in seven cases, while in two cases (Sweden and Newcastle) more flour than bread was consumed.

The range in consumption of *meat and fish* was from 17.2 kg. in Amsterdam to 58.2 kg. (16.8 being fish) in Sweden. Enquiries with low figures included besides the Amsterdam study those for Austria (17.9 kg.) and The Hague (20.5), the remaining studies indicating an annual consumption per unit of some 30 kg. The most important single item was beef in four cases (Amsterdam, The Hague, Charleroi, and Newcastle), while in two cases (Zurich and Czecho-Slovakia) sausages had the leading position, and in one case each fish (Sweden) and pork (Vienna) showed the highest consumption. In some studies, however, information on one or more of the particular items was lacking.

The annual consumption of *fats, margarine, and vegetable oils*, ranged from 10.6 kg. in Zurich to 24.8 kg. in Belgium, the latter figure including butter. If butter is added to this group the total fat intake (including butter) varied between relatively narrow limits, from 17.4 kg. in Czecho-Slovakia to 24.8 kg. in Charleroi.

## CONCLUSION

The present survey, in spite of the small number of countries covered, throws light on the expenditure habits of unemployed families and upon the effects of loss of income on food consumption; it thus answers certain questions as to how unemployment influences conditions of family living. It is limited to those aspects which can be represented by statistics, but by no means exhausts the data contained in the individual studies. Some of these are of the monographic type and present detailed accounts of the conditions under which each family lives; some give full data on housing and health and particulars of the mode of living. Some studies analyse in detail the way the unemployed have adjusted themselves to the failure of their income from earnings. It is hoped, however, that the summary presented here will help to place in relief the influence of unemployment upon expenditure and food consumption. A list of the sources used where more complete details will be found is appended.

## SOURCES

*Type A.*

**Germany** : STATISTISCHES REICHSAMT : *Die Lebenshaltung von 2,000 Arbeiter-Angestellten- und Beamten- Haushaltungen*, Vol. I. Berlin, 1932.

**Austria** : KAMMER FÜR ARBEITER UND ANGESTELLTE IN WIEN : *Wirtschafts-statistisches Jahrbuch*, 1936. Vienna, 1936.

**Great Britain** : D.C. JONES and others : *The Social Survey of Merseyside*. London, 1934.

**Sweden** : ADMINISTRATION DU TRAVAIL ET DE LA PRÉVOYANCE SOCIALE : *Les budgets de ménage dans les villes et dans les agglomérations industrielles vers 1933*. Stockholm, 1938.

**Switzerland** : STATISTISCHES AMT DER STADT ZÜRICH. *Zürcher Haushaltsrechnungen*, 1936-37. Zurich, 1938.

**Czecho-Slovakia** : STÁTNÍ ÚŘAD STATISTICKÝ (Dr. Robert KOLLAR and others) : *Der Einfluss der Krise auf die Familien beschäftigungsloser Arbeiter*. Prague, 1933.

*Type B.*

**Germany** : J. ROSEN : *Das Existenzminimum in Deutschland. Untersuchungen über die Untergrenze der Lebenshaltung*. Zurich, 1939.

**Austria** : STATISTISCHES LANDESAMT : *Statistische Nachrichten*, No. 8-9, Oct. 1938.

**Belgium** : G. JACQUEMYS : *Enquêtes sur les conditions de vie de chômeurs assurés, de grévistes syndiqués et d'ouvriers au travail*, Vol. V. Liège, 1934.

**United States** : E. W. GILBOY : "The Expenditure of the Unemployed" in *American Sociological Review*, Vol. 3, No. 6, Dec. 1938.

— "The Unemployed — Their Income and Expenditure" in *The American Economic Review*, Vol. XXVII, No. 2, June 1937.

— and H. L. SORENSEN : "Economics of Low-Income Diets" in *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, Vol. LI, No. 4, Aug. 1937.

**Great Britain**, Newcastle : MARKET SUPPLY COMMITTEE (not printed). CITY AND COUNTY OF NEWCASTLE-UPON-TYNE, HEALTH DEPT. : *A Study of the Diets of Sixty-nine Working Class Families*. Undated.

**Rhondda Valley** : E. L. HARRY and J. R. E. PHILLIPS : "Household Budgets in the Rhondda Valley", in *The Welsh Journal of Agriculture*, Vol. XIII, 1937.

**Netherlands**, Amsterdam : BUREAU MUNICIPAL DE STATISTIQUE, *Enquête sur les conditions de vie des chômeurs assistés et de leur ménage*. Amsterdam, 1937.  
The Hague : BUREAU DE STATISTIQUE DE LA VILLE DE LA HAYE : *Deuxième enquête sur les conditions de vie des ménages assistés*. The Hague, 1934.

# BIBLIOGRAPHY

## Book Notes

### INTERNATIONAL PUBLICATIONS

**International Labour Office.** *Methods of Collaboration between Public Authorities, Workers' Organisations and Employers' Organisations.* International Labour Conference, Twenty-sixth Session, Geneva, 1940. xii + 346 pp. 7s. 6d.; \$2; 8 Swiss francs.

At its Eighty-ninth Session in February 1940 the Governing Body of the International Labour Office decided to place on the agenda of this year's Session of the International Labour Conference the question of methods of collaboration between public authorities, workers' organisations, and employers' organisations. As soon as the war is over the world will be faced with the tremendous task of social and economic reconstruction, which cannot be carried out successfully unless there is close collaboration between the authorities and the organised forces of production and labour. The Governing Body felt that it would be opportune at the present juncture to arrange for a discussion of the whole question between the parties concerned. This report has been compiled with a view to such a discussion. It is divided into five parts — parts I to IV dealing respectively with the status of organisations within the State and collaboration between the authorities and the organisations in fixing wages and other conditions of employment, in the framing and application of industrial and social legislation, and in the economic field; part V indicates the main questions that might be taken by the Conference as a basis for discussion.

**International Labour Office.** *Silicosis.* Proceedings of the International Conference held in Geneva from 29 August to 9 September 1938. Studies and Reports, Series F (Industrial Hygiene), No. 17. Geneva, 1940. iv + 223 pp. 5s.; \$1.25.

The Second International Conference on Silicosis convened by the Governing Body of the International Labour Office was held in Geneva from 29 August to 9 September 1938. The proceedings took the form of a round-table conference, and the present report summarises the discussion and gives the text of the reports which were submitted by a number of experts. The printing and general distribution of this volume is due to the generous assistance provided by the Millbank Memorial Foundation, New York.

### OFFICIAL PUBLICATIONS

#### UNITED STATES.

**Department of Labor. Bureau of Labor Statistics. Industrial Relations Division.** *Union Scales of Wages and Hours in the Building Trades in 70 Cities.* May 15, 1937. Bulletin No. 657. Washington, 1938. 69 pp. 10 cents.

— **Children's Bureau.** *Conference on Children in a Democracy.* Papers and Discussions at the Initial Session, held in Washington, D.C. 26 April 1939. Washington, Govt. Printing Office, 1939. vi + 149 pp. 20 cents.

This volume, with a foreword by Miss Frances Perkins, contains a detailed account of the work of the Conference on Children in a Democracy held in Washing-

ton on 26 April 1939. Excerpts are given from the discussions of the four sections of the Conference dealing respectively with (1) the objectives of a democratic society in relation to children; (2) the economic foundations of family life and child welfare; (3) the development of children and youth in present-day American life; (4) the child and community services for health, education and social protection.

— **Division of Labor Standards, Federal Committee on Apprenticeship**, in co-operation with the **Department of the Interior, Office of Education**. *The Apprentice and the School*. Bulletin No. 27. Washington, 1939. vi + 13 pp. 10 cents.

A brief statement explaining the apprenticeship programme of the United States and indicating the respective responsibilities of Federal and State vocational education and labour departments in carrying it out.

— *Industrial Home-Work Legislation and Its Administration*, Bulletin No. 26. Washington, 1939. 133 pp.

**Federal Reserve System**. *The Federal Reserve System. Its Purposes and Functions*. Washington, 1939. 128 pp.

**National Resources Committee. Industrial Committee**. *Legal Problems in the Housing Field*. Part 1. *Private Housing Legal Problems*. By Horace RUSSELL. Part 2. *Legal Aspects of Public Housing*. By Leon H. KEYSERLING. A Technical Monograph on one Phase of Housing. Housing Monograph Series No. 2. Washington, Govt. Printing Office, 1939. 76 pp., tables. 25 cents.

— *Land, Materials, and Labor Costs*. A Technical Monograph on Housing. Housing Monograph Series No. 3. Washington, Govt. Printing Office, 1939. 101 pp., tables, diagrams. 30 cents.

Six articles by experts provide a factual approach to the problem of reduced housing costs. In various fields—site lay-out, choice of site, prefabricated construction, and revised building codes—proposed savings are critically analysed. Studies of building labour and materials discuss their respective cost and the effect of trade union practices and distribution methods. Statistics showing annual and hourly wages in comparable industries, and trends in prices and shipments of widely-used building materials, are an important contribution to the subject.

**Works Progress Administration. Division of Research**. *Rural Migration in the United States*. By C. E. LIVELY and Conrad TAEUBER. Research Monograph XIX. Washington, Govt. Printing Office, 1939. xxi + 192 pp., illustr., tables, diagrams.

This report contains a general survey of the migration movements of the rural population in the United States. It provides an analysis of internal migration since 1900 on the basis of census data, with special reference to the periods 1920-1930 and 1930-1935. The growth of population is considered to be one of the fundamental factors in migration; but a series of other factors have also been at work, and among these the report devotes particular attention to the mechanisation of agriculture, the quality of land, the proportion of workers in agriculture, agricultural income, educational facilities, and relief rates.

Data for approximately 22,000 rural families included in comparable field studies in seven States make possible an intensive study of the characteristics of migrant and non-migrant families in the same areas.

The report concludes that unguided migration has not been effective in preventing the need for relief. On the other hand, planned settlement must necessarily be on a small scale in terms of the large numbers of poverty-stricken rural people. "Rather a combination of directed migration, reduced birthrates, and improvement of social and economic conditions in general within overpopulated areas seems to offer the soundest approach to solving the long-term problems of widespread need in rural areas."

#### FLORIDA

**Department of Agriculture**. *Co-operative Agriculture*. Compiled by Federal Writer's Project of Florida. No. 92, New Series. Tallahassee, 1939. 58 pp.

## OHIO

**Department of Education. Bureau of Vocational Rehabilitation.** *Vocational Rehabilitation for Physically Disabled in Ohio.* Columbus, 1939. 57 pp., illustr.

## PENNSYLVANIA

**Department of Public Instruction.** *Vocational Industrial Evening Classes. State Policy Concerning Their Establishment, Operation, and Reimbursement.* Bulletin 330. Harrisburg, 1939. 47 pp.

## NON-OFFICIAL PUBLICATIONS

**Alami Ebrahim-Khalil.** *Le redressement économique de l'Iran.* Paris. Imprimerie artistique moderne, 1939. 220 pp.

A study of the development of the economic system of Iran during its present phase, which dates from 1930. The aim of the development has been to secure the economic stability of the country and the characteristic feature has been active State intervention in the various aspects of national life.

**Bajic, Dr. Stojan.** *Delovno pravo in vojna.* Ponatis iz Organizatorja, letnik XVII, st. 11-12, 1939, Ljubljana, tisk Delniške tiskarne d.d., 12 pp.

After a brief summary of the social and economic problems which have arisen for the belligerent and neutral States as a result of the war, the author goes on to consider from the point of view of Yugoslav legislation a number of questions connected with the influence of mobilisation or an armed conflict on labour law.

**Barnwell, Mildred G.** *Faces We See.* Gastonia, N.C., The Southern Combed Yarn Spinners Association, 1939. 112 pp., illustr. \$3.

A profusely illustrated descriptive account of the conditions of life and work of combed yarn mill employees in North Carolina.

**Boer, K. de.** *Als een toren in onze lage landen. Gedenkschrift uitgegeven bij gelegenheid van het vijf-en-twintigjarig bestaan van de coöperatieve groothandelsvereniging de handelskamer "Haka" G.A.* Rotterdam, Uitgave Handelskamer, 1939. 302 pp.

This volume, published on the occasion of the twenty-fifth anniversary of the founding of the Netherlands Co-operative Wholesale Society, gives a detailed history of that organisation, its structure and its achievements.

**Buyse, Omer.** *Actualités d'enseignement technique (A) le prolongement de la scolarité obligatoire. (B) La liberté subsidiée. (C) Le régime des subsides différentiels parmi les écoles techniques.* Brussels, Lielens, 1939. 64 pp.

The author, who is in favour of raising the school-leaving age beyond 14 years, indicates how advantageous it would be for a country like Belgium to secure this reform, not by making pupils remain at school for another year or two years of full-time attendance, but rather by making all young persons between the ages of 14 and 17 years attend supplementary courses graded over a period of three years.

**Castellino, Nicolò.** *Il lavoro nella chimica industriale.* Milan, Hoepli, 1940. xi + 390 pp., illustr. 45 lire.

The author deals with 24 elements or products which are of considerable importance in the chemical industry. In the light of the present stage of technical, economic and social development, he proceeds to examine successively the physical, economical and biological characteristics of these substances, their use in industry, the technical processes which they undergo, experimental and occupational pathology, protective measures and the steps taken in various countries to reduce the dangers to which the workers are exposed. The value of the book as a work of reference is increased by the alphabetical indexes, which have been very carefully prepared.

**Clark, F. Le Gros, and Titmuss, Richard M.** *Our Food Problem. A Study of National Security.* Harmondsworth, Penguin Books, 1939. 184 pp. 6d.

The first part of this book, by F. Le Gros Clark, is entitled "Britain's Food Supplies in War". It consists of a general review of the problems of provisioning Great Britain in wartime, and deals, among other topics, with oversea supplies, home supplies, and food storage. The second part, by both authors, is devoted to "The Stamina of the British People"; it discusses the health and physical conditions of the population, with special reference to diet, and includes chapters on the borderlands of health, the health of men of recruiting age, and the data available on dietary sufficiency.

**Contemporary World Politics. An Introduction to the Problems of International Relations.** Editors: Francis James Brown, Charles Hodges, Joseph Slabey Roucek. New York, John Wiley; London, Chapman, 1939. xiv + 718 pp. maps, diagrams. \$4.

This introduction to the problems of international relations, to which more than 30 persons have contributed, was published before war broke out and contains a number of extremely interesting chapters. Mr. W. L. Taylor gives a striking account of the International Labour Organisation.

**Egli, Dr. Hermann.** *Die rechtliche Stellung des Arztes in der Krankenversicherung nach dem Bundesgesetz über die Kranken- und Unfallversicherung vom 13. Juni 1911.* Bern, Huber. 95 pp.

An excellent study of the legal position of doctors under the Swiss subsidised sickness insurance scheme.

**Fenelon, K. G.** *Management and Labour.* London, Methuen, 1939. 276 pp.

This study is based on lectures given by the author at the Manchester College of Technology. It gives a survey of present-day personnel problems and practice in Great Britain and the United States. The subjects treated include the development of systematic methods of management, "scientific management" and industrial psychology, industrial fatigue and its reduction, working conditions and factory environment, industrial relations and labour management, foremanship, labour turnover, absenteeism, arbitration and conciliation in industrial disputes, statutory and voluntary industrial welfare, wage systems and State regulation of wages, industrial diseases and their prevention, industrial accidents, and the problem of economic security for employees.

**Fogelson, Samuel.** *Struktura demograficzna ludności żydowskiej w Polsce.* Instytut badań spraw narodowościowych. Prace wydziału populacyjno-migracyjnego, Nr. 7. Warsaw, 1939. 36 pp. 2 zł.

Study of the demographic structure of the Jewish population in Poland.

**Gant, V. A.** *Lead Poisoning.* Chicago, Industrial Health Book Co., 1939. 100 pp., tables.

This interesting contribution to the problem of lead poisoning contains the result of research into the normal concentration of lead in the tissues and includes a detailed description of the photometric dithizone method which the author has succeeded in making specific for lead and which he describes as the most reliable method. The study covers 51 fatal cases of suspected lead poisoning, 21 industrial cases of chronic lead poisoning, and 46 cases of non-fatal poisoning, of which 41 were industrial. The method above referred to has been applied to all the cases in question.

**Groupement patronal des bureaux commerciaux et maritimes.** *Résumé des principales dispositions légales régissant les rapports entre employeurs et employés.* Antwerp, 1938. 49 pp.

**Hepelmann, Hildegard.** *Beiträge zur Geschichte der Frauenarbeit im Weltkriege mit besonderer Würdigung der Verhältnisse im IV. Armee-korpsbezirk Magdeburg.* Münstersche Beiträge zur Geschichtsforschung. Herausgegeben von Dr. Anton Eitel. III. Folge. XXII. Heft. Münster, Coppenrath, 1938. xxix + 136 pp.

This work, which was written in 1938, deals with the conditions of employment of women in Germany during the war of 1914-1918, more particularly in the district of the Magdeburg army corps. In the light of the facts collected the author discusses what part would probably be played by women in a future war.

**Kimmel, Lewis H.** *The Availability of Bank Credit 1933-1938.* Conference Board Studies Number 242. New York, National Industrial Conference Board, 1939. xvii + 146 pp., map, tables.

**Kuczynski, Robert R.** *The Cameroons and Togoland. A Demographic Study.* Issued under the auspices of the Royal Institute of International Affairs. London, New York, Toronto, Oxford University Press, 1939. xviii + 579 pp., maps, tables. 30s.

This is the first attempt to assemble all the essential facts recorded which relate to the demographic situation in tropical African areas. The inadequacy of present statistics and above all the not infrequent disregard of arithmetic and logic in drawing conclusions from the statistics are clearly revealed, as well as the importance of knowledge of the population movements for the establishment of health and labour policies. It is to be noted, however, that the author finds that through the Mandates system the sources of information for these territories are more ample than for other African areas in a similar stage of development.

**Labour Research Department.** *Law in War-Time. A Workers' Guide.* Foreword by D. N. PRITT, K.C., M.P. London, 1939. 64 pp. 6d.

The purpose of this pamphlet is to explain in simple terms, for the guidance of the worker, the numerous Acts recently passed for the organisation of Great Britain to meet war conditions. It shows how the new legislation affects or may affect the worker in his industrial, economic and civic relationships. The subjects covered include the control of employment and employment conditions, unemployment assistance, air-raid precautions, evacuation, food prices, rents and debts, the conditions on which workers may be called upon to serve in the army and the scale of allowances for their dependants, compensation for war injuries, and the possible restriction of civil liberty through the powers conferred on the Government by the emergency legislation.

**Langrod, Dr. Jerzy Stefan.** *Zarys administracji agrarnej w Polsce.* Cracow, Warsaw, Księgarnia powszechna, 1939. 112 pp. 3.50 zł.

Outline of the administration of agrarian reform in Poland.

**Lester, Richard A., and Kidd, Charles V.** *The Case against Experience Rating in Unemployment Compensation.* Industrial Relations Monographs No. 2. New York, Industrial Relations Counselors, 1939. 60 pp. \$1.

A strong argument against the use of experience rating in determining the unemployment insurance tax to be levied on different employers. The authors contend that in an interdependent exchange economy controlled primarily by market forces it is not possible to allocate the responsibility for unemployment to individual employers. Since, in their opinion, unemployment is primarily a reflection of the general rate of spending for which society as a whole is responsible, a uniform tax rate, rather than experience rating, they argue, would be a fairer way of distributing the burden of social cost.

**Libermann, Kopel.** *La maroquinerie et les industries connexes.* Présentation par Léon KUBOWITZKI. Préface de Georges de LEENER. Deuxième édition. *Les Juifs dans l'industrie et le commerce belges.* Brussels, Conseil des associations juives, 1939. 123 pp. 6 diagrams.

On the basis of the available information concerning the employment of workers and foreign trade, the author shows how the leather goods industry, which was practically non-existent in Belgium before 1914, developed very greatly after the war, almost entirely as a result of the efforts of Jewish immigrants. The development of this industry therefore did not interfere with any other national activity but represents a clear gain for Belgian economy as a whole, which now exports leather articles that it previously had to obtain from abroad.

**Lindstrom, D. E., and Dawson, W. M.** *4-II Club Work: Effect on Capability and Personal Quality.* University of Illinois. Agricultural Experiment Station. Bulletin 451. Urbana, 1939. 69 pp. diagrams, tables.

**Lúna Pena, Enrique.** *La Economía al Servicio del Hombre. Supremacía de lo Humano en el Fuero del Trabajo.* Conferencia pronunciada el día 10 de mayo de 1938 en el "Cursillo de divulgación del Fuero del Trabajo", organizado por la Universidad de Zaragoza y el Servicio de Instrucción y Cultura de F.E.T. y de las J.O.N.S. Saragossa, F. Martinez, 1939. 23 pp.

**Luz Filho, Fabio.** *O Cooperativismo no Brasil e sua Evolução.* 35. Bibliotheca Juridica Brasileira. Rio de Janeiro, A Coelho Branco, 1939. 295 pp. Paper covers \$15, Bound \$20.

A thorough analysis of the legislation concerning co-operative societies and a detailed description of the present position of the co-operative movement in Brazil.

**Machinery and Allied Products Institute.** *Capital Goods and the American Enterprise System. A Statement of Economic and Social Principles underlying the Numerous Inter-Relationships of the Capital Goods Industries and the American Enterprise System.* Chicago, 1939. iv + 86 pp.

**Milliet, Sergio.** *Roteiro do Café e outros ensaios.* Vol. XXV. São Paulo, Coleção Departamento de Cultura, 1939. 188 pp., maps, diagrams, tables.

The two most important essays in this volume deal with the gradual extension of coffee plantations in the State of São Paulo and the development of agricultural smallholdings in that State. The other essays deal with statistical or sociological questions.

**Museo Social Argentino.** *Primer Congreso Argentino de Racionalización Administrativa (pública y privada) organizado por el Centro de Estudios Administrativos y reunido en la ciudad de Buenos Aires durante los días 27 al 30 de Setiembre de 1938.* Tomo I: *Trabajos Presentados.* 297 pp. Tomo II: *Antecedentes, Crónica, Resoluciones.* 62 pp. Buenos Aires.

It may be noted that the Congress of which this is a record accepted the definitions of the terms "management", "organisation" and "rationalisation" adopted by the Advisory Committee on Management of the International Labour Office at its Second Session in Geneva in 1937.

**National Recreation Association.** *Twenty-fourth National Recreation Congress. Boston, Massachusetts, 9-13 October 1939. Proceedings. General Theme: Recreation and the American Way of Life.* New York, 1939. 188 pp. \$1.

The report consists of addresses on recreation by men prominent in Government, educational, religious and industrial circles. There are also summaries of twenty-eight different discussion groups, including one on "Industry Faces the Recreational Needs of Workers". Of particular interest is a talk on "The Responsibility of Industry for Recreation" by Ralph L. LEE, of General Motors Corporation, in which he concludes that recreational activities in industry should spring from the expressed desires of the employees and develop under their direction, with the employer serving as counsellor and helper.

**Nederlandsch Economisch Instituut.** *Overzicht van de ontwikkeling der handelspolitiek van het koninkrijk der Nederlanden van 1923 tot en met 1938.* Samengesteld onder leiding van Prof. Mr. P. LIEFTINCK met medewerking van G. BROUWERS, W. GLASTRA, D. J. HULSHOFF POL, W. VEENSTRA. Haarlem, De Erven F. Bohn N.V., 1939. xv + 176 pp.

**Rowntree, Jennie E.** *This Problem of Food.* Public Affairs Pamphlets No. 33. New York, Public Affairs Committee, 1939. 32 pp., diagrams. 10 cents.

**Schnurrenberger, Dr. Elsa.** *Die Ausgabensteigerung und ihre Bekämpfung in der schweizerischen sozialen Krankenversicherung* (Zugleich als Dissertation



gedruckt), Fragen der Sozialversicherung. Herausgegeben vom Konkordat der Schweizerischen Krankenkassen N. 7. Berne. Huber. 136 pp.

A clear and exhaustive study of the problem of the expenditure of sickness funds and the steady increase in that expenditure. After considering the causes of this increase, the author describes certain measures for restricting it, such as concentration of funds, the establishment of federations of funds, the grant of public subsidies, the increase of contributions, the reduction of certain benefits, the possibility of influencing the incidence of disease (by prophylactic measures) and the revision of the relationships between sickness funds and medical practitioners.

**Simonsen, Roberto C.** *Brazil's Industrial Evolution*. Memorandum prepared at the request of the Brazilian Federal Council of Foreign Trade on occasion of the American University Mission's visit to Brazil, July 1939, São Paulo, Escola Livre de Sociologia e Política, 1939. 66 pp., diagrams.

The author gives an account of the conditions which favoured the industrial development of Brazil in the past, describes the present situation and, in conclusion, emphasises the fact that social policy must be accompanied by measures to increase production.

**Smoleński, Jerzy.** *Gęstość przyrostu naturalnego ludności i jej znaczenie międzynarodowe*. Instytut badań spraw narodowościowych. Prace wydziału populacyjno-migracyjnego, Nr. 5. Warsaw, 1939. 23 pp. 1 zł.

Study of the density and natural growth of the population and of their international significance, published by the Polish Institute for Demographic Research.

**Solari, Juan Antonio.** *Defensa Nacional Urgente. Hogares-Escuelas. Fondo de Previsión y Asistencia Médico-Social para la Infancia Escolar*. Second edition. Buenos Aires, 1938. 102 pp.

**Stewart, Maxwell S.** *Co-operatives in the U.S. A Balance Sheet*. New York, Public Affairs Committee, 1939. 32 pp. 10 cents.

**Sukiennicki, Hubert.** *Problem osadnictwa w Południowej Ameryce w rozważaniach międzynarodowych*. Warsaw, Wydawnictwo Ligi morskiej i kolonialnej, 1939. 43 pp., tables, map. 1.20 zł.

Study from the international standpoint of the problem of colonisation in South America, published by the Polish Maritime and Colonial League.

**Svennilson, Ingvar.** *Strukturella inslag i de senare årens ekonomiska utveckling*. Meddelanden från Konjunkturinstitutet, Ser. B: 1. Stockholm, 1939. 91 pp.

**Van Riel, J.** *Le service médical de la Compagnie minière des grands lacs africains et la situation sanitaire de la main-d'œuvre*. Institut royal colonial belge, Section des sciences naturelles et médicales. Mémoires. Tome IX, fasc. 2. Brussels, Van Campenhout, 1939. 58 pp., plates and map. 13 frs. (Belgian).

After an historical and geographical introduction, the author explains the organisation of the medical service of the Mining Company of the African Great Lakes. He then goes on to study the health conditions of Europeans in Africa, the hygienic conditions of indigenous workers (recruiting and acclimatisation, camps, nutrition and the stabilisation of labour), demographic changes and mortality and birth rates in camps, the general morbidity of indigenous workers and the diseases to which they are most commonly exposed. The booklet contains interesting statistical tables, photographs and a map of the district worked by the company in question.

**Wildeman, E. de** (in collaboration with Drs. TROLLI, DRICOT, and TESSITORE, and M. MORTIAUX). *Notes sur les plantes médicinales et alimentaires du Congo belge (Missions du "Foréani")*. Brussels, Van Campenhout, 1939, vi + 356 pp., tables. 60 frs. (Belgian).

In addition to a very full account of the problem of nutrition among indigenous workers, this volume contains useful information on the nutritive value of native

foods in North-Western-Rhodesia, the vegetable foods of various peoples in the Kwango, the chemical composition of the more important vegetable foods, the average content of organic elements in African foods, the principal products that should constitute the daily diet and the symptoms that may be attributed to a shortage of vitamins.

**Wüst, Albert.** *Vergleichende Zusammenstellung über die Entschädigung der Berufskrankheiten in den verschiedenen Industrieländern unter besonderer Berücksichtigung der schweizerischen Verhältnisse. (Beitrag zur Revision des Kranken- und Unfallversicherungsgesetzes).* Inaugural-Dissertation zur Erlangung der Doktorwürde der medizinischen Fakultät der Universität Zürich. Zürich, Fritz Frei, 1938. 72 pp.

**Yanulov, Iliya (Ivanouloff, Iliia).** *Razvitie na sotsialnoto zakonodatelstvo v Blgariya.* Sofia, 1939. 180 pp.

An account of various aspects of labour legislation in Bulgaria, including the right of association and combination, individual contracts and collective agreements, the legal protection of workers, social insurance, etc. One chapter deals with the influence of the International Labour Organisation on Bulgarian labour legislation.

## ERRATUM

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No. 4, April. "Regulation of Employment in Germany".

Page 390, line 7: for "This Decree" read: "An Order for the application of these provisions was issued on 10 March 1939, and this Order".