



INDUSTRIAL AND LABOUR INFORMATION

INTERNATIONAL LABOUR ORGANISATION

I.L.O. CORRESPONDENCE COMMITTEE ON ACCIDENT PREVENTION

A meeting of the Canadian and United States members of the Correspondence Committee on Accident Prevention of the International Labour Office was held in New York on 15 and 16 December 1942.

The following members attended the meeting: Mr. Cyril Ainsworth, Assistant Secretary, American Standards Association, New York; Lt. Col. Arthur Gaboury, General Manager, Quebec Association for the Prevention of Industrial Accidents, Montreal; Mr. Swen Kjaer, former Chief of the Industrial Accidents Division, U.S. Department of Labor, Washington, D.C.; Mr. R. B. Morley, General Manager, Industrial Accident Prevention Associations, Toronto; Col. Henry A. Reninger, former Director of the Safety and Welfare Department, Lehigh Portland Cement Company, Allentown, Pa.

The International Labour Office was represented by Mr. D. Vaage, Chief of the Safety Service.

Mr. Cyril Ainsworth was unanimously elected Chairman of the meeting.

The agenda included the following items:

- (1) Discussion of a preliminary plan for a Model Safety Code for Factories;
- (2) Discussion of a Draft Monograph on Safety in Dock Work;
- (3) Miscellaneous.

A detailed account of the meeting will be published in the next issue of the quarterly *Industrial Safety Survey*.

THE BRITISH GOVERNMENT AND THE INTERNATIONAL LABOUR ORGANISATION

In the January issue of the *International Labour Review*¹ a short account, based on a telegraphic summary, was given of the reference to the International Labour Organisation made by the British Foreign Secretary in the House of Commons on 2 December 1942. The Office has since received the official text of the speech; in view of its importance and for purposes of record the full text of the reference is reproduced below:

There are certain international services which have gone on during the war which have not died, and which may render great service after the war. There

¹ Vol. XLVII, No. 1, p. 62.

are the international health services and economic services and the work done by the International Labour Organisation. We shall need that work more than ever after the war. The I.L.O. has struggled manfully, and with considerable success, to remove certain of the evils which are among the root causes of war: low standards of living, insecurity, and unemployment. Unless we can cure those evils, no peace structure can be enduring. The I.L.O. must be strengthened and developed. I should like to see it become the main instrument giving effect to Article 5 of the Atlantic Charter.¹

PUBLICATIONS OF THE OFFICE

LIFE-SAVING MEASURES FOR MERCHANT SEAMEN IN TIME OF WAR

The report recently published by the International Labour Office under the above title was prepared at the request of the Joint Maritime Commission, which at its Twelfth Session, held in London from 26 to 30 June 1942², adopted a resolution asking the Office to communicate to Governments "a summary statement of the life-saving measures best calculated to protect merchant seamen in time of war".

The statement presents—it is believed for the first time in such a form—a concise exposition of the latest rules for the protection of the lives of merchant seamen in time of war, and may serve as a basis for any revision of such rules, nationally and internationally, which may take place when peace is restored.³

INDUSTRIAL SAFETY SURVEY

The final number (No. 4, October-December 1942) of Volume XVIII of *Industrial Safety Survey*, now issued quarterly, has just been published.

Volume XVIII, No.3 (July-September), issued in September 1942, contains an illustrated article on "Safety in Construction Work, other than Building Erection, in the United States", by Swen Kjaer, formerly Chief of the Industrial Accident Division in the Bureau of Labor Statistics, United States Department of Labor, who dealt with the building industry in a previous issue of the *Survey* (January-March 1942).

This number also contains notes on the work of accident prevention organisations in Argentina, Great Britain, and Sweden, summaries of new safety regulations in Australia (New South Wales), the Dominican Republic, France, Mexico, and the United States (New York), and extracts from the official accident reports and statistics of Canada (Ontario), Great Britain, Switzerland, and the United States (New York). There are eleven pages of reviews of periodicals and recent books.

The main feature of Volume XVIII, No. 4 (October-December 1942) is an important article, which has also been off-printed, on "Industrial Eyesight in War—in Peace", by Charles P. Tolman, of New York, consulting engineer for the National Society for the Prevention of Blindness.

In addition to the usual notes on the work of safety institutions and organisations, there is a special report of the 1942 Convention of the Industrial Accident Prevention Associations of Ontario. New legislation in Australia (Victoria), Belgium, Canada (Ontario and Alberta), New Zealand, Uruguay, and the Union of South Africa, is mentioned, and interesting items in the section for official reports and statistics are summaries of the annual statistics of industrial accidents for Canada and the United States and of the 19th Annual Report of the Safety in Mines Board in Great Britain. The rest of the number consists of the usual reviews of periodicals and books.

¹ *Parliamentary Debates, House of Commons, Official Report*, 2 Dec. 1942, Vol. 385, No. 10 col. 1259.

² Cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. XLVI, No. 2, Aug. 1942, p. 166.

³ *Studies and Reports, Series P (Seamen) No. 4, Montreal, 1942. 39 pp. 35c.; 1s.6d.*

OBITUARY

JOHN BERTRAM ANDREWS

The International Labour Office records with regret that Dr. John Bertram Andrews, secretary to the American Association for Labor Legislation for the past 32 years, died in New York on 4 January 1943 at the age of 62.

In John B. Andrews, the International Labour Organisation loses another of the outstanding pioneers to whose efforts, in the national and international fields, it owes so much. At the University of Wisconsin he was the pupil of John R. Commons, with whom he subsequently collaborated in preparing the well-known manual, *Principles of Labor Legislation*. After several years devoted to academic work he became secretary of the American Association for Labor Legislation in 1910, and in 1911 he founded the *American Labor Legislation Review*. His life from then on may be said to have been devoted entirely to the cause of labour legislation, and—more fortunate than many reformers—he was able to witness before his death a most encouraging measure of success for his campaigns, both in his own country and internationally.

His expert knowledge and advice were frequently of service to American authorities concerned with the solution of labour problems. Thus, from 1913 to 1914 he served as a member of the Mayor of New York's Committee on Unemployment. In 1921 he was a member of the President's Unemployment Conference. In 1931 he served as a member of the Pennsylvania Unemployment Commission, and a year later he served on the New York Commission on Workmen's Compensation. In 1937 he acted as consultant to the Social Security Board, and during the next two years he acted as a special agent of the United States Department of Labor. He also served as a member of the Advisory Council of the United States Employment Service.

Apart from his participation in the work of the International Association for Labor Legislation before the outbreak of the last war, his association with the International Labour Organisation may be said in a sense to have begun even before the latter's foundation, for on 14 September 1918 he submitted, by request, to the experts in the United States who, under the direction of Colonel House, were engaged in the preparation of American plans for the Peace Conference a memorandum on proposals for the insertion of labour provisions in the peace treaties. In 1919, at the first session of the International Labour Conference, in Washington, he acted as secretary to the Committee on Unhealthy Processes. In 1936, after the United States had become a Member of the Organisation, he had the satisfaction of attending the International Labour Conference in Geneva as a member of his country's delegation; and in 1938 he spent some months in Geneva acquiring a more intimate knowledge of the International Labour Office and its methods of work, and carrying out research.

In the course of his lifetime Dr. Andrews published a considerable number of books and studies on labour questions, many of which will certainly be regarded for some time to come as compulsory reading for serious students of problems of labour legislation. In his writings, as in all his campaigns, he showed a special preoccupation with concrete issues. He never tired of stressing the need for the adequate and efficient administration of labour law. "With no provision for its administration, a good labour law is dead", he once wrote¹; and some of the most valuable results of his efforts are to be found in the progress made in the United States in recent years in the organisation of factory inspection and labour law administration. He took a keen and active interest in the preparations for the discussion by the International Labour Conference in 1940 of the question of the organisation of labour inspection, with a view to the possible adoption of a Draft Convention, and contributed valuable material to the Office's preliminary report on the subject.

EDO FIMMEN

The International Labour Office regrets to announce the death, on 14 December 1942 in Mexico, of Mr. Edo Fimmen; he was 61 years of age. Mr. Fimmen had long been associated with the Inter-

¹ *Labor Laws in Action*, p. xiv.

national Labour Organisation. As secretary of the International Transport Workers' Federation he was elected secretary of the Workers' Group at the Maritime Sessions of the International Labour Conference in 1929 and 1936, becoming a member of the Joint Maritime Commission. He was a familiar figure at other Sessions of the International Labour Conference, where his presence, although sometimes in an unofficial capacity, was warmly welcomed by workers' representatives, to whom his great knowledge of world transport problems enabled him to offer expert guidance in the consideration of such questions as those of seafarers, dock workers, railwaymen, and road transport workers.

The news of Mr. Fimmen's death has evoked wide recognition of the importance of his work both by the trade union movement and by leaders of public life. At a memorial service held in London on 6 January, Dr. Jan van den Tempel, Netherlands Minister for Social Affairs, said that Mr. Fimmen's devotion to the cause of labour "was a passion that burned in him throughout his life". The Netherlands Government, Dr. van den Tempel declared, "fully realised Fimmen's national and international importance". He had served the prestige of his own country as a prominent leader of the international labour movement and had enriched Dutch public life, contributing to its social and cultural development. Dr. van den Tempel honoured Mr. Fimmen's memory not only as a friend and comrade but also in the name of the Netherlands Government, and declared that it was to a great extent due to pre-war pioneers like Mr. Fimmen that the ardent desire for a better world lived in democratic peoples and that large groups formerly averse to social reforms now wanted to assist in bringing them about.

The Acting Director of the International Labour Office, Mr. E. J. Phelan, sent the following telegram to the headquarters of the International Transport Workers' Federation in Great Britain:

Deeply regret to learn death of Edo Fimmen, whom we shall always remember as true friend and supporter of the International Labour Office. Please accept expression of profound sympathy.

PANGERAN RADEN ADIPATI ARIO SOEJONO

The International Labour Office has learned with deep regret of the death in London of Pangeran Raden Adipati Ario Soejono, Minister without Portfolio and first Indonesian member of the Netherlands Cabinet. He had previously been a member of the Volksraad and of the High Council of the Netherlands Indies and had held many other administrative posts. Pangeran Soejono took a keen interest in the work of the International Labour Organisation on behalf of workers in colonial territories, and was technical adviser to the Netherlands Government delegates at the 1930 and 1935 sessions of the International Labour Conference. Coming at this time, the death of "this noble son of the Javanese people, this loyal patriot, faithful Minister and co-worker"—to use the words of Dr. Gerbrandy, the Netherlands Premier—is a severe loss to the Netherlands Government, to the Netherlands Indies, and to international public life.

ROLAND VENABLES VERNON

The International Labour Office has learned with very great regret of the death on 3 November 1942 of Mr. Roland Venables Vernon, who retired in 1937 from the British civil service after a long and distinguished career. He was associated with the work

of the International Labour Organisation both as head of the Division of the Colonial Office which was responsible for labour in the colonies and as representative of the British Government at the 1929, 1930, 1935, and 1936 Sessions of the Conference, when the Conventions and Recommendations on forced labour and the recruiting of indigenous labour were discussed and adopted. Mr. Vernon took a very active part in the discussions of these measures and it was in no small degree due to his understanding, broad vision, and humanity that the foundations of a code of indigenous labour were thus successfully laid.

SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC POLICY

INTER-AMERICAN RECOMMENDATIONS ON POST-WAR PLANNING

Preliminary recommendations on post-war problems have been formulated by the Inter-American Juridical Committee, and were approved in November 1942 by the Governing Board of the Pan American Union, for submission to the Governments of the American Republics. This action was taken in pursuance of the resolution on post-war problems adopted in Rio de Janeiro in January 1942 by the Third Meeting of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the American Republics.¹

In submitting the preliminary recommendations to the Governments for consideration, the Governing Board of the Union requested them to send to the Pan American Union their observations and comments, and, in addition, to forward such other projects as they may wish to present on international organisation in the juridical and political fields and in the field of international security, as well as in the economic field, for transmission respectively to the Inter-American Juridical Committee and to the Inter-American Financial and Economic Advisory Committee. The latter has been requested to undertake the study and formulation of recommendations on post-war economic organisation as a preliminary step to the convocation of the Inter-American Technical Economic Conference contemplated by the Rio Resolution.

The sections in the preliminary recommendations which refer to economic and social policy and to the role of the International Labour Organisation are summarised below.

Economic Factors.

The recommendations call for the elimination of both economic imperialism and economic nationalism, stating:

The community of nations, acting through its appropriate agencies, must supervise the exploitation of undeveloped territories.

These territories must be administered in accordance with the principle of equality of treatment, so that all States may have equal access to the raw materials which they produce and may be able to sell their manufactured goods in the markets of these territories upon equal terms.

A system of free competition should be established in these territories, which will prevent particular States from having exclusive opportunities for the investment of capital and for other forms of economic enterprise,

¹ Resolution XXV (cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. XLV, No. 4, Apr. 1942, p. 416).

and which will promote the gradual progress of these territories and the well-being of their native populations, while at the same time protecting the interests of the international community.

Nations must recognise their economic interdependence, and that in consequence their right to regulate their own economic activities should not be without limitations.

The future international organisation must give special attention to the co-ordination of world economy, and must endeavour to obtain concrete solutions for the problems which it presents, seeking a means of reconciling national self-determination with the predominant interest of the whole community of nations.

Nations must make every effort to lower tariff barriers and remove other restrictions upon commerce, and to increase as far as possible the free and full exchange of articles and services among the members of the international community, so as to lessen as far as possible the inequalities of natural resources and to promote the mutual well-being of their respective peoples.

In order to bring about economic disarmament, the system of ruthless competition and trade rivalries must be eliminated, and in its place must be substituted measures of co-operation looking to the general welfare of the international community.

In discussing the above conclusions, attention is called in the introductory section to the work done by the League of Nations in the inter-war period in attempting to deal with these problems, and it is explained that, except for its limited provisions in respect of territories put under mandate, the Covenant of the League of Nations contained no provisions looking to co-operation in the field of international economic relations.

Social Factors.

The recommendations urge the elimination of the social factors of war:

Nations must recognise that social justice and the improvement of the conditions of life for the individual citizen have a relation to the maintenance of peace and for that reason must play an essential part in any plans of international reconstruction.

Nations must endeavour to raise the standard of life of their citizens and must guarantee to each individual a degree of economic security which will permit him to live in the sufficiency and freedom from fear necessary to enable him to develop his personality and to enjoy the benefits of spiritual and material freedom to which all men have a right.

The realisation of these objectives is primarily the task of each separate State; but only by parallel international action can they be adequately secured.

Nations must organise their national industry so as to meet the needs of all the people and not merely the interests of privileged groups; and while having in mind the interests of their own peoples they must also give consideration to the interests and necessities of the international community.

The social services of the new international organisation must be expanded so as to include tasks which are beyond the reach of the individual State. The work of the International Labour Office must be continued to the fullest possible extent.

In explaining the recommendations concerned with social factors, the introductory section points out that the International Labour Organisation was constituted because statesmen recognised that in the years preceding the first world war the welfare of the great body of the people and the standard of living and economic security of the working classes did not reach the level warranted by the industrial development of the period, while at the same time conditions within the individual States created an atmosphere unfavourable to effective international co-operation, owing to the reaction of domestic conditions upon international relations. For this reason, when the League of Nations was organised, the International Labour Organisation was also set up, with a Constitution which recognises the situation by beginning with the statement that "universal peace . . . can be established only if it is based upon social justice". After pointing to the work of the International Labour Organisation during the inter-war period, the report sums up the situation:

While it is true that in consequence of the more advanced social legislation of the past two decades, supported by the activities of the International Labour Office, the economic status of labour improved in some countries, in other countries the demands of the great masses for social justice remained in large degree unsatisfied. In certain respects the situation took on new and more serious aspects due to the inability, or the unwillingness, of States to organise their domestic economies in terms of world co-operation. It is no exaggeration to say that half of the world's population lived below the minimum level of subsistence, not because the means of a better life were lacking, but because political nationalism no less than economic nationalism prevented the necessary co-operation between States. Industry was not organised at the service of the community, but rather with the object of producing profits for some of its members. There was unbridled competition within each State, and between States a struggle without quarter for the conquest of foreign markets. This system, operating without plan or regulation, may have given work for the time to a larger number of persons; but in the end it had the opposite effect.

The resulting economic insecurity helped to create in certain peoples sentiments of hostility towards the people of other countries as being responsible for their suffering. Conditions due in part to inadequate domestic planning were held to be due to the deliberate act of foreign Governments. The inequality of social conditions between different countries became more glaring. Lower living standards created hatred and suspicion, and the class struggle in certain countries became acute. Extreme poverty existed side by side with great wealth, and the social phenomenon of our times was to be witnessed: millions upon millions demanding in vain the right to work. If domestic peace and order were disturbed as a result, it was too much to expect that permanent peace between nations could be built upon such unstable foundations.¹

UNITED STATES RECONSTRUCTION POLICY

Two important statements on post-war policy have been made recently by the President and the Vice-President of the United States. The parts of these speeches dealing with economic and social questions are summarised below. Further, an indication that the need for planning for the post-war period is being realised among both business men and trade unionists is to be found in the appointment of a Post-War Planning Committee by the American Federation of Labor and the establishment of a Committee for Economic Development by a group of business and industrial leaders.

STATEMENT BY THE PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES

President Roosevelt, in his annual message to Congress delivered on 7 January 1943, after reviewing the course of the war on the fighting fronts, the production front, and the home front, outlined the basic objectives for which the war is being waged.

He defined these objectives in the following terms:

We should never forget the things we are fighting for. But, at this critical period of the war, we should confine ourselves to the larger objectives and not get bogged down in argument over methods and details.

We, and all the United Nations, want a decent peace and a durable peace. In the years between the end of the first world war and the beginning of the second world war, we were not living under a decent or durable peace.

I have reason to know that our boys at the front are concerned with two broad aims beyond the winning of the war; and their thinking and their

¹ PAN AMERICAN UNION: *Preliminary Recommendation on Post War Problems* (Washington, D.C., Nov. 1942).

opinion coincide with what most Americans here back home are mulling over. They know, and we know, that it would be inconceivable—it would, indeed, be sacrilegious—if this nation and the world did not attain some real, lasting good out of all these efforts and sufferings and bloodshed and death.

The men in our armed forces want a lasting peace, and, equally, they want permanent employment for themselves, their families and their neighbours when they are mustered out at the end of the war.

Two years ago I spoke in my annual message of four freedoms. The blessings of two of them—freedom of speech and freedom of religion—are an essential part of the very life of this nation; and we hope that these blessings will be granted to all men everywhere.

The people at home and the people at the front—men and women—are wondering a little about the third freedom, freedom from want. To them it means that when they are mustered out, when war production is converted to the economy of peace, they will have the right to expect full employment—for themselves and for all able-bodied men and women in America who want to work.

They expect the opportunity to work, to run their farms, their stores, to earn decent wages. They are eager to face the risks inherent in our system of free enterprise.

They do not want a post-war America which suffers from under-nourishment or slums—or the dole. They want no get-rich-quick era of bogus "prosperity" which will end for them in selling apples on a street corner, as happened after the bursting of the boom in 1929.

When you talk with our young men and women, you will find they want to work for themselves and their families; they consider they have the right to work; and they know that after the last war their fathers did not gain that right.

When you talk with our young men and women, you will find that with the opportunity for employment they want assurance against the evils of all major economic hazards—assurance that will extend from the cradle to the grave. This great Government can and must provide this assurance.

I have been told that this is no time to speak of a better America after the war. I am told it is a grave error on my part.

I dissent. If the security of the individual citizen, or the family, should become a subject of national debate, the country knows where I stand.

I say this now to this Seventy-eighth Congress, because it is wholly possible that freedom from want—the right of employment and the right of assurance against life's hazards—will loom very large as a task of America during the coming two years.

I trust it will not be regarded as an issue, but rather as a task for all of us to study sympathetically, to work out with a constant regard for the attainment of the objective, with fairness to all and with injustice to none.

In this war of survival we must keep before our minds not only the evil things we fight against but the good things we are fighting for. We fight to retain a great past, and we fight to gain a greater future.

Let us remember that economic safety for the America of the future is threatened unless a greater economic stability comes to the rest of the world. We cannot make America an island in either a military or an economic sense. Hitlerism, like any other form of crime or disease, can grow from the evil seeds of economic as well as military feudalism.

Emphasising that victory in the war was the first and greatest goal, President Roosevelt continued: "Victory in the peace is the next. That means striving toward the enlargement of security of man here and throughout the world, and finally, striving for the fourth freedom, freedom from fear." Most Americans, he said, realised more clearly than ever before that modern war equipment in the hands of the aggressor nations could bring danger to the national existence of the United States or to that of any other nation or island or continent. Disarmament was necessary, and the failure to achieve a formula for permanent peace after the last war had taught the lesson that peace cannot be maintained by good intentions alone. The United Nations, which represented an overwhelming majority of the population of the world, bound together by solemn agreement, could and must remain united for the maintenance of peace. The freedom-loving peoples everywhere were demanding that this must be done. President Roosevelt concluded that:

The issue of this war is the basic issue between those who believe in mankind and those who do not—the ancient issue between those who put their faith in the people and those who put their faith in dictators and tyrants. There have always been those who did not believe in the people, who attempted to block their forward movement across history, to force them back to servility and suffering and silence.

The people have now gathered their strength. They are moving forward in their might and power, and no force, no combination of forces, no trickery, deceit, or violence, can stop them now. They see before them the hope of the world: a decent, secure, peaceful life for all men everywhere.¹

STATEMENT BY THE VICE-PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES

In an address delivered on 28 December 1942, the Vice-President of the United States, Mr. Henry A. Wallace, called for the development of international machinery, based on the United Nations' agreements, "for preventing economic warfare and enhancing economic peace between nations" in the future.

Outlining the problems to be faced in assuring the attainment of peace, the Vice-President said:

Without doubt, in the building of a new and enduring peace, economic reconstruction will play an all-important role. Unless there is careful planning in advance, the return of peace can in a few years bring a shock even worse than the shock of war.

He then described the extent of the wartime expenditure of the United States and of the conversion of United States industry to wartime uses, and, turning to the effects on the future, continued:

It should be obvious to practically everyone that, without well-planned and vigorous action, a series of economic storms will follow the war. These will take the form of inflation and temporary scarcities, followed by surpluses, crashing prices, unemployment, bankruptcy, and, in some cases, violent revolution. If there is a lack of well-planned vigorous action, it is quite conceivable that the human misery in certain countries after the war may be even greater than during the war.

It is true that in the long run any nation, like any individual, must follow the principle of self-help, must look to its own efforts to raise its own living standards. But it is also true that stronger nations, like our own, can provide guidance, technical advice, and in some cases capital investment to help those nations which are just starting on the path of industrialisation. Our experience with the Philippines is a case in point.

A policy of promoting higher living standards throughout the world, would also benefit the United States:

Our surplus will be far greater than ever within a few years after this war comes to an end. We can be decently human and really hard-headed if we exchange our post-war surplus for goods, for peace, and for improving the standard of living of so-called backward peoples. We can get more for our surplus production in this way than by high-tariff, penny-pinching, isolationist policies which hide under the cloak of 100 per cent. Americanism.

Self-interest alone should be sufficient to make the United States deeply concerned with the contentment and well-being of the other peoples of the world. For, as President Roosevelt has pointed out, such contentment will be an important contribution to world peace, and it is only when other peoples are prosperous and economically productive that we can find export markets among them for the products of our factories and our farms. A world family of nations cannot be really healthy unless the various nations in that family are getting along well in their own internal affairs. The first concern of each nation must be the well-being of its own people. That is as true of the United States as of any other nation.

¹ *Department of State Bulletin*, Vol. VIII, No. 185, 9 Jan. 1943.

During the war we have full employment here in the United States, and the problem is not to find jobs for the workers but to find workers for the jobs. After the war, it will be vital to make sure that another period of unemployment does not come on. With this end in view, the suggestion has been made that Congress should formally recognise the maintenance of full employment as a declared national policy, just as it now recognises as national policies the right of farmers to parity of income with other groups and the right of workers to unemployment insurance and old-age annuities.

Since he held that "maintenance of full employment and the highest possible level of national income should be the joint responsibility of private business and of Government", he welcomed the planning that was being done by business groups in contact with Government agencies for preparing for the shift from a Government-financed war programme to a privately financed programme of peacetime activity, and pointed out that there must be close relations between Government and business in this connection:

We must keep prices in control. We must have continuity in the flow of incomes to consumers and from consumers to the industries of city and farm. We must have a national system of job placement. We must have definite plans for the conversion of key industries to peacetime work.

When the war is over, the more quickly private enterprise gets back into peacetime production and sells its goods to peacetime markets here and abroad, the more quickly will the level of Government wartime expenditures be reduced. No country needs deficit spending when private enterprise, either through its own efforts or in co-operation with Government, is able to maintain full employment. Let us hope that the best thought of both business and Government can be focused on this problem, which lies at the heart of our American democracy and our American way of life.

The problem of full employment in peacetime production as well as in wartime production was recognised by all, said Vice-President Wallace, and the solution given to it would be the test of statesmanship on the home front, just as the ability to co-operate with other nations for peace and improved living standards would be the test of statesmanship on the international front. Looking at the question realistically from the standpoint of finding the common meeting ground on which the people of the world could stand, he saw this meeting ground in the security of the plain folks against oppression and against war. The challenge of the present generation, he said, was the challenge of the new democracy:

In the new democracy there will be a place for everyone—the worker, the farmer, the business man, the housewife, the doctor, the salesman, the teacher, the student, the store clerk, the taxi driver, the preacher, the engineer—all the millions who make up our modern world.

This new democracy will give us freedom such as we have never known, but only if as individuals we perform our duties with willing hearts. It will be an adventure in sharing—sharing of duties and responsibilities, and sharing of the joy that can come from the give-and-take of human contacts and fruitful daily living.

Out of it, if we all do our part, there will be new opportunity and new security for the common man—that blend of liberty and unity which is the bright goal of millions who are bravely offering up their lives on the battlefronts of the world.¹

APPOINTMENT OF A POST-WAR PLANNING COMMITTEE BY THE AMERICAN FEDERATION OF LABOR

A Post-War Planning Committee has recently been appointed by the President of the American Federation of Labor, consisting of nine members under the chairmanship of Mr. Matthew Woll, Vice-President of the Federation.

It will be the function of the Committee to investigate and report on the following subjects:

¹ *The New York Times*, 29 Dec. 1942.

- (1) A plan for labour representation in the peace conferences which will follow victory;
- (2) Specific proposals which the labour representatives should seek to have incorporated in the peace treaty;
- (3) A broad programme of post-war reconstruction to prevent a disastrous depression;
- (4) Expansion of social, economic, and political security for America and the peoples of all lands.

In connection with the appointment of this Committee, Mr. Green, the President of the A.F. of L., made the following statement:

We must start planning now for the emergencies that will face us when the war is over. We cannot afford to wait until victory is won. Without adequate preparation and a specific programme to meet that day of victory, we may find—as in the last war—that the battle was in vain.

We know our objectives. We want lasting peace. We want equity between nations. We want freedom and opportunity for all nations. We want social and economic security for all peoples.

These are the things labour in America is working and fighting for. These are the objectives which will spell the real victory and the permanent destruction of the forces of hate and oppression against which we are now engaged in a desperate war.

I firmly hope that through the findings of this Committee the American Federation of Labor will be able to show that labour is measuring up to its responsibilities and is capable of exerting real leadership for a better world.¹

COMMITTEE FOR ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

A Committee for Economic Development has been set up by a group of business and industry leaders under the chairmanship of Mr. Paul G. Hoffman, President of the Studebaker Corporation, to lay plans for assisting commerce and industry to meet the problems of reconstruction.²

Composition.

The Committee has been constituted in response to a suggestion made by the Secretary of Commerce several months ago that a group of business men, including representatives of the large business organisations, should accept the responsibility for assisting commerce and industry in meeting issues with which the nation's economy would be confronted when hostilities cease. Although the Committee is in close contact both with the Department of Commerce and with a number of other Government departments, it is an entirely independent group consisting of a Board of Trustees, regional chairmen (one for each federal reserve district), district chairmen (one for every million of population), a Research Committee, and a Research Advisory Board. In addition to the regional and district chairmen, there will be chairmen for all principal towns and cities in the various trading areas of the nation, in order that the Committee may be able, through a community approach, to help small business men as well as those working in the field of national policy.

Programme.

The objectives of the Committee have been defined as: first, to stimulate post-war planning by individual companies and to provide means for exchanging information on the best practical procedures for doing the job; and, second, to foster research into the problem of providing the best possible environment under which to do a job of maintaining high-level employment. The first objective is being implemented through the regional chairmen of the Committee, who are to build up local, city, and community interest, working through the best qualified existing groups, in regular meetings to study post-war problems and possible

¹ AMERICAN FEDERATION OF LABOR: *Weekly News Service* (Washington, D.C.), Vol. 32, No. 52, 28 Dec. 1942.

² For an analysis of the post-war planning programme of the National Association of Manufacturers, cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. XLVI, No. 5, Nov. 1942, p. 582.

solutions. The Committee is preparing a guide to post-war planning for companies to study and apply to their own situations. The second objective is entrusted to the Research Committee, which will conduct studies of national and business policies affecting employment and productivity.

Statement by the Chairman of the Committee.

In announcing the formation of the Committee, its chairman said:

The Committee in no sense will attempt over-all national planning. This is an effort by business men to stimulate maximum productivity and high employment after the war. The success which business will have in providing a high volume of employment depends in part on conditions beyond its control. This fact, however, does not relieve any business man of the responsibility for exerting his own maximum effort to create and maintain as many real jobs as possible.

To achieve the Committee's employment object, the nation must produce and sell an annual output worth between 135 and 150 billion dollars, or 35 to 50 per cent. more than in 1940, when the national income was approximately 100 billion dollars.¹

POST-WAR RECONSTRUCTION IN INDIA

The establishment of machinery for the consideration of post-war questions in India has previously been mentioned in these pages.² Additional steps have since been taken and statements on future policy have also been made. These are summarised below.

Government Planning Committee.

Reference has previously been made in these pages³ to the appointment of an inter-departmental Committee by the Government of India for the consideration of questions relating to post-war reconstruction. The planning sub-committee, dealing with trade, international trade policy and agricultural policy, of the Committee has been constituted and met in New Delhi in May 1942. In order to secure as much information as possible on the trends of opinion concerning post-war policy, especially in relation to international trade and social and economic development, the Government has sent its Economic Adviser, Sir Theodore Gregory, on mission to London.⁴

Action by the United Provinces Government.

A Revenue Reserve Fund has been set up by the Government of the United Provinces. It has been decided that the first charge on the fund will be expenditure relating to civil defence, and that the balance should be used for reconstruction after the war. A sum of 938,000 rupees has been paid into the fund from the surplus of the revenue for 1941-42, in addition to the sum of 6,000,000 rupees transferred from the account for that year for the purpose of starting the fund. It is expected that a further sum of 4,000,000 rupees will be added from the estimated surplus for 1942-43.⁵

Provision for the Welfare of Indian Soldiers Demobilised after the War.

The Government of India has had under consideration the question of making provision for the welfare of Indian soldiers during the period of demobilisation after the war. Since 1932 deferred pay at the rate of 1 rupee per head per month has been allowed to be made available in a lump sum at the time of the release from military service. As from April 1942 the amount has been increased to 2 rupees per head per month in the case of soldiers, and 1 rupee per head per month has been provided in the case of enrolled non-combatants. It has, moreover, been decided that similar additional sums will be paid annually into a fund to be utilised after the war for the purpose of financing special schemes for promoting the welfare of demobilised soldiers. The schemes will be worked out by the Reconstruction Committee in consultation with Provincial Governments.⁶

¹ *Modern Industry*, 15 Dec. 1942; *The New York Times*, 2 Jan. 1943.

² Cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. XLIV, No. 4, Oct. 1941, p. 418; No. 5, Nov. 1941, pp. 559-560; Vol. XLV, No. 3, Mar. 1942, p. 309.

³ *Idem.* Vol. XLIV, No. 5, Nov. 1941, p. 559.

⁴ *The Hindu* (Madras), 14 July 1942.

⁵ *The Statesman* (New Delhi), 27 July 1942.

⁶ *Indian Information* (New Delhi), 15 July 1942; communication to the I.L.O.

Statements of the Member for Labour.

The following information on Government policy in respect of various questions concerning social and industrial development is taken from statements by the Member for Labour of the Viceroy's Executive Council, Dr. B. R. Ambedkar.

Appointment of welfare officers. In October 1942 the Member for Labour announced the appointment of eight officers to assist Mr. Nimbkar, the Labour Welfare Officer of the Central Government.¹ These officers, who will be stationed in the provinces, will maintain direct contact between the Central Government and labour, and will report to the former on conditions of work in their respective areas.

Regulation of industrial relations. Referring to the emergency legislation restricting the right to strike and the movement of labour², he observed that it had introduced two new principles. One was that of compulsory arbitration and Government enforcement of the arbitrator's award. The other was that the Government could make statutory provision for fair wages and conditions of service. Both these principles, he hoped, had come to stay.

Provision for technical training. Dr. Ambedkar also expressed the hope that the technical training schemes for providing skilled labour for war industries³ would become a permanent part of the educational structure of the country.⁴

Development of mineral resources. In reply to interpellations in the Central Legislature on 15 September 1942, Dr. Ambedkar stated with reference to the newly started Utilisation Branch of the Geological Survey of India that a detailed programme of activities had been drawn up. All minerals which were required for war purposes and in respect of which there were reasonable prospects of working in India had been included in the programme. As for the mining of zinc and lead, most of the machinery required had been received. The exploitation of sulphur deposits was well in hand, and steps to increase the production of mica were under consideration. The ultimate aim was to make the country as self-sufficient as possible in respect of minerals needed for the war effort.

The Labour Department's policy concerning the employment of Europeans, he said, was, whenever European experts were appointed, to appoint suitable Indians under them, who could be given the necessary training and who would succeed to substantive posts in due course. Certain British and other European evacuees from Burma, with the requisite experience of zinc and lead mining, had been employed by the Government, but Indians had been appointed under them.

Cost-of-living bonus to railway employees. The cost-of-living bonus granted to workers⁵, he also remarked, fully met the increased cost of living so far as those in the lower grades were concerned. The scale of the bonus had been recently enhanced to a considerable extent in the case of railwaymen and there was no justification for a further revision at the present time. Grain shops at which food grains were sold at concession rates had been and were being opened by a number of railways.⁶

RECONSTRUCTION PROGRAMME OF BRITISH INDUSTRIALISTS

A NATIONAL POLICY FOR INDUSTRY

A group of 120 industrialists, connected with a wide range of British manufacturing industry, have issued a report entitled *A National Policy for Industry* which puts forward, as a contribution to current discussion on reconstruction, recommendations as to the place which industry should occupy in the framework of society.

¹ Cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. XLVI, No. 5, Nov. 1942, p. 588.

² *Idem*, Vol. XLVI, No. 4, Oct. 1942, pp. 457-458 and 483.

³ For a note on the development of these schemes and their present scope, communicated by the Department of Labour of the Government of India, see below, p. 234.

⁴ *The Times*, 31 Oct. 1942.

⁵ Cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. XLVI, No. 6, Dec. 1942, pp. 727-728.

⁶ *The Hindu*, 17 Sept. 1942.

Stating that industry as a producer is the largest contributor to the material welfare of the nation, the report points out that industry has a three-fold responsibility: to the public which consumes its products, to the public which it employs, and to the public which provides the capital by which it operates and develops. In the conviction that service to the community as a whole is the spirit which should animate industry, the signatories outline the place that they consider British industry should have in the post-war world, the social obligations of industry with special reference to labour and social services, the present structure of industry, and the organisation which industry should have in the post-war period. In conclusion, they recommend the appointment of a committee to formulate detailed proposals to carry out this programme.

Social Obligations of Industry.

Recognising the role and value of trade unions, the report urges that their authority should be strengthened within their own ranks and that increasingly close collaboration should be achieved between them and management, so that they may, with a full sense of their joint responsibility to the public, examine the problems affecting industry in relation to the community as a whole.

On the ground that labour, in all its grades and sections, should be brought into close contact and association with management, the report supports an extension of the system of works' councils and production committees, but emphasises that they must remain entirely consultative in function.

A code of the duties of industry towards employees is outlined, according to which (a) every entrant into industry should be afforded the fullest possible opportunity of rising to positions of greater responsibility, commensurate with capacity and energy; (b) industry itself should aim at assuring to everyone in industry who is prepared to do an honest week's work a basic level of wages such as to afford a decent standard of life, and this minimum basic wage should be supplemented by the development of payment by results and where practicable, profit-sharing; (c) provision should be made for unemployment pay at subsistence rates, for the working out of Government and local authority schemes of public works, and for assumption by the State of a share of what will be an un-economic risk for private industry; (d) sickness and disability allowances should be such as to free the recipient from want when incapacitated from these causes; (e) holidays with pay should be established throughout industry; (f) reasonable hours of work should be agreed upon; (g) there should be a scheme of family allowances for all children up to school-leaving age; (h) State old-age pensions should be supplemented by private schemes so as to cover all employees; (i) an adequate standard of housing should be regarded as part of industry's responsibility; (k) the reform of general education should include raising the school-leaving age to 16 years and continuing part-time compulsory education up to 18 years with suitable regulation of hours of work for juvenile employees, accompanied by an overhaul of the whole educational system so as to give equal opportunity to all and to give to youth a full understanding of personal and national responsibilities; and, finally, industry should give more thought to schemes for industrial and vocational education.

Existing Structures of Industry.

After opposing any great extension of State ownership on the ground that it would injure the efficiency of industry to such an extent as to be a national calamity, the report describes the method of operation of statutory corporations, individual ownership, co-operative ownership, large companies and combines, and the role of trade associations and international cartels. In support of cartels, it states that they exercise a stabilising influence against violent fluctuations and dislocating shifts of the currents of trade and thus have an essential part to play in post-war reconstruction, when international economic co-operation for the general benefit will be of the highest importance.

Future Organisation of Industry.

It is an essential condition of progress, says the report, that the relations between firms, between different industries, and between industry as a whole and Government, should be more fully and comprehensively organised in some form of permanent association. It therefore calls for the classification of industry

into sections, for the setting up of sectional associations, and, finally, for the establishment of a Central Council of Industry, representative of the whole of industry.

The functions of the Central Council of Industry would be to maintain regular contact with the sectional associations; to maintain contact with the Trades Union Congress, especially so as to find means to give greater expression to the standards of mutual responsibility that industry and those employed in it owe to one another; to act on behalf of British industry in furthering international economic co-operation and the expansion of world trade; to give consideration, from the standpoint of industry as a whole, to other matters of high economic policy; to establish an intelligence service, and to be the channel through which the views of industry on economic, financial, and social problems and on world trade generally can be communicated to the Government; and to recommend to the Government changes which seem necessary in existing industrial and social legislation, and to act generally as the medium for making proposals to the Government on matters which, from the standpoint of industry, appear to require executive action.

The report points out that such planning, however, would have only a limited usefulness if a considerable number of firms did not join the sectional associations, or, having joined, accepted such privileges as might accrue from membership while declining to accept any corresponding duty to accept majority views. In particular, it would be impossible in such circumstances to be sure of avoiding the waste involved in uneconomic competition, and impossible to be sure of securing a general application of the code which the report recommends in relation especially to labour and the social services. Hence it is necessary to consider whether, and if so to what extent, the associations and the councils should be given specific powers (within prescribed limits) to make regulations and to enforce decisions, and whether membership of associations should be made compulsory.

In conclusion, it is stated that the signatories have no desire to see any radical change in the constitutional relationship between industry on the one hand and the Government and Parliament on the other.¹

RECONSTRUCTION PLANS OF THE SOUTH AFRICAN FEDERATED CHAMBER OF INDUSTRIES

The Annual Convention of the South African Federated Chamber of Industries, which opened in Pretoria on 27 October 1942, adopted a series of resolutions, among them several relating to post-war reconstruction; these are summarised below.

Separate Portfolio for Industries.

In view of the magnitude and importance of secondary industry in the national economy, and especially of the important part that secondary industry will play in solving the post-war problems of the country, the Convention was of the opinion that secondary industry should be represented by a separate portfolio in the Cabinet, or, alternatively, requested the Government to provide a separate secretariat for secondary industry.

Disposal of Surplus Government Stores.

In view of the continued disposal of surplus Government stores, the Convention resolved that the Government should be requested to dispose of them in consultation with industrial panels with a view to their being used to the best advantage during the war.

Further, it proposed that when the war ends all Government stores of consumer goods (e.g. canned foods, clothing, footwear, etc.) should be liquidated through the Department of Social Welfare and/or shipped to countries in need of them as a result of war devastation. This would help to preserve the local market for secondary industry, which, as the largest employment avenue, would be required to absorb many men returning from active service, and as such should be placed in the most favourable position to discharge its obligations in the interests of the country.

¹ *A National Policy for Industry* (London, Nov. 1942).

After-War Adjustment.

The Convention urged the Government to utilise the existing control authorities to make provision for the situation which might arise in the post-war period as a result of falling prices.

Industrial Development.

The Convention urged the Government to give the utmost encouragement to the industrial development of the natural resources of Southern Africa.

Immigration.

The Convention urged the Government to adopt, without delay, a long-term liberal, but controlled, immigration policy, in order to ensure the economic and industrial development of the Union.

Cost-of-Living Allowances.

The Convention requested the Government to appoint an expert commission, which should include a representative or representatives of organised industries, to examine the whole question of social security with a view to formulating definite proposals for submission to Parliament.¹

ESTABLISHMENT OF A NATIONAL ECONOMIC COUNCIL IN BOLIVIA

A National Economic Council invested with important functions in respect of the economic life of the country was set up in Bolivia by a Decree issued by the Council of Ministers on 7 December 1942.

The National Economic Council will be under the chairmanship of the Minister of National Economy and will consist of the Minister of Finance, the Minister of Agriculture, and the Minister of Labour, or their respective representatives, a representative of the Central Bank of Bolivia, and a representative of the State and private railways.

The functions of the Council will be to study the economic problems of the country as a whole and make recommendations on economic matters to the Executive Power; to review immediately the current situation in respect of the supply, distribution, and price of the necessities of life, and to recommend suitable measures for the stabilisation and reduction of the cost of living and for the abolition of hoarding and speculation by restricting profits within reasonable limits, preventing inflation and ensuring normal and regular distribution of essential goods; to consider the housing problem; to recommend measures for the application of exchange control and price control, and to establish procedure for granting priorities, certificates of need, shipping space, and so forth; to consider the effect of present prices on the cost of living and make recommendations to prevent certain sections of the population from suffering from the present situation; and to study the possibility of reducing the price of some essential articles by direct Government action in the form of lower customs duties and other taxes, of subsidies or of direct trading by the Government. The Council will also study and report on any other economic questions referred to it for advice by the President of the Republic or the Council of Ministers.

The Decree provides that once maximum prices have been fixed for essential goods they may not be increased for any reason whatever without the previous permission of the Council. Permission to fix prices will be given by the Ministry of National Economy on the written recommendation of the Council.

The Council also has certain powers to regulate the currency. Under the Decree the Minister of Finance was required to determine before 31 December 1942 the maximum amount of paper money to be issued by the Central Bank of Bolivia. The Bank's issues may not exceed the figure so fixed without a written recommendation from the National Economic Council made at a meeting specially convened for the purpose and attended by the Minister of Finance himself. The National Economic Council is authorised to seek data, advice, and information from all public bodies and also to make use of the services of foreign private and technical undertakings.²

¹ *South African Industry and Trade*, Vol. 39, No. 6, Nov. 1942.

² Communication to the I.L.O.

INTERNATIONAL AGREEMENTS ON EDUCATION BETWEEN THE CENTRAL AMERICAN REPUBLICS

A Conference on education was held in September 1942 at San José de Costa Rica between the Ministers of Education of the six Central American Republics, namely, Costa Rica, Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua, Panama, and Salvador, with the object of building between these States—which, in the words of their own joint declaration, “form a geographical unit in the heart of the continent of democracy”—the cultural unity that they regard as an essential factor in the achievement of their ideal of unity. With this aim in view the members of the Conference signed two Conventions and 17 Recommendations on 5 September 1942.

The first of the Conventions lays down the principle that education in Central America shall be democratic in essence and in its general trend, under all its aspects and at every level. As a corollary of this basic principle, the aim of education in Central America will be to train citizens to exercise their civic rights and carry out their civic duties in the brotherly spirit which should unite kindred peoples, by shaping their character and preparing them for life in its physical and mental, artistic and occupational aspects.

The Convention defines a common basis for educational courses at all three levels; elementary education for six years from the age of 7, secondary education, and higher education. At each level the common basis of study includes elements of the geography, history, economics, and intellectual culture of the sister Republics. The Convention also seeks to ensure a uniform standard of education which will enable the certificates and degrees granted upon completion of the courses to be recognised throughout the Central American States.

The second Convention provides in particular that University degrees acquired in any one of the six Central American Republics by one of their nationals shall be recognised for the purpose of entry into the liberal professions and of the right to exercise them in any Central American State under the conditions prescribed in that State. This applies also to degrees acquired by a national of one of the Central American Republics in any country outside the group, if such degrees have been recognised in his own country.

Of the 17 Recommendations adopted, several deal with the establishment of institutions common to the six countries—a Central American Educational Institute to facilitate the standardisation of educational systems, methods, and programmes; an Institute of Tropical Agriculture common to all the countries of the Isthmus; and an Inter-American University, the creation of which had already been suggested by a previous scientific Conference.

Special mention should be made of the Recommendation concerning the supervision to be exercised by each Government over educational institutions in its own country with a view to preventing the spread of any teaching based on anti-democratic political or racial ideologies.

Another Recommendation of particular interest to workers deals with vocational training. The Conference recognised in this Recommendation the urgent need to give full scope for the development of the abilities of both men and women in the Central American countries, in particular, of those who lack financial means but possess talents which would repay methodical cultivation and would qualify them for a higher level of economic activity, and it therefore recommended the systematic development of vocational schools for both sexes.¹

THE TWENTIETH ANNUAL CONVENTION OF THE UNITED STATES CATHOLIC RURAL LIFE CONFERENCE

The National Catholic Rural Life Conference, which is considered one of the foremost religious groups in the field of agrarianism in the United States, held its Twentieth Annual Convention at Peoria, Illinois, from 3 to 6 October 1942. The Convention was

¹ *La Gaceta* (San José de Costa Rica), 20 Oct. 1942, p. 1859.

attended by 7,500 persons, including high Catholic ecclesiastical authorities, persons belonging to the Administration, and representatives of co-operative and agricultural organisations, and of non-Catholic organisations interested in the problems of rural life. Extracts from some of the more important resolutions adopted by the Conference are given below:

Land Ownership.

We wish to reaffirm our conviction that private property is so conformable to man's nature that to weaken or deny this right is to place grave obstacles in the way of Christian family life and full development of human personality. We therefore urge that every effort be made to assist families in obtaining and holding ownership of homes on the land.

Agriculture and the War Effort.

In these days of crisis, we pledge our loyalty to our country and express our willingness to put forth unceasing effort and make the sacrifices necessary to bring the war to an early and victorious end.

We recognise that the American farmers are playing a vital role in the war effort, and we urge our farmers to continue their magnificent effort of all-out production, even though this effort be increasingly hampered by shortages of man-power and machinery.

To this end we recommend that farmers place increasing reliance upon home and community resources, and that they exemplify in particular the true Christian community spirit by mutual exchange of farm labour and co-operation in the use of farm machinery and automobiles.

We urge priests, both urban and rural, to foster this community spirit and take the lead in organising community efforts for the increased production of agricultural commodities. . .

With America at war, the need of an abundant food supply is recognised by all. In order that "food may win the war and write the peace", we urge that every precaution be taken to ensure a continuation of the present high level of production. This level cannot be maintained, however, if the countryside is stripped of its man-power. We therefore recommend that agriculture be accorded its due recognition as a vital part of the war effort, and that the President of the United States and Congress take steps to prevent the drafting of men essential for the Food and Freedom programme.

The Conference recognises that the family is the fundamental unit of society and therefore the first line of defence. We therefore urge that in the present crisis every effort be made to preserve and strengthen the family and the home. To this end we recommend that mothers of families serve their country by remaining in the home and keeping America strong by providing an adequate diet and a rich home-life for husband, sons, and daughters engaged in the war effort. We urge families to increase the production of food and clothing in the home and to place increased emphasis upon home production in the post-war period as a permanent phase of family living.

Post-War Land Settlement.

We believe that the proper use of our soil resources by family units will contribute significantly to the solution of many, if not most, of our post-war social and economic problems.

We therefore recommend that the American public be informed of the possibilities of land settlement as a post-war measure and that leaders be trained and given the opportunity to co-operate with private and governmental agencies in planning and financing land settlements.

In carrying out land settlement programmes we recommend close co-operation with the Soil Conservation Service and the development of land that is of itself productive and suitable for irrigation.

Co-operatives and Credit Unions.

Recognising that co-operatives are in close harmony with Christian social philosophy and powerful instruments of self-help, the Conference strongly recommends that communities devote themselves to a serious study of the Rochdale

principles and to the history of the co-operative movement at home and abroad. This study should lead to intelligent co-operation in buying and marketing, in supplying community services, and in providing community recreation, thus constituting the application of the principles of Christian social philosophy to economic life.

Inflation.

In view of the inflationary tendencies associated with the all-out effort to produce arms and munitions for war, we recognise the necessity of a programme to control wages, prices, and profits. We realise that inflation would hamper the war effort and create disaster in the post-war period. We therefore urge that every precaution be taken to head off an inflationary rise in prices, and to this end we urge farmers to use their surplus income to retire farm indebtedness, to keep in repair the rural home and the operating facilities of the farm, and to purchase government bonds.

Migratory Labour.

We call attention to the problem of our Spanish-American brothers and other migrant workers and their families, who have been called upon to supplement our diminished farm labour supply. We recommend the programme of the Farm Security Administration in according just treatment and sympathetic assistance to these groups.¹

INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS

GOVERNMENT-EMPLOYER-WORKER COLLABORATION IN AUSTRALIA

As a means of securing the fuller participation of the workers in the war effort in Australia, it has been decided to set up a new Trade Unions Advisory Panel. A system of joint production committees for essential war undertakings has also been approved, and a joint Wheat Harvest Employment Commission has been established.

TRADE UNION ADVISORY PANEL

After many months of discussion as to the best methods of securing trade union co-operation with the Commonwealth Government, the Interstate Executive of the Australasian Council of Trade Unions agreed in October 1942 to the setting up of a new Trade Unions Advisory Panel to assist the Government.²

The Panel will be composed of the President and the Secretary of the Australasian Council of Trade Unions and one representative each of the trade unions for the following industrial groups: metals, ammunition, general manufacture, clothing, building, sea transport, land transport, coal mining, primary production, public utilities, base metals, and shipbuilding. The Council will call group conferences of all the unions concerned to elect representatives to the Panel.³

¹ *Land and Home* (Des Moines, Iowa), Vol. V, No. 4, Dec. 1942.

² For an account of the former Panel, which ceased to function owing to trade union objections to its composition, cf. E. Ronald WALKER: "Wartime Labour Problems in Australia", in *International Labour Review*, Vol. XLIV, No. 4, Oct. 1941, pp. 393-395.

³ *Sydney Morning Herald*, 7 Oct. 1942.

JOINT PRODUCTION COMMITTEES

By agreement with the trade unions, the Government will initiate the setting up of joint production consultative and advisory committees in Government-controlled aircraft factories and in other Government munitions establishments, and the principles of the scheme will subsequently be applied in all industries engaged in essential war production.

The joint production consultative and advisory committees are patterned upon the committees that have been set up in Great Britain.¹ Their function, as in Great Britain, will be to discuss questions of production and efficiency. All questions subject to the normal machinery of collective bargaining, such as wages, are excluded from their competence. Each committee will consist of a representative of each union interested, with an equal number of management representatives in each factory.²

Constitution of the Committees.

The meeting of the Interstate Executive of the Australasian Council of Trade Unions held at Melbourne from 5 to 9 October 1942 approved the following agreement with regard to the functions and procedure of the committees.

Joint production consultative and advisory committees. The production committees shall consist of equal numbers of Government representatives and representatives of the unions, with alternating chairman; the chairman shall have a deliberative vote only. The constitution of each committee appointed shall be such as to permit of one representative from each union in each factory being appointed.

Limitation of functions. The committee shall not discuss matters which are trade questions, such as wages and like subjects, or which are covered by agreements with trade unions or are normally dealt with by the approved machinery of negotiation and discussion through shop stewards.

Workers' representatives. Representatives of the workers not exceeding ten in number shall be elected by ballot conducted by the trade unions concerned, covering as far as possible the various shops, departments or sections of the factory, including local inspectorates.

Three months shall be the period of service necessary to qualify for membership of committees.

Management representatives. Apart from and in addition to the superintendent of the establishment, who shall be *ex officio* chairman of the committee, the representatives of the management shall not exceed ten, and shall be nominated by the superintendent.

Number of representatives. Representatives of employees and employers shall be equal in number.

Term of office. Workers' representatives shall hold office for one year, subject to the continued approval of the trade union concerned, and shall be eligible for re-election.

Filling vacancies. In the event of a worker-representative on the committee ceasing to be employed in the establishment or being transferred to another shop or department or retiring or ceasing to be a member of his trade union, a successor shall be elected by ballot conducted by the trade union concerned, and shall hold office for the remainder of the current term of the committee.

Power to co-opt. Either side of the committee shall have the right to co-opt persons in a consultative capacity, having a particular knowledge of a matter under discussion. Such co-opted persons shall be present for the period only during which the particular question is before the committee.

¹ Cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. XLV, No. 5, May 1942, p. 552; see also Vol. XLVI, No. 3, Sept. 1942, pp. 284-298: "Recent Developments in Joint Production Machinery in Great Britain".

² *Sydney Morning Herald*, 6 and 7 Oct. 1942.

Secretarial. The management and the workers' sides of the committee shall each appoint a secretary from their respective members of the committee. Such secretaries shall act as joint secretaries of the committee.

Meetings of management side of the committee. In order to expedite procedure the management side of the committee, together with its secretary, shall meet weekly or as may be required, to discuss and consider the items or subjects which it wishes to be put on the agenda for discussion and consideration by the committee. The secretary of the management side of the committee shall, within 24 hours thereafter, provide the secretary of the workers' side of the committee with a list of such items or subjects.

Meetings of workers' side of the committee. The workers' side of the committee, together with its secretary, shall meet weekly or as may be required to discuss and consider the items or subjects which it wishes to be put on the agenda for discussion and consideration by the committee. The secretary of the workers' side of the committee shall, within 24 hours thereafter, provide the secretary of the management side of the committee with a list of such items or subjects.

Meetings of the committee. Regular meetings of the committee shall be held fortnightly or as may be required. Meetings of the committee ordinarily shall be held during working hours by arrangement with the management. Accommodation for holding meetings of the committee will be provided by the management.

The members of the workers' side of the committee shall be paid at the rate of their normal earning for their period of attendance at meetings of the committee.

Special meetings. In cases of urgency or emergency, special meetings of the committee may be held on request by either side of the committee through the respective secretaries. Twenty-four hours' notice of such request shall be given, and the subject of the meeting shall appear on the notice convening it.

Agenda. The agenda shall be prepared by the joint secretaries and shall be issued by the secretaries to each member of the committee at least four days before the meeting, except in the case of special meetings.

Minutes. The joint secretaries of the committee shall prepare and issue to the members of the committee minutes of its proceedings.

Sub-committees. The committee shall have power to appoint sub-committees to deal with any particular question. The joint secretaries of the committee shall function in connection with the work of any such sub-committee and prepare a report or minutes of the proceedings of such sub-committee for submission to the committee.

Provisional committees. In the case of any new munition factory, it shall be competent, within the framework of the agreed constitution, provisionally to establish at such factory a joint production consultative and advisory committee.

Duration. The agreement shall continue in force until twelve months after such date as the Ministry may by Order in Council declare to be the date on which the emergency that was the occasion of the passing of the Emergency Powers (Defence) Act, 1939, has come to an end. Prior to the expiry of the said period the Ministry and the A.C.T.U. shall review the agreement and decide as to its continuance or otherwise.¹

ESTABLISHMENT OF A WHEAT HARVEST EMPLOYMENT COMMISSION

On 23 October 1942 the Governor-General issued Regulations under the National Security Act, 1939-1940, establishing a joint body, the Wheat Harvest Employment Commission, to determine rates of remuneration and conditions for wheat harvesting work during the season and to assist in maintaining an adequate supply of man-power for that work.² The Regulations give effect to a decision reached at a Conference of representatives of the Australian

¹ *The Labor Call* (Melbourne), 15 Oct. 1942.

² *Statutory Rules*, 1942, No. 471

Wheatgrowers' Federation and representatives of the Australian Workers' Union, held in Canberra on 6 October 1942.

The Wheat Harvest Employment Commission consists of an independent chairman and two representatives each of the Australian Wheatgrowers' Federation and the Australian Workers' Union. The functions of the Commission are, firstly, to determine the rates of remuneration and the conditions of work of persons engaged on manual work in connection with the harvesting of the wheat crop, and, secondly, to co-operate with the man-power authorities in matters relating to the obtaining, directing, and allocating of man-power for harvesting purposes.

The Commission may recommend to the Minister for Labour and National Service the appointment of local wheat harvest employment committees, to be constituted in a similar manner to the Commission and to exercise such powers and functions of the Commission as may be delegated to them. The local committees are to work in close co-operation with local man-power officers and with the War Agricultural Committee of the State concerned.

By Regulations issued on 9 November 1942¹, the functions of this Commission were extended to cover other grain crops as well as wheat.

EMPLOYMENT

PUBLIC WORKS PLANNING IN THE ARGENTINE REPUBLIC

The Argentine Government has established machinery for the planning and co-ordination of national, provincial, and municipal public works programmes.

Recommendations of a Conference of National and Provincial Ministers of Public Works.

A series of recommendations were adopted on 20 June 1942 by a conference of the national and provincial Ministers of Public Works.

These recommendations included the setting up of an advisory commission for the co-ordination of public works, to consist of 14 members representing the provinces (one for each province, nominated by its Government), one representative of the Federal capital, and, in addition, one representative of each of the national Ministries concerned with the carrying out of public works and of the Ministry of Finance.

The function of this commission would be to prepare an annual plan for public works to be carried out under national responsibility. In drawing up this plan, consideration should be given not only to the existence of a given project, but especially to its urgency. The general plan would be drawn up according to the following divisions: protection of public health; construction of public buildings; development of hydraulic works and hydro-electric power; education; tourism; other works. In the preparation of annual plans for public works, the commission should avoid interference or overlapping with the provincial authorities, and should distribute the works in relation to the economic, social, and technical factors in each region. To this end, the individual provinces should inform the commission at the beginning of each year of the projects that they expected to carry out during the period, and of those that had been authorised, with their probable dates of execution. This information should also include a census of the provincial and municipal public works already carried out, and of the private construction which had been facilitated by provincial subsidies.

The Conference further recommended the collection of information on available economic resources with a view to the interchange (or acquisition) of materials and plant between the provinces and the national Government, and, to this end, the establishment of a clearing agency for determining final compensation.

¹ *Statutory Rules*, 1942, No. 487.

The recommendations of the conference also dealt in some detail with the machinery and methods of carrying out a national public works policy.

General Division for Co-ordination and Planning of Public Works.

By a Decree, No. 124,085 of 2 July 1942, the Argentine Government took the first steps towards putting into effect the recommendations adopted by the above-mentioned Conference. The Decree approved the establishment of the Commission for the Co-ordination of Public Works and provided that it should be set up shortly. In addition, it provided for the organisation, within the Ministry of Public Works, of a General Division for the Co-ordination and Planning of Public Works, under the direction of the Director-General of the Ministry. The Division was to start work immediately on the preparation—on the lines of the recommendations and in accordance with the instructions of the Ministry of Public Works—of the technical, administrative, economic, and statistical information necessary for the Commission to be able to carry out its responsibilities effectively. When the Commission itself has been set up, the Director-General of the Division will be the member representing the Ministry of Public Works.¹

MAN-POWER POLICY IN THE UNITED STATES

"In order to promote the most effective mobilisation and utilisation of the national man-power and to eliminate so far as possible waste of man-power due to disruptive recruitment and undue migration of workers", the President of the United States has issued an Executive Order which broadens the powers and composition of the War Manpower Commission, transfers to the Commission the Selective Service machinery and prohibits voluntary enlistment, strengthens the authority of the Employment Service in regard to placement, turnover, and transfer, and gives the Man-power Commission a voice in the direction of the training programmes of the armed forces.² This Order is the outcome of a period of study of the man-power situation by the Administration, by several congressional committees and by the Management-Labor Policy Committee of the War Manpower Commission.³

The general labour supply position has not changed appreciably in the last few months. Unemployment has continued to decline and it has been decided to abolish the depression work relief agency, the Work Projects Administration (W.P.A.). The national labour force in non-agricultural employment is continuing to expand, reaching the record figure of over 38,000,000 in September 1942. At that time, the Secretary of Labor predicted that 4,500,000 additional workers (of whom about 3,000,000 would have to be women) would be needed in war industries alone by the end of 1943. The problems of a shortage of skilled labour in particular occupations and industries and of labour turnover in essential industries have increased in urgency. The War Manpower Commission, although handicapped by a lack of definition of its field of authority and of "teeth" for the enforcement of its directives prior to the Order mentioned above, began to put into effect, on a voluntary basis, a programme for employment stabilisation in particular industries and areas.

Administrative Organisation.

The Executive Order stipulates that the War Manpower Commission shall henceforward consist of a chairman and one representative of each of the following departments and agencies: War, Navy, Agriculture, Labor, Federal Security

¹ Communication to the I.L.O.; *Boletín Oficial*, 13 Aug. 1942.

² Executive Order, No. 9279, 5 Dec. 1942 (*Federal Register*, 8 Dec. 1942).

³ For the text of the Management-Labor Policy Committee's report, cf. *The New York Times*, 11 Nov. 1942; the reports of the congressional committees are published among the congressional documents. Although these reports differed in many respects, they were agreed on the necessity for centralising and co-ordinating the administration of the man-power programme and for integrating selective service with it.

Agency, War Production Board, U. S. Civil Service Commission, National Housing Agency, any other agency that the President may determine, and a joint representative of the War Shipping Administration and the Office of Defense Transportation. The Selective Service System is transferred to the War Manpower Commission and is to operate under the direction of the Chairman of the Commission. The Chairman is to appoint a Management-Labor Policy Committee to be selected from the fields of labour, agriculture, and industrial management, and is to consult with this Committee in carrying out his responsibilities. He may appoint other advisory committees of representatives of governmental or private groups (or both) if he wishes. Finally, the Chairman of the Manpower Commission is to be *ex officio* an additional member of the Economic Stabilization Board.

Within the Commission, the Chairman has placed the many divisions and services transferred to the Commission in recent months under five operating divisions: Bureau of Selective Service, Bureau of Placement, Bureau of Training, Bureau of Labor Utilization, and Bureau of Program Planning and Control.¹

Allocation of Men to the Armed Forces.

The Executive Order also provides that the Secretaries of War and Navy shall, after consultation with the Chairman of the War Manpower Commission and subject to the approval of the President, determine the number of men required each month for the Army and Navy, and the Manpower Commission is to furnish the required quota of men through the Selective Service System. The Order imposes a complete prohibition of all voluntary enlistment in the Army and Navy, and all men are henceforward to be inducted into the forces under the provisions of the Selective Training and Service Act of 1940, as amended.

The War Manpower Commission has issued a detailed list of essential industries and essential jobs within these industries in order to guide local boards of selective service and employment service officials in granting deferments to men liable for military service. The jobs within the 35 industries named as essential war activities number about 3,000 and are subject to the following three tests: (1) Is a six-months' training period or more necessary before an untrained worker can be reasonably efficient in the job? (2) is the job essential to the industry? and (3) is the individual worker irreplaceable?²

Control of Employment.

Wherever necessary for the efficient prosecution of the war, the Chairman of the War Manpower Commission is instructed by the Executive Order to take steps to assure (a) that all hiring and recruitment of workers for work in any designated establishment, plant, facility, occupation or area shall be carried out solely through the United States Employment Service or in accordance with such other arrangements as may be approved by the Manpower Commission; and (b) that no employer shall retain in his employ any worker whose services are more urgently needed in any other more essential establishment or occupation.

Direction of Army and Navy Training Courses.

Finally, the Executive Order requires the Secretaries of War and Navy to make sure that all training programmes for the forces which are carried on in non-Federal educational institutions conform with such policies or regulations as may be prescribed by the Manpower Commission (in consultation with the services) in order to ensure efficient use of the country's educational facilities and personnel in the war effort.

Stabilisation of Mining Employment.

In October 1942 the Manpower Commission outlined a programme for diverting mine workers to essential non-ferrous metal mining. An Order was issued requiring gold mines (with a few exceptions) to cease operations, and this was followed by a Directive of the Manpower Commission designed to assist gold mine workers in finding work in copper and other non-ferrous mining industries.³

¹ *Victory*, 22 Dec. 1942, p. 6.

² OFFICE OF WAR INFORMATION: Release, 23 Nov. 1942.

³ WAR MANPOWER COMMISSION: Directive No. XIII (Employment of Gold Mine Production and Maintenance Workers' Directive), 7 Oct. 1942 (*Federal Register*, 13 Oct. 1942).

The Directive of the War Manpower Commission provides that no employer may hire in, or hire for work in, Alaska or any State west of the Mississippi River any worker who on or after 7 October 1942 has left employment as a production or maintenance worker in gold mining, unless the worker has been referred to the employer by the United States Employment Service. Likewise, no person who on or after 7 October has left employment in gold mining may be referred by the Employment Service to any work in Alaska or any State west of the Mississippi except work in essential non-ferrous metal mining, milling, smelting and refining activities, unless the Service believes that the worker's referral to other work would be in the best interests of the war effort or unless denial of the referral would entail undue hardship on the worker concerned. Any worker or employer (or group of workers or employers) dissatisfied with a determination or lack of determination under the directive is to be given fair opportunity to present the case to the local area war manpower committee. This committee is empowered to make recommendations concerning the case (and any other matters in connection with the application of the Directive in the area) to the manager of the local employment office of the Employment Service.

An Order of the War Manpower Commission dated 17 October 1942 supplements the preceding Directive by outlining a programme for paying the transportation costs of workers qualified for mining employment who are taking up employment in the non-ferrous metal industry in States west of the Mississippi. The transportation programme, which is administered by the Employment Service, provides that no transportation expenses may be paid unless (1) reasonably adequate use is being made of the local labour supply at the proposed place of employment, and (2) the employer and worker have entered into a contract of employment including provisions stipulated by the Employment Service. The contract must stipulate at least a 90-day period of employment and must include provision for refunding any costs paid by the Government in cases when the employment is terminated without good cause prior to the expiration of the 90-day period. Transportation is provided for qualified mining workers and for not more than three dependants from any point in the United States to a place of employment in the non-ferrous metal industry in States west of the Mississippi. The cost of packing and transporting household effects up to a gross weight of 2,500 lbs. for a single worker and 5,000 lbs. for a worker with dependants will be paid.¹

Stabilisation of Farm Employment.

To cope with the shortage of farm labour, the War Manpower Commission has announced a programme aimed at stabilising the employment of farm workers in certain types of agriculture. The programme will be put into effect through the co-operation of the Manpower Commission, the Department of Agriculture, the Army and Navy, Selective Service, and the Government supply agencies.²

Under the programme, Selective Service is to request its local draft boards to reclassify in Group III-B (men deferred on grounds both of dependency and of occupation) all necessary dairy, livestock, and poultry farm workers employed on essential farms (as defined) now in Group III-A (men deferred on grounds of dependency alone) and to consider granting occupational deferment to the same group of farm workers and farmers who have not grounds for dependency deferment but who are "necessary men" and cannot be replaced.³ In addition, both the Army and Navy have agreed to refrain from recruiting essential dairy, livestock, and poultry farmers or farm workers, accepting them for voluntary enlistment, or soliciting their enlistment in areas where there are critical shortages of such producers and workers.⁴

The supply agencies of the Government have been requested to instruct contractors and sub-contractors not to employ skilled dairy, livestock, and poultry workers without the approval of the United States Employment Service; and non-agricultural employers have been urged to stop active recruitment of

¹ *Idem*, Regulations governing Transportation of Workers to Non-Ferrous Metal Producing Areas, 17 Oct. 1942 (*Federal Register*, 21 Oct. 1942).

² OFFICE OF WAR INFORMATION, WAR MANPOWER COMMISSION: Release, 28 Oct. 1942.

³ The latter group would be subject to reclassification as soon as they ceased to do the necessary work for which they were granted deferment. Local boards will not automatically defer all workers connected with essential farms but will consider their cases carefully and, before reclassifying them, give them an opportunity to take up work on other dairy, livestock, and poultry farms.

⁴ As mentioned above (p. 230), voluntary enlistment was subsequently prohibited by the Executive Order of 5 Dec. 1942.

essential farm workers in intensive dairy, livestock, and poultry farm areas. The United States Employment Service is to notify Selective Service boards of eligible replacements for essential farm workers, to recruit essential farm workers from less essential occupations, and to assist in placing on other farms skilled workers who are not performing essential work or are not employed full time at full capacity on the farms where they are now employed.

The Department of Agriculture will co-operate with the Employment Service in locating skilled operators and workers in areas where there is a surplus of rural labour; make wage studies and take necessary steps towards wage stabilisation; provide transportation for skilled farm workers needed in other areas; and co-operate with the United States Office of Education in establishing training courses for farm workers.

With the passage of the Executive Order strengthening the authority of the Chairman of the Manpower Commission, the latter announced a more detailed programme for coping with the farm labour shortage, including: full-time, continuous employment of mobile groups of experienced farm workers; transfer of agricultural producers and workers from sub-standard land; devices for pooling farm labour and equipment, expansion of farm placement machinery, and use of volunteer labour and of foreign workers from neighbouring countries.¹

Stabilisation of Employment in Special Areas.

In December 1942, a survey of the Manpower Commission showed that out of 270 industrial areas (including every city of 50,000 people or more and any smaller cities where 5,000 or more workers will be needed to meet demands), labour shortages now exist in 102 areas and shortages are anticipated in 77 other areas. Although shortage areas are most prevalent in the northeast and along the Pacific Coast, they include one or more communities in each of 36 States. The War Manpower Commission is apparently convinced from the pattern of shortages that man-power is largely a local problem or a network of local problems that can be solved more easily by area and regional action than on a national basis.

Action has been taken in several areas to help to meet local situations. In some areas, voluntary registrations of women have been carried out through the mail, and women who from registration appear to be likely candidates for war jobs are then called to the employment office for interview and placement. In other areas, action has been taken to try to halt the labour turnover which remains an outstanding production problem. In Detroit, the district director for the Manpower Commission issued an order designed to eliminate competition among employers for workers and job shopping by war workers. The order provides that no employer may hire a worker unless the latter has a certificate of release from his first employer. It applies to some 700,000 workers in 34 different occupations (skilled trades in munitions production and related activities such as food processing, military clothing manufacturing, transportation, etc.). The district director admitted that he had no direct enforcement power but said that the Army, Navy, and Maritime Commission had pledged their co-operation and that, if public opinion failed to enforce conformity, war contracts might be withheld or revoked from offending employers. Under certain conditions, changes of employment are of course permissible, and provision is made for appeals machinery to consider cases where workers are denied certificates of release.²

Seniority and Labour Transference.

President Roosevelt has appealed to employers in civilian industries to assure their workers that their seniority rights will be protected if they move to war work. Stating that these rights have become "an institution in American industry", the President noted that valuable re-employment and seniority rights had been granted to men called under the Selective Service Act, and added: "I think the same protection should be accorded to a worker, wherever possible, who leaves his job to accept employment to help with the war effort, frequently away from home and at times under less favourable conditions". He expressed the hope that employers in civilian industries would take action along these lines, since by so doing they would be performing a great service to the Government.³

¹ *The New York Times*, 8 Dec. 1942.

² OFFICE OF WAR INFORMATION, WAR MANPOWER COMMISSION: Release, 7 Dec. 1942; *Victory*, 22 Dec. 1942; *The New York Times*, 11 Dec. 1942.

³ *The New York Times*, 9 Sept. 1942.

Policy on Mobilisation of Women Workers.

On the recommendation of the Women's Advisory Committee, the Chairman of the War Manpower Commission has issued a statement of policy in regard to the recruitment and employment of women in wartime. The statement, summarised below, is intended to promote "the rapid and orderly induction of women into the labour market and to ensure their subsequent employment and training opportunities".

First, women who are unemployed and registered with the Employment Service should be referred to jobs and training on a basis of equality with men with due regard to their qualifications and the character of the proposed employment. Women without young children should be actively recruited for service. Women with young children who wish to work should not be deprived of jobs or training opportunities but special efforts to draw on them for work should be deferred until other sources of supply have been exhausted. Every effort should be made to use local woman-power to the full before workers are brought in from outside. Facilities should be provided, as approved community projects, for the care of the children of working women. No discrimination in employment should be made on the basis of a woman's race, national origin, or creed.

As regards training, women should be referred to courses on an equal basis with men, that is, on the basis of their qualification for the occupation in which training is offered. They should, moreover, participate equally with men in the Engineering, Science and Management War Training Program conducted by colleges and technical schools. Employed women workers should be encouraged to take supplementary training so that they may be upgraded. Finally, women should be given a full part in all intra-plant training programmes of whatever kind.

The statement urges that managements and labour unions should remove all barriers to the employment of women in work for which they are fitted and that all possible steps should be taken to assure complete acceptance of women workers as a part of the national labour force. It recommends that managements should analyse occupations within the plants with a view to expanding the possibilities of women's employment, help to promote acceptance of women as co-workers, review their practices periodically, and help women to adjust themselves to factory life. Wage rates should be on the basis of the work performed, irrespective of sex; women should have one day of rest in seven, an 8-hour shift and 48-hour week (subject to emergency exceptions); and adequate meals, rest, medical and welfare care should be provided.

Women able to accept work should register for employment or training with the Employment Service and should not leave their own community in search of work or training without the advice of this Service.¹

Training for War Workers.

In the middle of November 1942, the Chairman of the War Manpower Commission called upon the Bureau of Training to speed up the programme to facilitate the placement in war work of the millions of inexperienced men and women who must be drawn into war work from now on. The training groups of the Commission, whose activities are co-ordinated by the chief of the Bureau of Training, are the Training-Within-Industry Division, the National Youth Administration, the Apprentice Training Service, and the Vocational Training for War Production Workers' Group; the Engineering, Science and Management War Training Service, also under the Manpower Commission, works closely with the other training groups.

Since 1 January 1942, the Training-Within-Industry Division has extended training to over 275,000 supervisors, who have been responsible for on-the-job training of more than 4,000,000 workers; the Apprentice Training Division states that more than 1,200,000 workers have taken part in short time or upgrading training in war plants and that assistance was given to more than 27,000 employers in formulating their programmes; the total number of persons taking vocational education courses for war work is over 2,700,000; and the National Youth Administration has trained approximately 364,000 young people.²

Nevertheless, in many areas of the country—even where labour shortages are acute—enrolments in pre-employment vocational courses are far below the

¹ OFFICE OF WAR INFORMATION, WAR MANPOWER COMMISSION: Release, 19 Oct. 1942.

² *Idem*, Release, 17 Nov. 1942.

level considered desirable by the Manpower Commission, indicating, according to the Chairman, that "the public is still largely unaware of the great need for war workers". While in some cases employers prefer to train their own workers, large numbers of women and girls who have never been gainfully employed, as well as many older men and workers shifting from non-essential industries, are now being urged to take a 6-10 weeks' course of specific training for local war work. A survey of Baltimore employers showed that employers of more than 84 per cent. of all war workers in the city preferred to hire workers who had had some pre-employment training.

TECHNICAL TRAINING IN INDIA

By letter dated 14 November 1942 the Deputy Secretary to the Government of India in the Department of Labour communicated to the International Labour Office the following note on the technical training scheme operated by the Department.

As in other Allied countries, the demand in India for skilled personnel for the technical branches of the armed forces and new and expanded factories has increased steadily and has still to reach its peak. The first training scheme drawn up by the Department of Labour, in July 1940, provided for the training of about 3,000 semi-skilled tradesmen. Within three months it became evident that this modest number would fall far short of requirements, and in November 1940 it was decided to increase fivefold the out-turn aimed at by March 1942. As the war spread to new theatres, the demand for technicians for the services and war industry continued to grow, and the scheme was again expanded, until to-day it includes over 380 training centres with a total training capacity of 45,000 and aims at turning out 50 to 60,000 trained men each year.¹ 32,600 persons were under training on 30 September 1942, and on the same date 21,750 trainees had been absorbed in the defence services, ordnance factories, and civil industry.

The training scheme, which is administered by the Labour Department of the Government of India, covers all the main engineering trades, including fitting, turning, machining, instrument making, welding, sheet metal work, tool making, blacksmithing, moulding, pattern making, carpentry, drawing and surveying, and extends throughout both British India and the Indian States. For inspectional and supervisory purposes, the country is divided into five Circles—North, South, East, West, and Central—each of which is in charge of a technical inspector, usually known as the senior regional inspector, assisted by two or more regional inspectors according to needs. There are now 19 of these inspectors, and each has a small panel of mechanical engineers to assist him in an honorary capacity in the trade testing of trainees. A Director of Training is likely to be appointed shortly to take entire charge of the technical side of the scheme, co-ordinate the work of the inspectors, and act as liaison officer between the different Governments, departments and services concerned.

Training is intended to be intensive and is given in accordance with specimen syllabuses prepared by the Department of Labour. The courses vary from three to nine months in duration. Candidates are selected for training by the national service labour tribunals constituted under the National Service (Technical Personnel) Ordinance, 1940², or by local selection committees or recruiting officers appointed by the tribunals, and the co-ordination and general control of propaganda and recruitment is in the hands of a Director of Publicity and Recruitment, whose headquarters are at Simla. On the completion of their training, the trainees are trade tested and placed in employment by the Technical Recruiting Organisation of the Army or the national service labour tribunals according as they are required for the services or civil industry.

While under training, trainees receive stipends which vary from 24 to 31 rupees a month according to their educational attainments and the relative cost of living in the locality. On admission to a training centre, each trainee receives a free issue of two sets of workshop clothing and a trainee's badge and may draw

¹ In the Indian States there are 51 training centres under the Government of India's technical training scheme (*Indian Information*, Vol. 11, No. 100, 1 Sept. 1942).

² Cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. XLII, Nos. 4-5, Oct.-Nov. 1940, p. 265; Vol. XLVI, No. 4, Oct. 1942, p. 484.

a small advance of 7½ rupees towards the cost of walking-out clothing as well as an advance of 9 rupees to enable him to purchase his immediate requirements of food and other necessities. Free medical treatment is provided, and if a trainee is injured, he is entitled to the benefits provided by the Indian Workmen's Compensation Act. Sports and physical training are encouraged and physical training and games instructors are provided by the Government. A small sports grant to cover the cost of games equipment is made to each centre monthly. Hostel accommodation is now being provided at all the larger centres, and the hostel superintendents and their assistants are responsible for the general welfare of the trainees.

As large numbers of trainees are required for the technical branches of the Indian Army, arrangements have been made to ensure that at as early a stage of training as possible the material needed to meet service requirements will be available when wanted. This scheme is known as the "Civmil Plan", and under its terms trainees who volunteer for Army service and are suitable may enrol in the Army at any time after joining a training centre, and if qualified, receive Army rates of pay, which are substantially higher than the ordinary trainee's stipend. All enrolled trainees are concentrated at selected training centres known as "Civmil Centres" until they are sufficiently advanced in training to be transferred to Army training depots, and while at those centres receive free rations or an allowance in lieu. There are at present over 60 Civmil centres and the plan has proved very successful. The responsibility for filling vacancies at Civmil centres rests with the technical recruiting officers of the Army, and the trainees are under the disciplinary control of the local military authorities. In other respects, however, Civmil centres are administered in the same way as other centres.

The organisation and administration of the training scheme have not been free from difficulty, the main handicaps being a lack of qualified instructors, and a shortage of machine tools and precision instruments. Some 1,800 Indians suitable as instructors have now been found, and a scheme for training instructors is in operation under which so far 163 instructors have been specifically trained. One hundred British specialist instructors have also been obtained from the United Kingdom through the good offices of the Ministry of Labour and have proved of great value. The shortage of machine tools and precision instruments is common to all countries, but with the help of the Indian Purchasing Mission, it has been possible to secure much of what was needed from the United States under Lease-Lend arrangements. Further supplies are expected from the same source, as well as from Indian concerns which have recently taken up the manufacture of machine tools.

RESULTS OF THE SCHEME FOR TRAINING SKILLED YOUNG INDIAN WORKERS IN GREAT BRITAIN

In a note issued in September 1942 by the Department of Labour of the Government of India, the results up to date are reviewed of a scheme for the training in Great Britain of successive groups of fifty selected skilled young Indian workers, initiated in 1940 at the suggestion of the British Minister of Labour and National Service, Mr. Ernest Bevin.

The first group of trainees, it is stated, sailed from India in February 1941. The total number of groups that had left so far at intervals of about two and a half months was five, and preparations were being made for the departure of a sixth group. All the members of the first two groups and some of the third had returned to India after completing the training. Notwithstanding the hazards of the voyage, there had been no casualties, and the trainees referred to their sojourn in Great Britain in appreciative terms.

Of the 122 trainees who had returned, 105 had been placed in employment, and their present salary showed, on an average, an increase of 145 per cent. on what they used to get prior to the training. They had been given as a rule supervisory posts and were to be found in railway workshops, Government munitions factories, the military engineering service, naval establishments, etc., in different parts of the country.

Under the present arrangements, the first month or two of the period of training in Great Britain are spent in a Government training centre, where a carefully prepared plan is followed and there are lectures twice a week, and the remainder in different engineering firms. Facilities are provided for the entertainment of the trainees, which they avail themselves of fully. While every effort is made to find suitable posts for them on their return, the Government does not guarantee employment.¹

UNEMPLOYMENT MEASURES² IN GREAT BRITAIN

ASSISTANCE IN CASES DUE TO ENEMY ACTION

In countries where air raids have caused interruption or suspension of productive operations, arrangements have had to be made for employing the workers whose jobs have been discontinued or for helping them during their unemployment. Since Great Britain's experience of this question is of particular interest, a summary is given below of the policy of the Government with regard to labour rendered temporarily idle by enemy action.

The arrangements made in any given undertaking are naturally conditioned by the extent of the damage done to the factory. In some cases, factories are only slightly damaged and work can be resumed within a few days; in others, with more severe damage, work has to be suspended for considerable periods. The policy of the Ministry of Labour has two principal objects: (1) to secure that labour does not remain idle; and (2) to assist employers on important work who have been forced to disperse their labour force to reassemble the staff when production can be begun again.

In London, this policy has been put into effect without appreciable difficulty. In most cases, displaced workers register at employment exchanges whenever production cannot be resumed in a few days, and the employment exchanges place them on other important work. In order to help employers to bring together their workers once more, duplicate lists of the names and addresses of the workers are deposited by their employers at the employment offices for use if their own records are destroyed; the offices are kept informed of employers' plans for restarting operations in case of damage to the plants; and the offices are made central rallying points for the workers affected.

If the workers are needed again by their employers within three days, the employment exchange takes no action, as a rule, to place them in other work. If the stoppage is for more than three days, however, every effort is made to find good use for the workers' services by lending them temporarily to another establishment. In cases when a whole area has been badly damaged, the workers thrown out of employment have been used to re-establish essential services. Nevertheless, even in these areas, the employment exchange tries to place workers in jobs where their skill can be used to advantage. If the workers leave the area because of enemy action, the exchange, in co-operation with the public assistance officials, tries to persuade them to return to work with their original employers, if work with them is still available, or to transfer them temporarily to other employers.

Where arrangements are made to transfer workers temporarily to another factory for a period of less than six weeks, a guarantee is given by the exchange that the workers will return to their original employer when he can give them suitable full-time employment. This position is clearly explained to the two employers and to the workers concerned.

When workers are lent to another plant for a period longer than six weeks, it is more difficult to reassemble them for their previous jobs. In the interim, they may have acquired new skill, for example, or the production of their new plant may be more important than that of the plant where they were formerly employed. In such cases, the exchange informs the original employer that, while workers formerly employed by him will be returned whenever possible, the proper use of their skill and the importance of their new work has to be taken into full consideration. The exchange is required, however, to make special efforts to replace non-returning workers from other sources.

¹ Communication to the I.L.O.; for supplementary information, see *International Labour Review*, Vol. XLIV, No. 1, July 1941, p. 74, and Vol. XLV, No. 3, Mar. 1942, pp. 332-333.

In all cases, the exchanges try to implement the guarantee given to the original employers. Where necessary, written directions are issued to workers to return to their original employers. These directions are, of course, subject to the usual right of appeal to a local appeal board.

Workers employed in undertakings scheduled under the Essential Work Orders are entitled to the guaranteed wage unless and until arrangements are made for their release and provided that they are prepared to accept reasonable alternative work in the undertaking, which would include clearance and repair work in damaged factories.

Workers who lose their jobs through enemy action and who are not immediately placed in other work are entitled to receive unemployment insurance benefit, unemployment assistance, or prevention and relief of distress allowances¹, as appropriate to their status under the schemes.²

COMPULSORY LABOUR IN BRITISH AFRICA

In the British House of Commons, on 10 November 1942, the Under-Secretary of State for the Colonies gave the following information concerning the conscription of labour for emergency war purposes in Kenya and Nigeria.³

The total number conscripted in Kenya was just over 14,000 up to 25 October 1942; in Nigeria the number, up to 20 October, was 3,000 under the regulations made in March 1942, for a maximum period of service of two months, while since August, when new regulations were made, 4,466 labourers have been conscripted for a maximum period of four months' service.

Three additional inspectors have been appointed to the staff of the Labour Department in Kenya, while in Nigeria an Administrative Officer has been placed in charge of the general welfare of the workers in the tin mines, and two labour officers have been appointed to assist him.

In Kenya 20 convictions for refusal to work have been reported under the regulations, and as a result of 545 desertions reported, 120 Africans have been convicted or ordered to return to work. In Nigeria there have been 184 convictions under the regulations made in August—three for refusal to proceed to the mines when selected and the remainder for leaving work before the period of four months' service had been completed.

Wage rates in Kenya vary with locality, tribe, and nature of work. In each case they include prescribed rations, housing, and medical attention. Minimum wage rates have been laid down as follows: short periods, 8s. to 10s. a month; over three months, 9s. to 12s. a month. But considerably more is earned on task work in heavy industries, where wages total from 14s. to 20s. a month.⁴

PUBLIC WORKS PLANNING IN BERMUDA

A Public Works Planning Commission has been appointed by the Governor of Bermuda, composed of the Chairman of the Board of Public Works, the Chairman of the General Board of Health, the Chairman of the Board of Education, and the Director of Public Works, to prepare a comprehensive programme of public works.⁵

A proposed long-term public works programme to ease the situation in Bermuda during the coming year had also been proposed by the Governor's Economic Advisory Committee,

¹ The prevention and relief of distress allowances are paid by the Unemployment Assistance Board to refugees who meet certain requirements and who would not normally be entitled to unemployment assistance but who need help owing to the loss of their employment or other reasons resulting from enemy action.

² Communication to the I.L.O.

³ Cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. XLVI, No. 6, Dec. 1942, pp. 744 and 747.

⁴ *Parliamentary Debates, House of Commons*, 10 Nov. 1942.

⁵ *Bermuda Official Gazette*, No. 40, Vol. XLII, 5 Oct. 1942.

which recommended that plans and estimates should be prepared immediately at an over-all cost of £500,000, to be undertaken either during the war, particularly if relief work was needed, or in the two years after the war.¹

REHABILITATION OF DISABLED EX-SERVICEMEN IN THE U.S.S.R.

The vital importance attached by the Soviet Government to the vocational retraining of disabled ex-servicemen is demonstrated by the efforts made to fit them to resume their place in active life and in production with the least possible delay. Responsibility for the rehabilitation of the disabled lies with the Social Welfare Commissariats of the Republics, and measures for this purpose were laid down in an Order of 31 December 1941 issued by the Council of Peoples' Commissars of the R.F.S.S.R.

This Order gives disabled persons a prior right to all vacant posts in State and co-operative undertakings and in institutions and organisations. Arrangements must be made to provide them with accommodation and to give them any help necessary to enable them to enter universities and technical colleges.

In certain towns special hospitals have been organised where trades, such as shoemaking, bookbinding, watchmaking, photography, and book-keeping, are taught while patients are still under treatment.

Works committees and social insurance councils play an important part in organising vocational retraining for the disabled. Invalidity pensions and rehabilitation of partially disabled workers have always been a main function of the trade union social insurance councils, and present conditions have lent special importance to the social insurance activities of the trade unions.

The works committees and social insurance councils, in collaboration with the social welfare sections, are responsible for drawing up lists of the types of employment which can be reserved for disabled men. They are also responsible for securing the best possible conditions of employment for the disabled in factories, and even for helping them to organise their life outside the factory.²

CONDITIONS OF WORK

ABSENTEEISM IN GREAT BRITAIN

Absenteeism among war workers has constituted a serious production problem in all countries. With the increasingly acute man-power shortage which dominates the current industrial scene, the loss of production caused by absenteeism can no longer be made good by expanding the labour force of any undertaking; it must be met by efforts to cut down absences from work to the irreducible minimum. To this end, the Ministry of Labour and National Service in Great Britain has recently published a leaflet, *The Problem of Absenteeism*, containing suggestions for combating absenteeism effectively which are of interest to all countries where absenteeism is a menace to a total war effort.

¹ *The New York Times*, 2 Oct. 1942.

² U.S.S.R.: *Information Bulletin* (Washington, D.C.), 10 Dec. 1942; *Trud* (Moscow), 23 July 1942.

Causes of Absenteeism.

Investigations have shown that the causes of absenteeism are common to all factories. It is rare to find that any special cause exists peculiar to one establishment, although, naturally, the incidence of the various causes varies from one factory to another in accordance with local circumstances, such as transfer facilities, the proportion of married women employed, etc. Common causes of absence from work are (a) sickness and injury of the worker or of some member of the family for whom the worker has to care; (b) shopping difficulties; (c) the requirements of the family and home (cleaning, meals, care of children, etc.); (d) lassitude and fatigue due to long hours and long journeys to work or both; and (e) "feelings", such as depression over the blackout, lack of general morale, etc.

Of the psychological causes of absenteeism, perhaps the most significant is lack of real interest in the job and a lack of conviction of its urgency and importance in the war effort. A tremendous gulf has been created between those who know and those who do not know what the plant is contributing. Frequently even foremen do not appreciate the importance of their department in the undertaking's work and in the country's effort.

It is too readily assumed that workers generally are concerned only with the money incentive, whereas experience shows that the workers in general respond in increasing degree to the incentive of interest when they are made aware of the part their particular job plays in the final product.

Finally, understanding of absenteeism involves appreciation of the tremendous sacrifices made by large numbers of workers in accepting destruction of their home life. Investigators reported, for example, that:

The matters dealt with under any "welfare" effort become very trivial when compared with a person's home life. A married woman with a house, a husband, and children, already has a full-time job which is difficult to carry out in these days. Yet thousands of them are working long hours in factories . . . If they can carry on with a mere half-day per week off in the ordinary factory hours they are achieving something marvellous. It is time somebody said more about women's effort on these lines, and more about the arrangements which ought to be made to enable them to carry on . . . Men's home lives are disorganised by the fact that their wives, daughters, parents, other relations and neighbours are all going to work or because they have been sent right away from their families to work. These major facts must be taken into consideration in forming opinions on absenteeism and in seeking remedies. They should not be confused with "domestic difficulties" but recognised as a tremendous sacrifice made by an enormous number of workpeople to help the war effort.

Suggested Remedies.

In firms scheduled under the Essential Work Orders, absence from work and persistent lateness without reasonable excuse are direct offences against the law, but "the proportion of absenteeism for which legal proceedings are the only appropriate remedy is small in relation to the total".¹ It is stated emphatically that a solution of the problem of avoidable absenteeism is more likely to be found by those establishments which look for a solution within themselves than by those which tend to rely more on external powers of discipline or punishment. This was recognised under the Essential Work Orders by providing for reference of cases to the appropriate works committee of the factory or other joint body (where one exists) before prosecution is undertaken.

The Ministry of Labour suggests, first of all, that a real effort by industrial management to attack the psychological causes of absenteeism "is the greatest single contribution that can be made to a solution of the problem". It is expected that the joint production committees will be useful along these lines, but their work can be supplemented by informal talks by foremen, personnel managers, welfare officers, and others in daily contact with the workers.

Secondly, the Ministry suggests that management can make another contribution by planning hours of work for individual workers or groups of workers

¹ The leaflet states that the great majority of absentees either have what appears to them to be a good excuse or "are merely guilty of carelessness or indifference".

with some regard to their personal circumstances. At present, hours are too often decided for the factory as a whole, regardless of whether or not they can reasonably be expected to be observed by all the workers—by married women with young children, by workers with $1\frac{1}{2}$ or 2 hours' travelling each way, etc. The result is occasional absenteeism and a decline in general morale. Much greater flexibility is needed, therefore, in organising working hours. A good deal more could be done by redistributing the work and/or the labour force of a factory so that those who clearly need special working hours would be so employed as not to disorganise the work of others. Alternatively, a rota system might be arranged whereby each worker would be entitled to one day off per week apart from Sunday.

It is further suggested that in each factory, one person of senior status (a personnel or labour manager or welfare supervisor) and capable of "an understanding approach" should be given responsibility for dealing with all absences. The same person should establish co-ordinated procedure for dealing with applications for leave of absence. Secondly, the extent of absenteeism, together with its causes, should be analysed. The Ministry of Labour provides a model form of record card for absences, to assist firms in assessing their absenteeism and in dealing with it. There is one card for each worker (different colours for men and women), which is completed with a chronological record of hours planned and hours absent, an analysis of the stated causes, a monthly summary, and a record of the warnings issued.

Suggestions are also given for follow-up action on the absence record cards. Thus, if the rate of sickness is high in any particular department, the welfare or medical officer should analyse the sicknesses giving rise to absence to see whether any production process or hours or diet or other cause which can be remedied is responsible; and if a particular worker has a high rate of sickness, medical examination can often disclose the root of the trouble. In the same way, a high accident rate requires detailed investigation and appropriate counter-measures. For absences with reasonable excuse, investigation will often indicate suitable administrative action: local transport may be improved, more nurseries for children may be provided, shopping plans can be made, etc. Absence without reasonable excuse, the only type subject to penalty under the Essential Work Orders, can often be overcome, either by the official dealing with absences or by the pressure of opinion of the offender's fellow-workers, through the appropriate works committee to whom the case is referred. Every opportunity is given a worker to correct his fault before prosecution action is begun.

Last, but by no means least, the Ministry's leaflet declares that it is of primary importance that managements, in their efforts to deal with absenteeism, should maintain close contact with the workers' representatives. The plant's record of absence and all relevant data should be placed before the works committee or production advisory committee, so that the latter may be able to co-operate intelligently and wholeheartedly in reducing absenteeism to the lowest possible level. The workers' representatives have a special responsibility for convincing the thoughtless minority that absence without good cause interferes with the war effort and is grossly unfair to the great majority of their fellow-workers who do their full share despite hardship and inconvenience.¹

HOURS AND WELFARE CONDITIONS ON BUILDING SITES IN GREAT BRITAIN

HOURS OF EMPLOYMENT IN BUILDING AND CIVIL ENGINEERING

The British Minister of Works and Planning has issued two Directions² regulating hours of employment and the performance of Sunday work in building and civil engineering contracting undertakings. In addition, the Minister of Labour and National Service has made a Building and Engineering Construction (Young Persons) Order, 1942³, imposing restrictions on the hours of employment of young

¹ MINISTRY OF LABOUR AND NATIONAL SERVICE: P.L. 106/1942 (Sept. 1942).

² *Statutory Rules and Orders*, 1942. Nos. 2293 and 2294.

³ *Idem*, 1942, No. 2269.

persons engaged in building and civil engineering operations or employed in places where such operations are carried on.

The first of these Directions prescribes that, with certain specified exceptions, not more than 60 hours a week are to be worked on weekdays in the undertakings concerned and that work on Sundays shall not be permitted. The principal exceptions relate to specified classes of emergency repair work, such work of special urgency in the war effort as may be generally or specifically authorised by the Minister, preparatory work, railway work, and continuous shift work. In the case of continuous shift work the exception is subject to the proviso that the working week shall not exceed six days (including Sundays, if worked) nor shall the total number of hours worked exceed 60.

The second Direction authorises the performance of Sunday work on certain specified dates notwithstanding the general prohibition of Sunday work by the first Direction. It was issued after consulting the national organisations of building and civil engineering employers and workers, and aims at maintaining production in the industries concerned at the highest possible level during the winter, when hours of daylight are limited. Sunday work is permitted on eight specified Sundays during the period 8 November 1942 to 14 February 1943 in England and Wales, and during the period 8 November 1942 to 21 February 1943 in Scotland.

The Building and Engineering Construction (Young Persons) Order 1942 provides that for young persons employed in the specified places and operations the maximum working time in any week shall not exceed 48 hours in the case of young persons under 16 years of age and 54 hours in the case of young persons aged 16 and 17 years. The Order also prohibits the employment of young persons under 18 years of age: (1) continuously for more than five hours without an interval of at least half-an-hour for a meal or rest; and (2) on a Sunday unless the young person receives in respect of his employment on that Sunday a whole holiday on a weekday either in the week beginning with that Sunday or in the previous week.¹

WELFARE ON BUILDING SITES

Many difficulties have been experienced in Great Britain in providing a reasonable standard of welfare on building jobs or sites. The Building Programme Joint Advisory Committee (established to help to carry out the special building programme) has considered the problems of welfare organisation for building workers from the practical angle of their effect on health and on production generally, and as a result of its deliberations, the Ministry of Works and Planning has issued a *Guide for the Provision of Welfare Amenities for all Building Sites other than Camp Hostels*. The Ministry proposes to embody this Guide in its contracts, making it obligatory on the contractor to provide the specified standard of welfare, and has approached the other services to see whether they are prepared to adopt similar provisions in the contracts being carried out for them. The principal provisions of the Guide are set forth below.

Factory Form 1892.

Nothing in this specification absolves the contractor from compliance with the conditions set out in Factory Form 1892 (basic welfare and safety provisions for building and civil engineering workers).

Site Welfare Officer.

With 500 workers or over it will usually be necessary to provide a full-time site welfare officer; with a lesser number a part-time official of the contractor's staff may be found sufficient. If there is a camp hostel on the site, consideration can be given to the one site welfare officer supervising both site and camp hostel welfare.

¹ *The Ministry of Labour Gazette*, Nov, 1942, p. 188; *The Times*, 16 Oct. 1942.

Hot Meal Canteen.

A floor space of 7 to 10 sq. ft. per man excluding kitchen accommodation. Equipped with smooth top tables and benches. Serving counter with guard rail to control queue in larger canteens. Suitably heated, lighted, and ventilated.

Hot meal canteens to be provided on the basis of 25 per cent. of strength and extended if the percentage of men taking hot meals increases.

Sites with 100 men or less to be provided with a canteen on a similar basis, to include sufficient accommodation to provide tea and snacks for men not requiring a hot meal or for men bringing their own food. Siting to be studied in relation to the work in hand.

Kitchen.

Suitably lighted and ventilated and equipped, to the standard of the Ministry of Labour factory inspector; if desired, plans from the central canteen of the Ministry of Works and Planning can be obtained for reference.

Mess Rooms.

Floor space of 7 to 10 sq. ft. per man, excluding accommodation for kitchen. Equipped with smooth top tables and benches. Serving counter with guard rail to control queue in larger mess rooms. Floor space to include kitchen, tea and snack bar. Equipped with sink and shelves, tea urns, cups and saucers. Suitably lighted, heated, and ventilated.

Mess rooms to be provided on the basis of 40 per cent. of strength on site.

Approaches to all canteens and mess rooms to be provided with hardcore paths.

Where recreation huts are provided they can be used as mess rooms.

Drinking Water.

Suitable provision to be made.

Catering.

Contractor to be responsible for the service. To provide a hot meal in hot meal canteens consisting of meat, two vegetables, bread, sweet, and tea. Tea and snacks in the mess room.

If arrangements can be made with the Ministry of Food and Women's Volunteer Service for the midday hot meal in insulated containers from local communal kitchens or cooking depots, kitchen provision in the hot meal canteen can be reduced accordingly, but the contractors will still be responsible for the provision of tea and snacks in the mess room.

The Ministry of Food is prepared to discuss with any building contractor in the country; the contractor should contact the Divisional Food Office and the local W.V.S.

Temporary Shelters (Weather).

Suitable accommodation to be provided for men working on remote sites.

Drying Rooms.

For every 100 men, floor space of 18 ft. by 12 ft., provided with rails clear of the wall, with hooks and a suitable stove for drying. Provided on the basis of 25 per cent. of strength on site.

Sited near main route to men's work.

Washing Places.

In proportion of 3 per cent. of men on site. A trough with water tap to fill it, with space of 18 inches per man. Sited near hot meal canteens and mess rooms.

Drainage.

Suitable drainage must be provided to canteens, mess rooms, etc.

Latrines.

To be provided in accordance with Factory Form 1892. Sanitary men to be provided to maintain cleanliness and attend to disinfecting.

First Aid.

Arrangements to be made for a medical officer on call if needed. First aid to be supplied in accordance with Factory Form 1892.

With 1,000 men or over, a central dressing station to be provided with trained first-aid assistant, supply of suitable dressings and dressing steriliser, a couch or stretcher, two chairs, two hot water bottles, and means of obtaining hot and cold water. First-aid box, ambulance, and telephonic communication.

On smaller sites, first-aid post, an attendant with knowledge of first aid, first-aid box, means of obtaining hot and cold water. Telephonic communication for nearest ambulance.¹

DETERMINATION OF THE OPTIMUM WORK WEEK IN UNITED STATES WAR INDUSTRIES

Following upon the issue, on 28 July 1942, of a joint statement of policy on hours of work by eight Federal agencies², the United States Department of Labor, in conjunction with other Government agencies, has now released a "check list", the object of which is to assist the management of firms engaged on war work to determine the optimum work week for their respective undertakings.

The "check list" begins by directing the attention of managements to the factors to be taken into account in this connection. The following questions are put to them:

- (1) Have you had an increase in *accidents*?
- (2) Have you had an increase in *absenteeism*?
- (3) Have you had an increase in *labour turnover*?
- (4) Have you had a drop in *output* per worker; or increase in spoilage and rejects or poor quality of work?
- (5) Have you had an increase in *grievances or disciplinary cases*, for no apparent reason?
- (6) In what departments, or working units, are any of these symptoms found?
- (7) What hours per week are in effect in the department or unit in which these trouble symptoms appear?

It is explained that the most efficient hours schedule for sustained maximum production depends in part upon the type of work, that the best hours can be determined by keeping certain records for each department or for operating units within departments, and that separate records should be kept for men and women. To start with, managements are advised to select groups working on bottleneck operations or operations involving the greatest fatigue elements:

As hours in the plant are lengthened or reduced, the figures which will most quickly reflect changes in efficiency are figures of output and rejection or poor quality. Data on absenteeism, labour turnover, and accident frequency are also indicative. These figures if recorded over a period of weeks or months for certain departments or groups may show a trend. No one of these factors by itself is conclusive but a sudden or a continuous upward trend by several of them should constitute a danger signal, indicating that a point may have been reached at which long hours are adversely affecting production. Other factors, such as mechanical breakdowns, inadequate maintenance, shortages of or changes in materials or methods, changes in or less competent supervision, less qualified or less experienced workers, and lowered interest and effort of workers due to other reasons, should all be considered before drawing conclusions regarding the working hours.

The check list contains suggestions as to methods of measuring output, absenteeism, and other factors indicated for consideration, and supplies sample record sheets. It goes on to point out that from a study of the trends or sudden changes in the rates of output, unit costs, rates of absenteeism, accidents, and

¹ NATIONAL SOCIETY OF PAINTERS: *Journal*, Nov. 1942, pp. 18-20. Cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. XLIII, No. 5, May 1941, p. 590; No. 6, June 1941, p. 714.

² Cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. XLVI, No. 4, Oct. 1942, pp. 491-492.

illness, and from discussions with employees, supervisors, and union representatives, it should be possible to determine what are the most productive daily and weekly hours for specific departments or groups. This may involve a change in daily hours, or the provision of a weekly day of rest, or the introduction of longer lunch periods or of rest periods.

As regards the arrangement of shift timetables, employers are warned that when the best length of weekly hours has been arrived at there remains the problem of convincing the employees that a change is desirable and of fitting it into workable shift schedules, and into the general plant operating scheme. In arranging shifts, consideration needs to be given to the following questions:

- (a) Transportation facilities available at times that shifts end and begin.
- (b) Rotation of shifts. Frequent rotation makes it difficult for workers to adjust living arrangements and sleeping habits.
- (c) Assignment of workers to shifts, permitting dissatisfied workers to change jobs or shifts.
- (d) Availability of workers—men or women—for additional shifts. Possibility of training workers, or more supervisors for a new shift, or at least enough for a relief or swing shift.
- (e) Type of community in which the plant is located—isolated with few if any social and recreational facilities, rural, or industrial centre.

Employers who wish for assistance with any of the problems mentioned by the check list, or who require help in calculating turnover, absenteeism, injury, output or other rates mentioned in it, are advised to get in touch with the Department with which they have a contract—War, Navy, or Maritime Commission—or with the United States Department of Labor.¹

WARTIME INCREASE IN HOURS OF WORK OF DOMINION PUBLIC EMPLOYEES IN CANADA

By an Order in Council (No. P.C. 1/10800)² dated 26 November 1942 the Dominion Government has laid down that for the duration of the war the hours of work of full-time employees throughout the public service of Canada, both at Ottawa and outside Ottawa, shall be not less than 7½ on ordinary weekdays, and 4 on Saturdays. Normal hours of work had previously been 6½ on ordinary weekdays and 4 on Saturdays.

The Order was issued after consultation with the Civil Service Federation, the President of which stated, in a letter addressed to the Secretary of State, that whilst in normal times the Federation would be definitely opposed to any extension of working hours, in view of the war emergency it did not propose to offer any objection to a temporary extension. He pointed out at the same time that "as ordinarily an extension of working hours might be expected to be accompanied by increased compensation, and as that would not seem to be contemplated at this time", the Federation felt that any extension of hours might properly be accompanied by sympathetic consideration of some outstanding problems in Civil Service administration. These problems were:

- (1) Review of the virtual stoppage of permanent appointments;
- (2) Granting of reclassification where duties of individuals have changed fundamentally;
- (3) Raising of the \$2,100 limitation on cost-of-living bonus.
- (4) Granting of annual statutory increases to civil servants over \$3,000.

In his reply the Secretary of State said that, if steps were taken to increase working hours, consideration would also be given to the problems referred to above and that he trusted some satisfactory solution might be found. These and other problems were, in fact, discussed by the representatives of the Federation with the Minister of Finance in an interview on 7 December 1942.³

¹ *Wage and Hour Reporter*, Vol. 5, No. 48, 30 Nov. 1942, pp. 929-931.

² *Canadian War Orders and Regulations*, 1942, Vol. IX, 7 Dec. 1942, p. 440.

³ *The Civil Service Review*, Dec. 1942, p. 468.

REGULATION OF HOME WORK AND SMALL-SCALE UNDERTAKINGS
IN MEXICO

Conditions of employment in clothing workshops, small-scale undertakings, and home work, were regulated in the Federal District of Mexico by a Presidential Decree dated 11 September 1942.¹ Following the publication of this Decree, industrial associations throughout the country received instructions from their headquarters to press for the issue of similar regulations by the Legislatures and Governments of their own States.

Chapter XVIII of the Federal Labour Act of 18 August 1931² lays down the principles of regulation for small-scale undertakings, family undertakings, and home work. Small-scale undertakings are defined as those employing not more than 10 persons if power-driven machinery is used and not more than 20 persons if power is not used. Home work is work performed by a person to whom articles to be manufactured and raw materials are delivered to be made up in his own home or at any other place not under the immediate supervision or management of the person who supplies the materials. The Decree of 11 September 1942 applies these provisions to the Federal District in respect of the manufacture of clothing, an industry which comes under the local, not the federal, authorities. It is administered, in accordance with the division of administrative functions, by the Directorate of Labour and Social Welfare of the Federal District Department.

Provisions of the Decree.

The Decree of 11 September 1942 provides that clothing workshops, small-scale undertakings, and those undertakings giving out home work which are not within Federal jurisdiction must obtain a permit to carry on their activities from the Directorate of Labour and Social Welfare of the Federal District.

Permits are granted to clothing workshops and small-scale undertakings only subject to the fulfilment of specified conditions. Contracts of employment with the workers must be made for a period of at least six months, except in the case of particular jobs which will not take so long. The wages fixed must not be less than the legal minimum wage or that payable for similar work in a comparable occupation. Conditions in the workplace must conform to a satisfactory standard of hygiene and safety, and where machinery is used a permit is required for its operation. First-aid equipment must be available in each workshop, and a record of cases treated must be kept by an approved doctor.

An employer who gives out home work must furnish a list giving all particulars of his workpeople and their wages and stating whether the equipment used belongs to them or to him, and must produce a copy of the workers' contract showing that the wages paid are not less than those paid in a workshop in the same trade and, in the case of piece work, that the minimum wage can be earned without exceeding the statutory limits of hours of work and without excessive strain.

The provisions of the Decree apply also to middlemen. Home work is regarded as any work carried out for another person either in the worker's own home or on premises appointed by the employer, even if the worker works there with members of his own family, or at the home of the middleman. A middleman is a person who has raw materials which he has received from an employer or has acquired for the performance of work accessory to the main job, and which are made up by workers for whom he is responsible.

Every person who gives out home work must keep a register showing the name and address of the workers, the amount and quality of work given out, and the agreed wage. If the work given out is reduced or suspended, the reason must be stated, since the person who gives out work may not stop distributing it or reduce the quantity given out to each worker without prior approval from the inspecting authorities. No dangerous or unhealthy substances may be given out to home workers.

Home workers and workers in dressmaking workshops must obtain a working permit, which is issued free of charge. They are encouraged to report to the inspectors if they think that their rights have not been respected, and the inspec-

¹ *Diario Oficial*, 7 Oct. 1942, No. 31, p. 25.

² Cf. INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE: *Legislative Series*, 1931, Mex. 1.

tors will take such action as they think fit to ensure that the home workers receive the full wages due to them.

The wage rates for work covered by the Decree are fixed by a joint board under the chairmanship of a representative of the Federal District Department.

In case of infringement the penalties provided include temporary or permanent closing of the offending establishment.¹

SOCIAL INSURANCE AND ASSISTANCE

MEXICAN SOCIAL INSURANCE ACT

The Mexican Government's Social Insurance Bill, which was sent to the National Congress on 11 December 1942, was unanimously approved by the Chamber of Deputies on 23 December and by the Senate on 29 December 1942. It had been drafted, after some months of investigation, on the initiative of the Secretariat of Labour and Social Welfare. The Act was promulgated on 19 January 1943.²

Preparation and Adoption of the Bill.

The Bill, which has previously been described in these pages³, was prepared by a technical committee of the Ministry of Labour with actuarial help from the International Labour Office. As soon as it was drafted, the Bill was made known to the general public and to the workers' organisations, and a series of lectures on the Bill were inaugurated by the President of the Republic and the Secretary of Labour. At the inaugural lecture, the President stated that social insurance is an economic protection for the workers and an expression of national solidarity which has the ethical advantage of doing away with the idea that aid for the workers is a matter of charity. The Secretary of Labour, after describing the contents of the Bill, asserted that the time was now propitious for pressing forward with social security, since increased production required a higher standard of living amongst the working classes.

The workers' organisations represented in the National Council of Labour expressed their approval of the Bill, and the Mexican Confederation of Workers, at its Twentieth National Congress in October 1942, after hearing a statement on the Bill from the Secretary of Labour, decided to support the measure in its entirety and to undertake a campaign in its favour.

The Chamber of Deputies, on 23 December 1942, unanimously approved the Bill after hearing the report of its Social Insurance Committee. The Committee stated that "the Bill gives effect to a proposal already formulated in our Constitution to establish in Mexico a social security scheme in order to protect the human capital of the nation and to complete the existing legislation on behalf of the low-income classes of the population". The Committee also declared that the Bill was in conformity with the fundamental demands of the Mexican Revolution, that it respected the rights acquired by the workers, and that it established a firm foundation for the increase of national production and the development of industry. The Chairman of the Committee pointed out that, with the adoption of the Bill, public health ceased to be a matter of merely private concern, since the real wealth of the nation lay, not in its mines, factories, and banking accounts, but in its man-power, which it was necessary to foster. He went on to say that the measure, far from being of a demagogical nature, was thoroughly technical in its design, that it would be put into effect with prudence and by stages, and that representatives of the workers, the employers, and the State would be represented in its administration.

¹ *El Nacional*, 11 Nov. 1942.

² *Diario Oficial*, Vol. CXXXVI, No. 15, 19 Jan. 1943.

³ Cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. XLV, No. 3, Mar. 1942, p. 345.

In giving its approval to the Bill, the Chamber added a transitional provision authorising the Government to provide special old-age insurance for miners, metal workers, and other workers whose work is of such a nature as to reduce the length of their working life considerably. The Bill was then transmitted to the Senate, which on 29 December 1942 also approved it unanimously.

Principal Provisions of the Act.

The Act, as it has now been passed by Congress, applies to all employed persons without any wage limit; but agricultural workers and home workers will not be included until later. For the purpose of calculating both contributions and benefits, insured persons are divided into nine wage classes.

The Act covers the risks of industrial accidents and diseases, sickness and maternity, invalidity, old age, and death. Insurance against industrial accidents and diseases, the cost of which will be borne entirely by the employers, provides, besides medical care and necessary artificial limbs, a temporary incapacity benefit equal to three-quarters of the wage for a maximum of 52 weeks, and a monthly pension in case of permanent total incapacity equal to 20 times the average daily wage for the wage class to which the insured person last belonged. In case of death, a funeral benefit is payable and pensions are granted to the survivors as follows: for the widow, 36 per cent. of the pension due to the deceased in case of permanent total incapacity; for an orphan who has lost either parent, a pension of 20 per cent. of the same; and for an orphan who has lost both parents, a pension of 30 per cent. Sickness and maternity insurance provides medical, surgical, and pharmaceutical benefits for 26 weeks to the insured person, his wife and children under 16 years. The insured person also receives sickness benefit at the rate of 40 per cent. of his wage for the same period, and his family receives one-half of that benefit while he is in hospital. Insured women and the wives of insured men are entitled to obstetrical care, and the former also receive a daily benefit at the rate of 40 per cent. of their wage during the 42 days before and 42 days after confinement, this benefit being increased to the full wage during the 8 days before and the 30 days after the confinement, *i.e.*, the period during which the law requires abstention from work. Accordingly, the employer is relieved of the obligation which the Federal Labour Act imposed with regard to pregnant women workers. In case of invalidity involving the loss of two-thirds of earning capacity, a person who has paid contributions for not less than 200 weeks is entitled to a pension consisting of (1) a basic amount equal to 20 per cent. of the average wage for the wage class to which he belonged, and (2) a supplement varying with the number and amount of the contributions paid; a fixed minimum pension is guaranteed. On attaining the age of 65, an insured person who has contributed for at least 700 weeks is entitled to an old-age pension, computed in the same way as the invalidity pension. The widows and orphans of pensioners and insured persons who have contributed for 200 weeks are entitled to pensions, the widow's pension being equal to 40 per cent. of that which could have been granted to the deceased at the date of his death, and the orphan's pension to 20 per cent. or 30 per cent. of the same amount according as the child has lost one parent or both.

The cost of sickness, maternity, invalidity, old-age, and survivors' benefits is defrayed by the contributions of the employer and the insured person, and by the State. The employers' contributions are fixed at 6 per cent. of wages and the workers' contributions at 3 per cent., while the State pays a subsidy equal to half the employers' contributions.

The scheme is to be administered by the National Social Insurance Institute, which is an autonomous body, tripartite in character, with a Director appointed by the President of the Republic, and which has as its organs a general meeting, a technical governing body, and a supervisory committee.

The International Labour Office, when called upon in August 1942 to consider the Bill which has now become an Act, characterised it as broad and complete in its design, moderate and prudent in the method by which it is to be applied, and based on actuarial calculations which should secure the permanent financial equilibrium of the scheme. The scope of the Act is broad, since it extends potentially to all workers whose status is that of economic dependence; and the protection it affords is complete, since it covers all the social and occupational risks to which workers and their families are exposed. The Act is prudent with respect to the mode of its enforcement, since provision is made for the introduction of insurance branch by branch and for its application to successive groups of work-

ers, with due regard for environmental conditions. Lastly, the actuarial calculations have been made in conformity with strict technical rules, and the social, biological, and economic assumptions have been adopted after careful consideration; the choice of financial system and the utilisation of the funds have likewise received thorough study.¹

Appointment of National Social Insurance Institute.

On 1 January 1943, the Secretary of Labour and Social Welfare set up the National Social Insurance Institute, which in the preparatory stage will consist only of a tripartite committee, having the powers of the general meeting and the supervisory committee. The task of this body is to make arrangements for the efficient implementation of the powers which the Government now possesses, and to decide, in accordance with the principles indicated in the Act, in which regions the scheme is to be applied at the outset and which risks are to be covered in the successive stages of application for which the Act provides.

SOCIAL INSURANCE REFORMS IN GERMANY

UNIFIED CALCULATION AND COLLECTION OF SOCIAL INSURANCE CONTRIBUTIONS

Since 1 July 1942, the employers' and insured persons' contributions to the three principal schemes of social insurance in Germany—sickness insurance, pension insurance, and unemployment insurance—have been calculated on the same basis and collected as a single sum. During the time which has elapsed since the issue of the Order of 24 April 1942 (which was the second to deal with the simplification of wage deductions on account of taxes and insurance contributions) it has been possible to ascertain the methods used to achieve the unification of contributions.

It should be noted that the three insurance schemes remain administratively and financially separate, and that the reform, save as regards pension insurance, has not affected the rates of contributions and benefits, which vary with the wage of the insured person.

The unification of contributions is characterised by the following principles:

- (1) In the three insurance schemes, the contributions are calculated on the same basic wage.
- (2) The employer pays to the sickness fund the total contribution for the three schemes; this contribution comprises both the employer's share and the worker's share, the latter being deducted from his wage.
- (3) The sickness fund retains its part of the total contribution and distributes the remainder between pension insurance and unemployment insurance, each of which receives its due proportion.

The stamps which have hitherto been used in pension insurance, as the means of paying contributions and as proof of their payment, have been abolished. The old insurance books have been kept provisionally, but stamps are no longer affixed to them. Instead of stamping the books, the employer notes in them the duration of employment and the total amount of wages paid, to serve as a basis for establishing the right of the holder of the book to pension and calculating the pension.

Before describing the reform in some detail, it should be mentioned that the total contribution for the three insurance schemes is about 18 per cent. of wages, of which 5.6 per cent. are now assigned to pension insurance and 6.5 per cent. to the National Employment Fund on account of unemployment insurance. The share of sickness insurance varies according to the rules of each fund, but this variation is no obstacle to the unification of the calculation and collection of the total contribution.

The principal object of the reform is to simplify the clerical and book-keeping

¹ Cf. SECRETARÍA DEL TRABAJO Y PREVISIÓN SOCIAL: *Memoria de Labores* (Mexico, 1942), Vol. II, pp. 13-17.

work performed by undertakings. The latter have now only a single wage list to maintain for the purpose of deducting taxes and insurance contributions, and will have to deal only with the sickness fund when paying the total contribution.

Pension Insurance.

In order to achieve simplification, it was necessary to make the rates of contribution uniform and to alter the basic wage. As the rate of pension varies with wages, the abandonment of the stamp system made it necessary to introduce a new method of noting wages and to make a suitable adjustment in the calculation of pensions.

Rate of contribution. Hitherto, contributions were fixed by wage classes. Wage earners were distributed, according to their weekly wage, among nine classes; for example, those earning from 42 to 48 marks a week belonged to the eighth class, the weekly contribution for which was 2.70 marks, shared equally between the employer and the insured person. The salaried employees were distributed among seven salary classes, the monthly contribution for an employee earning between 400 and 500 marks a month being 20 marks. The limited number of wage classes facilitated, and indeed made possible, the working of the stamp system.

Since contributions to sickness insurance and unemployment insurance, on the other hand, were fixed as percentages of wages, it was necessary to abolish the contributions by wage class and to fix the pension insurance contribution also as a percentage of wages.

Having regard to the average rate of the contributions received under the wage earners' pension insurance, this percentage was fixed at 5.6, both for this scheme and for the salaried employees' scheme, though it represented for the latter, in comparison with the average calculated for the period before 1 July 1942, an increase of 0.8 per cent. The uniform rate of 5.6 per cent. is justified by the consideration that, in calculating the contribution, the employer can use the same rate for his entire staff, whether wage earners or salaried employees.

Basic wage. The fixing of the share of pension insurance in the total contribution as a percentage of the wage did not, however, suffice to render uniform the calculation of the contributions by the sickness fund. It was also necessary to calculate the share of pension insurance on the same basic wage as is used in sickness insurance and unemployment insurance; this procedure has been applied since 1 July 1942. Each sickness fund lays down, in its rules, how the basic wage of its members is to be determined. It has a choice of three methods, which, for that matter, may be used in combination: the basic wage may be indicated by the wage class, the category to which the member belongs, or the actual wage, the last method being ever more extensively used. In any case, the method adopted by the sickness fund is automatically used for unemployment insurance and, as a result of the reform, for pension insurance also, so that the employer has to apply only one method of assessing the basic wage.

In sickness insurance, remuneration is taken into account for the purpose of assessing the basic wage only up to 70 marks a week. Thus the contribution is not payable on earnings in excess of this figure. The same limit applies now in the wage earners' pension insurance, and this means an increase over the old limit of 54 marks a week. For wage earners receiving between 54 and 70 marks a week there will therefore be an increase of the contribution, but also a corresponding increase in their pensions.

In the pension scheme for salaried employees, the contributions are calculated on a monthly remuneration not exceeding 600 marks a month or 7,200 marks a year. However, only those employees whose earnings do not exceed 300 marks a month or 3,600 marks a year are liable to sickness insurance. For the other employees, namely, those earning between 300 and 600 marks a month, the pension insurance contributions are still calculated on their actual salary—the same, it may be mentioned in passing, as that on which the income tax is based.

Wage records. Now that contributions are fixed as a percentage of wages, the stamps, which served as proof of the payment of the contribution and also as the data for the calculation of pensions, have had to be abolished. The complaints of undertakings about the additional work required of them were directed particularly against the stamp system.

The stamp is replaced by an entry, to be made by the employer, in the insur-

ance book, showing, on the one hand, the duration of the insured person's employment and, on the other hand, the total amount of his earnings during the period. This entry is made when the worker leaves the employment, and, in any case, at the end of each calendar year. The periods of employment must be recorded in order to show whether the worker has completed the qualifying period and maintained the status which enables him to claim a pension. The recording of the total amount of his earnings is necessary in order to determine the rate of the pension. These entries can be made by the undertaking at the same time as it fills in the list for the income tax. The new procedure is considered less troublesome for the undertaking than that of affixing stamps at frequent intervals.

Calculation of pensions. Invalidity, old-age and survivors' pensions consist partly of a basic sum which is uniform for each class of pension, and which therefore represents a guaranteed minimum, and partly of individual increments. Hitherto, every stamp affixed to an insurance book gave the right to a fixed increment of pension, the increment depending on the value of the stamp. The stamps having been abolished, it was necessary to compute the increments, like the contributions, as functions of the basic wage. The increment has been fixed at 1.2 per cent. of the basic wage in the wage earners' scheme, and at 0.7 per cent. in the salaried employees' scheme. So far as the wage earners' scheme is concerned, the rate of the increment corresponds to the average value of the increments under the stamp system, but for the salaried employees' scheme, the figure of 0.7 per cent. represents an increase corresponding to the fact, already mentioned, that the contribution has been raised from 4.8 to 5.6 per cent. of wages.

The new methods of recording wages and calculating pensions lighten the work to be performed by the undertakings, which have to make deductions from wages on account of insurance contributions. These methods do not apply to those forms of pension insurance in which the undertakings are not concerned: voluntary insurance on the part of persons not liable to pension insurance; voluntary continuation of insurance on the part of persons ceasing to be insured compulsorily; additional insurance taken out by individuals desiring higher benefits. For these forms of insurance, which do not require the undertaking to make a deduction from wages, the insurance stamp has been retained; it has also been retained in the compulsory insurance of independent workers and in the compulsory insurance of temporary workers who often change their employer.

Sickness Insurance.

The sickness funds were already responsible for collecting, not only their own contributions, but also those destined for the National Employment Fund on account of unemployment insurance. As the sickness funds are highly decentralised and maintain frequent contact with the undertakings, they seem to be the most suitable agencies for collecting the insurance contribution, henceforward inclusive and uniform.

The distribution of the contributions, after collection by the sickness fund, among the three insurance schemes, offers no difficulty. Nevertheless, the standard rule for the distribution is not applicable in the case of groups of insured persons who are not covered simultaneously by all three schemes, such as salaried employees earning more than 3,600 marks, who are exempt from sickness insurance, and apprentices, who are exempt from unemployment insurance.

For these groups, the employer must notify the sickness fund separately of the contributions collected. For this purpose, he may make a subdivision in the payroll, e.g. for apprentices; or, if it is not practicable to make such a subdivision by reason of the size or complexity of the undertaking, he may show on the payroll itself, in different columns, the amount of contributions pertaining to the different insurance schemes. The sums entered in the different columns are totalled separately, the appropriate employer's share is added to each, and the results are notified separately to the sickness fund.

Unemployment Insurance.

Contributions to unemployment insurance were already collected by the sickness funds in the same way as sickness insurance contributions. The reform has consisted essentially in extending to pension insurance the procedures for the calculation and collection of contributions which were already common to sickness insurance and unemployment insurance.

The provisions concerning the obligation to contribute to the National Em-

ployment Fund have been simplified. Apprentices are now exempt from insurance contribution even during their last year of apprenticeship.

The unification of social insurance contributions has been prepared and carried out as part of a general plan to simplify and reduce the number of the deductions made from wages on account of income tax and social insurance contributions.¹

PENSION INSURANCE IMPROVEMENTS

The first Act for the improvement of pension insurance benefit, of 24 July 1941², had made good the cuts in the pensions applied by the Emergency Order of 14 June 1932. The second Act for the same purpose, of 19 June 1942, not only made good the cut in the children's supplements, but also introduced improvements which did not exist in the legislation of the Republic, widows being the main beneficiaries.

The children's supplement attached to invalidity pensions was raised from 90 to 120 marks a month for the first two children, that is, to the rate already in force for the third and following children.

Under the previous legislation, a wage earner's widow was entitled to pension in the following cases:

- (1) Permanent invalidity;
- (2) Temporary invalidity, the incapacity having lasted more than 26 weeks;
- (3) Attainment of age 65;
- (4) Care, at the time of her husband's death, of at least four children entitled to pension.

To these cases the new Act added two more:

- (5) Care of at least two children under 6 years entitled to pension;
- (6) Attainment of age 55, having borne at least four living children.

A woman whose marriage has been annulled, who is separated from her husband, or who has been divorced, but for whose maintenance her husband is liable, may be granted, on his death, a widow's pension, subject to the approval of the Minister of Labour. The rate of the pension may not exceed either that of the widow's pension of the woman to whom the man was married at the date of his death, or the rate of the alimony. The grant of a widow's pension to a previous wife does not affect the rates of the pensions paid to a second wife or the children of either.

The requirement of the completion of the qualifying period (5 years) is waived where invalidity or death is due to an accident at work. The same privilege had already been granted to soldiers and civil defence workers by an Act of 15 January 1941.³

Since 1938 insured women have been entitled, within three years after marriage, to the refund of half the joint contribution paid in respect of them since 1924, in exchange for the cancellation of their acquired rights. They could only exercise this right, however, when they had completed the qualifying period; the new Act abolished this condition.⁴

INVALIDITY PENSION CHANGES IN FRANCE

An Act of 26 August 1942 amended the provisions concerning the calculation of the invalidity pensions under the general scheme of social insurance for commerce and industry in France.

¹ *Reichsarbeitsblatt*, 1942, No. 14, Part II, pp. 290 et seq.; *Betriebskrankenkasse*, 1942, Nos. 13-14, pp. 197-199.

² Cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. XLV, No. 1, Jan. 1942, p. 96.

³ *Idem*, Vol. XLIII, No. 4, Apr. 1941, p. 455.

⁴ *Reichsarbeitsblatt*, 1942, No. 19, Part II, pp. 382-384 and 402-404.

Formerly the insured person, having completed a qualifying period of two years, could, if he had become insured before age 30, obtain a pension equal to 40 per cent. of the average of his basic wage since entering insurance; if he became insured after age 30, the pension was reduced by 1/30 for each year of age in excess of 30, but it was provided that the pension should not be less than 600 francs a year.

Now the basic pension is fixed at 30 per cent. of the average wage of the insured person, irrespective of his age at entry, and an increment of 1/30 is added for each year of insurance after the qualifying period, until a maximum total pension of 40 per cent. of the wage is attained. The nominal amount of the minimum pension was very greatly increased to 3,600 francs a year.¹

HEALTH INSURANCE IN IRELAND

The Minister for Local Government recently approved a scheme of health benefits for immediate application by the National Health Insurance Society of Ireland.

The amending Act of 25 March 1942² had set free, for the purpose of financing additional benefits, the revenue, amounting to £175,000 a year, formerly used to build up the Society's reserve fund. The additional benefits comprise dental treatment, maintenance and treatment in hospital and convalescent homes, ophthalmic examination and advice, a contribution towards the cost of glasses, and of medical and surgical appliances, and the cost of specialist treatment, such as radiological and electrical treatment and hydrotherapy.

The persons entitled to these benefits are insured persons who have completed a qualifying period of three years, for two of which full contributions have been paid. They are expected to number about 80 per cent. of the insured population of 500,000.³

ASSISTANCE TO INDIAN EVACUEES FROM WAR ZONES

Reference has previously been made in these pages⁴ to steps taken by the Government of India to provide relief for Indians evacuated from Burma and Malaya and to place them in employment. Information since received at the International Labour Office is summarised below.

Conference of Representatives of Evacuees.

A conference of representatives of Indian evacuees from the war areas, principally Burma, was convened by the Government of India in July 1942 at New Delhi.⁵ Various questions concerning the evacuees were discussed at the Conference, and it was explained on behalf of the Government that, although the Department of Indians Overseas would continue to maintain close vigilance in the matter, the question of placing evacuees in employment would be dealt with mainly by the Departments of Labour and of Defence of the Central Government and by the Provincial Governments. Measures for the absorption of unskilled labour would be taken by these latter⁶, and arrangements had been made for the registration of skilled workers and technicians.⁷

So far as the Burma Government servants were concerned, the Government of Burma (at present in India) had decided to grant its employees leave with

¹ Communication to the I.L.O.

² Cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. XLVI, No. 3, Sept. 1942, p. 360.

³ *Irish Times*, 28 Oct. 1942.

⁴ Cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. XLVI, No. 6, Dec. 1942, p. 757.

⁵ *The Hindustan Times* (Delhi), 28 July 1942.

⁶ According to an Unofficial Note of 18 June 1942 issued by the Principal Information Officer, Government of India, 25 registration offices had been opened in Madras and an evacuee employment bureau in the Central Provinces, a registration bureau under the control of the Employment Adviser in Bengal, and an evacuees' bureau in the United Provinces. Arrangements had been made for the registration of evacuees at the headquarters of the districts in the Punjab and in the North West Frontier Province. Registration offices had also been opened in areas directly administered by the Central Government, and in Sind the Commissioner of Labour had been entrusted with the necessary arrangements.

⁷ In a similar note of 19 August 1942 it was stated that 370 evacuees, who were skilled workers, mostly from Burma, had been registered with the national service labour tribunals in Bengal, Madras, the Punjab, the North-West Frontier Province, Bombay, the Central Provinces, Bihar and Orissa. Of this number, 121 had been placed in employment.

pay for a period of twelve months, four months of which would be on full salary and the remainder on half salary. Such persons were permitted to take up temporary employment, in which case, however, their leave salaries would be suitably adjusted.

It was also stated that all claims of Indians against the Governments of Burma and Malaya in respect of any loss of goods, or of war risks insurance, and of property commandeered, requisitioned or destroyed by Government action, would be met, provided that reasonable proof was forthcoming concerning those claims. The claims in respect of property or goods destroyed by enemy action would be considered after the war.

Allowances for Indigent War Refugees.

Scales of allowances payable to indigent refugees and to dependants of Indians stranded in enemy-occupied territories have been prescribed by the Government of India.¹ These scales are based upon the estimated normal income of or remittance received by the party. The amount varies from 15 to 150 rupees a month and provision is also made for supplementary allowances for dependants, both adults and children, subject to a maximum monthly limit of 350 rupees per person or 75 per cent. of the estimated normal income or remittance (whichever is less).² All such allowances are granted only against undertakings to repay, and the exact amount in each individual case is left to be determined by the provincial authorities. Each case is subject to a monthly review in order to ascertain whether the recipient has obtained employment. As for the cost of the scheme, the Government of India has assumed financial responsibility in respect of Indians and Anglo-Indians, and debits will be raised against other Governments for others.³

WORKERS' ORGANISATIONS

PLAN OF ALLIED SEAMEN'S UNIONS FOR UNIFORM BASIC WAGE AND WORKING CONDITIONS

The post-war status of merchant seamen and the need for a uniform agreement on wages and working conditions of the seafarers of all the Allied nations were the main problems considered at a conference of representatives of the Belgian, British, Chinese, Danish, Greek, Netherlands, Norwegian, Swedish, and Yugoslav seafarers' unions held in New York on 4 January 1943. The conference was convened by the International Transport Workers' Federation (I.T.F.).

Particular attention centred around a proposal approved by the General Council of the I.T.F. at a recent session in London, which advocated the establishment of uniform basic wage and working conditions for the seafarers of the Allied nations.⁴ It was suggested that all affiliated organisations should prepare comments and suggestions, to be forwarded to the headquarters of the I.T.F. in England and incorporated into a final draft for presentation to the Allied Governments there.

The Conference was informed that the Belgian, Netherlands, and Norwegian unions had recently concluded new collective agreements which helped to improve the conditions of the men, and that the British seamen were at present engaged in negotiations for a new collective agreement which promised to show satisfactory results.⁵

¹ *The Statesman* (New Delhi), 18 July 1942.

² These scales were to remain in force in the first instance for six months commencing 1 July 1942.

³ Communication to the I.L.O.

⁴ Cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. XLVII, No. 1, Jan. 1943, p. 106.

⁵ I.T.F.: *Bulletin*, 7 Jan. 1943, Vol. III, No. 1.

GIFT OF UNITED STATES TRADE UNIONS TO INDIAN SEAMEN IN GREAT BRITAIN

The British Sailors' Society has received a gift of £4,000 from the National Committee for American and Allied War Relief of the Congress of Industrial Organizations in the United States. This will enable it to establish a hostel for Indian seamen at Avonmouth.¹

TWENTY-FIRST CONGRESS OF THE CONFEDERATION OF CANADIAN CATHOLIC WORKERS

The Twenty First Congress of the Confederation of Canadian Catholic Workers was held at Montreal from 20 to 23 September 1942. This organisation which is active mainly in the Province of Quebec, had a membership of 45,448 at 31 May 1942, as compared with 46,032 a year earlier.

Report of the Executive Committee.

According to the report of the Executive Committee submitted to the Congress, the Confederation of Canadian Catholic Workers is co-operating wholeheartedly in the war effort, since it considers that winning the war must come before all else. The report adds that several members of the Committee have taken part in the study of certain fundamental problems, the solution of which must be examined without delay if conditions after the war are to be based on a just peace and to take into account the intrinsic value of Christian principles in the economic, as in the social, field.

With regard to certain Government measures, the report criticised in particular the application of Order in Council P.C. 7679 of 4 October 1941 concerning the payment of minimum wage rates by contractors manufacturing supplies for the Government of Canada, an Order which it described as "the most violated measure in the country", adding that "it might even be said that the Federal authorities are conniving with the employers to multiply the violations". With regard to the Order on trade union organisation, the results were described by the report as "very doubtful", and it raised the question whether this Order, which was no more than a declaration of principles concerning the right of organisation and collective bargaining, should not be made compulsory, even though this might lead the way to a sort of Canadian Wagner Act.²

Presidential Address.

In his opening address to the Congress Mr. Alfred Charpentier, President of the Confederation, pointed out that the sincerity of the collaboration of the Catholic trade union movement in the war effort could be measured by the small number of strikes organised by the Confederation as compared with the considerable number which had broken out in the other trade union movements of the Province of Quebec during the past year, especially in war industries and notwithstanding the unlawfulness of these strikes.

With regard to the Orders in Council, the President recalled that, unlike certain other labour organisations, the Confederation of Canadian Catholic Workers "was the first and only one to accept the policy of wage stabilisation" because it knew that provision was made for twofold compensation. On the one hand, there was the granting of cost-of-living bonuses, and, on the other, the possibility of increasing abnormally low wages. Moreover, the Confederation did not forget that the principal object of Order in Council No. 8253 of 27 October 1941³ (now replaced by the Wartime Wages Control Order P.C. 5963 of 10 July 1942) was, in conjunction with other measures, to prevent the repetition on a larger scale of the inflation of prices experienced in the last war. In spite of many disappointments due to its application, this measure had been found useful

¹ *The Times*, 16 Dec. 1942.

² The United States Act on industrial disputes known as the Wagner Act came into force on 5 July 1935. It established equality in collective bargaining. Cf. *INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE: Legislative Series*, 1935, U.S.1.

³ Cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. XLIV, No. 6, Dec. 1941, p. 669.

throughout the country as a means of giving the economically weaker wage earners a certain protection against the stronger, and of preventing the cost of living from reaching heights that were inaccessible to the mass of the people.

With reference to the situation in the Province of Quebec, Mr. Charpentier declared that it had been "excessively strained for nearly a year between the National Labour Board, the regional labour board, and the Provincial Ministry of Labour on the one hand and the trade unions of all shades on the other". He added that many new and very peculiar difficulties had arisen during the past year. In the first place, there was the flagrant competition of rival unions which were acting as if there were no law in existence for restraining them. They tried to entice the workers away into their own unions by holding out inducements with regard to wages, etc., and in other ways sought to undermine the work of the Catholic unions. He maintained that the present Congress should mark the beginning of a counter-offensive against this competition. A second difficulty was the voting procedure adopted by the Federal Ministry in all war industries where rival unions were competing for membership of the workers, in connection with the choice of the union to represent them before the employer.

Resolutions Adopted.

Among the resolutions submitted to the Congress several related to the cost of living and criticised the methods used for its calculation in Canada. In order to remedy an unsatisfactory state of affairs the Congress recommended among other things that the Federal Government should carefully check the information supplied to the Dominion Bureau of Statistics, that an enquiry should be made into the accuracy of the information collected by the Bureau and into the various distortions of figures that might occur at different stages and that a workers' representative should be appointed to both the national and the district price control authorities.

In another resolution the Congress requested the Government of the Province of Quebec to pass an Act establishing as full a classification as possible of the kinds of work that can be done by men and by women in industry and other branches of human activity, the object being to protect the health of women and girls and to encourage their return to the home.

On the question of the employment of women in industry the Congress decided to oppose their employment at night; to demand an enquiry for the purpose of ensuring that women and girls will be better protected in war production factories; to advocate the adoption of provincial legislation giving women and girls in industry $\frac{1}{4}$ -hour's break during the morning and afternoon; and to demand stricter moral supervision in the industry.

The Congress also adopted resolutions demanding the abolition of night work in bakeries wherever possible, and the amendment of existing legislation on old-age pensions in order to reduce the pensionable age from 70 to 65 years.

Election of Officers.

Mr. Alfred Charpentier was re-elected president, Mr. Gérard Picard, secretary-general, and Mr. Alphonse Bourdon, treasurer.¹

PROPOSED CO-ORDINATION OF THE SOUTH AFRICAN TRADE UNION MOVEMENT

Under the auspices of the South African Minister of Labour, Mr. W. B. Madeley, a conference of representatives of the South African Trades and Labour Council, the Cape Federation of Labour Unions, and the Western Province Trades Council was held in Cape Town in November 1942. A recommendation was passed urging the represented trade unions to adopt the draft constitution of a body to be known as the South African Federation of Trade Unions, which would act on behalf of organised labour in South Africa as a whole.²

¹ *Le Travail et la Vie Syndicale*, Vol. XVIII, Nos. 9 and 10, Sept. and Oct. 1942.

² *Trades and Labour Jottings* (Johannesburg), No. 59, Dec. 1942.

STATISTICS

Wages

In accordance with the plan which has been adopted for publication at quarterly intervals in the *Review* of statistics on labour conditions in different countries, the statistics of the *general level of wages* are given in this issue.

The tables group together the most comparable data in two sections, namely:

- (a) Hourly rates or earnings;
- (b) Daily, weekly or monthly earnings.

Figures for the different industries or occupations covered by these series are given in the *Year Book of Labour Statistics*, 1941 (table XIV).

For further information on the scope and method of these statistics, see the January 1943 issue of the *Review*: "Statistics, Explanatory Notes", pp. 116-125.

The cost-of-living statistics used for calculating the real wage indices were published in the January issue of the *Review* and will appear again in the April issue.

EXPLANATION OF SIGNS USED IN THE TABLES

The sign * signifies: "figures do not exist".

The sign — signifies: "figures not yet received".

The sign † signifies: "provisional figures".

The sign ° signifies: "covering men only".

The sign † signifies: "figure revised since the previous issue".

The sign e signifies: "economic group represented by a few branches only".

The sign — between two figures of a series signifies that the former series has been replaced by another, or revised.

Figures in *thick-faced* type: indices (100) of the base year.

Figures in *italics*: index numbers with a year later than 1929 as base.

Figures in *brackets*: series subject to certain reservations (see the January issue of the *Review*: "Statistics, Explanatory Notes").

(a) Hourly rates or earnings

Date	AFRICA		AMERICA						
	Union of South Africa	Canada	United States					Argentina (Buenos Aires)	Mexico (Federal District)
			B.L.S.		N.I.C.B.				
	M., ind., tr., com.	M., ind., tr.	Industries	Industries			Ind., transp., com., serv.	Ind.	
	M.	M. W.	M. W.	M.	W.	M. W.	M. W.	M. W.	
	Rates	Rates	Earnings	Earnings			Earnings	Earnings	
Money wages									
			Cents	Cents	Cents	Cents		Pesos	
1929	*	*	*	62.5	39.8	59.0	*	*	
1930	*	*	*	62.2	39.5	58.9	*	*	
1931	*	*	*	59.7	37.1	56.4	*	*	
1932	*	*	45.8	52.6	32.5	49.8	*	*	
1933	*	*	45.5	51.8	34.0	49.1	*	*	
1934	*	*	54.1	60.7	42.7	58.0	*	0.28	
1935	*	*	55.9	61.8	43.7	59.9	*	*	
1936	*	*	56.4	65.1	43.4	61.9	*	0.33	
1937	*	*	63.4	73.5	47.3	69.5	*	0.36	
1938	*	*	63.9	75.8	48.2	71.6	*	0.40	
1939	*	*	64.4	76.5	47.5	72.0	*	0.46	
1940	*	*	67.0	78.4	49.1	73.9	*	0.47	
1941	*	*	73.8r	86.7	53.3	81.4	*	—	
1941: Sept.	*	*	75.8	90.0	55.3	84.5	*	*	
Dec.	*	*	78.7	92.4	57.2	86.8	*	*	
1942: Mar.	*	*	80.9	94.8	58.2	88.8	*	*	
June	*	*	84.0	97.9	60.0	91.7	*	*	
Sept.	*	*	88.5	102.3	63.6	95.7	*	*	
Index numbers of money wages (Base: 1929 = 100)									
1929	100	100	*	100	100	100	100	*	
1930	100	101	*	100	99	100	93	*	
1931	97	97r	*	96	93	96	87	*	
1932	93	90r	100 ¹	84	82	84	84	*	
1933	94	86	98	83	85	83	87	*	
1934	94	87	118	97	107	98	83	100	
1935	98	89	122	100	110	102	90	*	
1936	100	91	123	104	109	105	93	118	
1937	100	97r	138	118	119	118	96	129	
1938	101	100r	140	121	121	121	95	143	
1939	102	101	148	122	119	122	100	164	
1940	103†	104	148	125	123	125	101	168	
1941	—	114	161	139	135	138	105	—	
1941: Sept.	*	*	168	144	139	143	*	*	
Dec.	*	*	178	148	144	147	*	*	
1942: Mar.	*	*	177	152	146	151	*	*	
June	*	*	183	157	151	155	*	*	
Sept.	*	*	193	164	160	162	*	*	
Index numbers of real wages (Base: 1929 = 100)									
1929	100	100	*	100	100	100	100	*	
1930	102	102r	*	103	103	103	92	*	
1931	103	108	*	110	107	110	100	*	
1932	104	112r	100	108	105	108	108	*	
1933	108	110r	103	111	114	111	106	*	
1934	106	110r	120	122	135	124	107	(100)	
1935	111	113	121	122	133	123	109	*	
1936	112	112r	121	123	129	124	103	(103)	
1937	110	117r	131	133	134	133	104	(83)	
1938	107	120	136	141	140	141	104	(93)	
1939	108	120r	139	144	140	143	107	(106)	
1940	106†	119r	148	147	145	147	106	(107)	
1941	—	124	136	156	152	155	107	—	
1941: Sept.	*	*	150	159	153	158	*	*	
Dec.	*	*	158	159	154	158	*	*	
1942: Mar.	*	*	161	168	152	157	*	*	
June	*	*	165	161	155	160	*	*	
Sept.	*	*	166	166	162	165	*	*	
Persons covered	*	*	4,685,000	*	*	*	*	63,900	

¹ The index numbers of money wages have been calculated on the basis of the percentage change of wages in identical undertakings from month to month, and not on the money wages given above. See note on method in the *Review* for Aug. 1935, pp. 259-260, or the *Year-Book of Labour Statistics, 1935-36*.

Union of South Africa. Annual figures: 30 Sept. of each year.

United States. Bureau of Labor Statistics Series (B.L.S.): annual figures: averages; monthly figures: a week nearest to the 15th of the month. National Industrial Conference Board Series (N.I.C.B.): annual figures: averages; monthly figures: first week of the month.

STATISTICS OF THE GENERAL LEVEL OF WAGES (cont.)

(a) Hourly rates or earnings

Date	ASIA			EUROPE				
	China (Shanghai)	Japan ^a	Palestine	Germany				
	Industries	Industries	Industries	Mines ^b , industries, transport ^c				
	M. W.	M. W.	M. W.	M. sk.	M. unsk.	W. unsk.	M. W.	M. W.
	Rates	Earnings	Rates	Rates				Earnings
Money wages								
	Sh. \$			Rpf.	Rpf.	Rpf.	Rpf.	Rpf.
1929	*	*	*	101.1	79.4	52.7	85.3	96.8
1930	0.059	*	*	102.8	80.7	53.6	86.8	94.0
1931	0.057	*	*	97.4	76.6	51.0	82.3	86.9
1932	0.057	*	*	81.6	64.4	43.9	69.7	73.0
1933	0.058	*	*	78.5	62.3	43.4	67.6	70.7
1934	0.056	*	*	78.3	62.2	43.3	67.5	72.5
1935	0.053	*	*	78.3	62.2	43.4	67.5	73.6
1936	0.055	*	*	78.3	62.2	43.4	67.5	74.8
1937	0.050	*	*	78.5	62.3	43.4	67.6	76.4
1938	0.051	*	*	78.8	62.5	43.7	67.9	78.9
1939	0.060	*	*	79.1	62.8	44.0	68.2	81.2
1940	0.070	*	*	79.2	63.0	44.1	68.2	83.2
1941	—	*	*	79.9	63.8	44.4	68.9	—
1941: Sept.	—	*	*	80.0	63.9	44.5	69.0	87.8
Dec.	—	*	*	80.0†	63.9†	44.5†	69.1†	—
1942: Mar.	—	*	*	—	—	—	—	—
June	—	—	*	—	—	—	—	—
Index numbers of money wages (Base: 1929 = 100)								
1929	*	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
1930	100	*	105	102	102	102	102	97
1931	97	*	101	96	96	97	96	90
1932	97	87	101	81	81	83	82	75
1933	98	85	112	78	78	82	79	73
1934	96	88	137	77	78	82	79	75
1935	90	88	133	77	78	82	79	76
1936	93	88	128	77	78	82	79	77
1937	86	92	124	78	78	82	79	79
1938	88	100	120	78	79	83	80	82
1939	102	99 ^a	115	78	79	83	80	84
1940	119	—	114	78	79	84	80	86
1941	—	—	133	79	80	84	81	—
1941: Sept.	—	—	142	79	81	84	81	91
Dec.	—	—	*	79†	81†	84†	81†	—
1942: Mar.	—	—	160	—	—	—	—	—
June	—	—	*	—	—	—	—	—
Index numbers of real wages (Base: 1929 = 100)								
1929	1	*	*	100	100	100	100	100
1930	100	*	*	106	106	106	106	101
1931	100 ^r	*	*	109	109	110	109	102
1932	108 ^r	100	*	103	104	106	104	96
1933	118	96	*	101	103	108	104	95
1934	113 ^r	96	*	99	100	105	101	95
1935	106 ^r	92	*	97	98	103	99	95
1936	101 ^r	91	*	96	97	102	98	96
1937	77 ^r	91	*	96	97	101	98	97
1938	62 ^r	92	*	95	96	102	97	100
1939	66	79 ^a	*	95	97	102	98	102
1940	30	—	*	93	94	100	95	102
1941	—	—	*	91	93	97	93	—
1941: Sept.	—	—	*	91	93	97	93	105
Dec.	—	—	*	92†	93†	98†	94†	—
1942: Mar.	—	—	*	—	—	—	—	—
June	—	—	*	—	—	—	—	—
Persons covered	75,000†	1,563,601	*	*	*	*	*	*

¹ Series recalculated according to a new cost-of-living index number. ² Series calculated by the I.L.O.: daily earnings divided by hours actually worked per day. Up to 1938, statistics of the Bank of Japan. ³ From 1929 to 1937, series calculated by the I.L.O., based on money wages published for 1938 to which the index numbers were applied. Since 1938, including Austria. ⁴ Three first quarters.

China. Annual figures: up to 1935, Sept. of each year; from 1936 onwards: averages.

Palestine (Jewish labour). Annual figures: averages; monthly figures: end of the month in question. The original indices relate to rates of wages per 8-hour day.

(a) Hourly rates or earnings

Date	EUROPE (cont.)									
	Belgium			Bulgaria			Denmark			
	Mines, industries, transport			Industries			Industries, transport°, etc.			
	M.W.sk.	M. W. unsk.	M. W.	M.	W.	M. W.	M. sk.	M. unsk.	W.	M. W.
	Earnings			Earnings			Earnings			
Money wages										
				Leva	Leva	Leva	Öre	Öre	Öre	Öre
1929	*	*	*	10.01	5.98	7.81	153	124	83	128
1930	*	*	*	9.76	6.16	7.33	156	126	84	131
1931	*	*	*	9.25	5.58	7.12	155	126	84	131
1932	*	*	*	7.75	4.90	6.20	153	127	85	131
1933	*	*	*	7.76	4.69	6.53	153	127	85	131
1934	*	*	*	7.29	4.59	6.09	154	129	86	132
1935	*	*	*	7.04	5.13	6.11	155	129	87	133
1936	*	*	*	7.09	5.22	6.03	156	130	87	132
1937	*	*	*	7.78	5.88	6.61	158	133	88	135
1938	*	*	*	8.15	6.33	7.02	166	140	94	142
1939	*	*	*	8.27	6.58	7.32	175	148	96	147
1940	*	*	*	8.82	7.47	8.32	194	163	108	162
1941	*	*	*	10.27	7.72	9.23	206	177	118	175
1941: Sept.	*	*	*	*	*	*	207	180	119	179
Dec.	*	*	*	11.65	8.54	10.81	211	180	119	180
1942: Mar.	*	*	*	*	*	*	—	—	—	—
June	*	*	*	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Index numbers of money wages (Base: 1929 = 100)										
1929	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
1930	104	106	106	98	103	94	102	102	101	102
1931	97	98	99	92	93	91	101	102	101	102
1932	88	89	91	77	82	79	100	102	102	102
1933	87	87	88	78	78	84	100	103	102	102
1934	83	83	84	73	77	78	100	104	103	103
1935	80	83	81	70	86	78	101	104	105	104
1936	87	89	88	71	87	77	102	105	105	103
1937	97	100	97	78	98	85	103	107	106	105
1938	102	105	103	81	106	90	109	113	113	111
1939	103	105	104	83	110	94	114	119	116	115
1940	109 ¹	111 ¹	110 ¹	88	125	107	126	132	130	127
1941	115 ²	119 ²	118 ²	103	129	118	134	143	142	137
1941: Sept.	—	—	—	*	*	*	135	145	143	140
Dec.	—	—	—	116	143	138	138	145	143	141
1942: Mar.	—	—	—	*	*	*	—	—	—	—
June	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Index numbers of real wages (Base: 1929 = 100)										
1929	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
1930	101	102	102	107	113	103	107	106	106	107
1931	104	105	106	116	117	114	113	114	113	114
1932	106	106	108	105	112	108	112	114	114	114
1933	105	105	107	114	115	123	109	112	111	111
1934	104	105	106	114	121	122	105	109	108	107
1935	101	103	102	118	144	131	103	106	106	105
1936	103	106	104	124	153	135	102	105	104	103
1937	105	109	106	134	169	146	99	104	102	102
1938	109	112	110	136	176	150	102	107	107	105
1939	111	114	112	132	176	150	105	109	106	106
1940	—	—	—	130	184	157	91	95	94	91
1941	—	—	—	122	154	110	85	91	90	87
1941: Sept.	—	—	—	*	*	*	85	91	90	88
Dec.	—	—	—	114	140	136	85	90	89	87
1942: Mar.	—	—	—	*	*	*	—	—	—	—
June	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Persons covered	*	*	*	4,716	2,042	6,758	60,000r	73,000r	37,000r	169,000r

¹ Three quarters only. ² Two first quarters only.

Bulgaria. Annual figures: up to 1933, averages of the figures for June and Dec.; from 1934 onwards, averages of the figures for Jan. and July; monthly figures: Jan. and July, averages.

Denmark. Annual figures: averages; monthly figures: averages for the quarter ending with the month in question.

STATISTICS OF THE GENERAL LEVEL OF WAGES (cont.)

(a) Hourly rates or earnings

Date	EUROPE (cont.)										
	Estonia			France					Great Britain		
	Industries, etc.			Metals (Paris)	Industries, etc.		Metals and indus- tries	J.R. S.S. ¹	M. of L. ²	L.&C.E. S. ³	
					Agr. mines, ind., transp., local auth.						
	M.	W.	M. W.	M. W.	Paris	Other towns	M.W. ⁴ chiefly skilled	M. W.			
	Earnings			Rates					Rates		
Money wages											
	Sents	Sents	Sents	Frs.	Frs.	Frs.	Frs.				
1929	37.9	23.0	32.1	5.45	6.10	3.83	2.26	*	*	*	*
1930	38.7	23.0	32.5	5.79	6.64	4.08	2.42	*	*	*	*
1931	37.0	22.9	31.9	5.74	6.61	4.08	2.42	*	*	*	*
1932	34.5	22.1	29.9	5.47	6.34	3.99	2.35	*	*	*	*
1933	33.2	22.0	29.2	5.57	6.34	3.89	2.26	*	*	*	*
1934	33.0	21.9	29.0	5.54	6.34	3.89	2.28	*	*	*	*
1935	34.4	22.4	29.9	5.49	6.23	3.80	2.26	*	*	*	*
1936	36.3	23.4	31.6	6.33	7.06	4.42	2.62	*	*	*	*
1937	39.4	25.0	34.4	9.41	10.08	5.60	3.08	*	*	*	*
1938	42.4	26.5	37.1	10.45	10.50	6.19	3.42	*	*	*	*
1939	45.4	28.6	39.8	10.93	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
1940	47.0 ⁵	31.0 ⁵	41.7 ⁵	11.19	10.90	6.34	3.50	*	*	*	*
1941	*	*	*	11.93	12.11	7.17	4.15	*	*	*	*
1941: Sept.	*	*	*	12.42	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Dec.	*	*	*	12.45	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
1942: Mar.	*	*	*	12.50	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
June	*	*	*	—	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Sept.	*	*	*	—	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Index numbers of money wages (Base: 1929 = 100)											
1929	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
1930	102	100	101	106	109	107	107	107	99	100	99
1931	91	96	93	100	104	104	104	104	96	96	96
1932	88	96	91	102	104	102	100	102	—	95	95
1933	87	95	90	102	104	102	101	102	96	96	95
1934	91	97	93	101	102	99	100	100	97	97	96
1935	96	102	98	116	116	115	116	115	100	100	98
1936	104	109	107	173	165	146	136	150	105	104	102
1937	112	115	116	192	172	162	151	165	106	107	105
1938	120	124	124	201	*	*	*	*	—	108	107
1939	124 ⁵	135 ⁵	130 ⁵	205	179	166	155	167	—	122	118
1940	*	*	*	219	199	187	184	190	—	—	128
1941	*	*	*	228r	*	*	*	*	*	—	129
1941: Sept.	*	*	*	228r	*	*	*	*	*	—	134
Dec.	*	*	*	229r	*	*	*	*	*	—	135
1942: Mar.	*	*	*	—	*	*	*	*	*	—	138
June	*	*	*	—	*	*	*	*	*	—	138
Sept.	*	*	*	—	*	*	*	*	*	—	138
Index numbers of real wages (Base: 1929 = 100)											
1929	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
1930	(115)	(112)	(114)	103	104	108	107	107	103	104	103
1931	(113)	(120)	(116)	107	104	108	107	107	109	110	110
1932	(116)	(127)	(121)	107	106	109	107	109	—	112	111
1933	(117)	(128)	(121)	110	109	114	113	114	111	111	110
1934	(120)	(129)	(123)	116	115	119	119	120	111	111	110
1935	(114)	(121)	(117)	125	122	126	126	126	111	111	110
1936	(117)	(122)	(120)	154	144	134	124	138	111	110	108
1937	(119)	(123)	(123)	150	132	130	121	132	111	113	110
1938	(123)	(127)	(127)	—	*	*	*	*	—	112	110
1939	(111) ⁵	(120) ⁵	(116) ⁵	—	—	—	—	—	—	108	104
1940	*	*	*	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	106
1941	*	*	*	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1941: Sept.	*	*	*	—	*	*	*	*	*	—	107
Dec.	*	*	*	—	*	*	*	*	*	—	110
1942: Mar.	*	*	*	—	*	*	*	*	*	—	114
June	*	*	*	—	*	*	*	*	*	—	113
Sept.	*	*	*	—	*	*	*	*	*	—	113
Persons covered	35,000	15,000	50,000	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*

¹ Series calculated by the I.L.O.: weighted averages of the rates of the four preceding series. ² *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society*. ³ Ministry of Labour. ⁴ *London and Cambridge Economic Service*. ⁵ Mar. France. Metals: annual figures: averages; monthly figures: averages for the quarter ending with the month in question. Industries: annual figures: Oct. of each year. Great Britain (including Northern Ireland). Annual figures: averages.

(a) Hourly rates or earnings

Date	EUROPE (cont.)									
	Hungary	Italy	Latvia (Riga)				Lithuania			
	Indus-tries	Indus-tries, etc.	Industries, etc.				Industries			
	M. W.	M. W.	M. sk.	M. unsk.	W. unsk.	M. W.	M. sk. ¹	M. unsk. ¹	W. ¹	M. W. ⁴
	Earnings	Earnings	Earnings				Rates			
	Money wages									
	Pengö	Lire	Sants.	Sants.	Sants.	Sants.	Litas	Litas	Litas	
1929	0.57	2.09	81	57	33	51	*	*	*	*
1930	0.52	2.07	84	59	33	53	1.45	0.90	0.56	*
1931	0.55	1.95	82	57	33	53	1.44	0.86	0.54	*
1932	0.51	1.91	72	50	31	46	1.30	0.81	0.52	*
1933	0.48	1.86	65	47	30	43	1.14	0.69	0.47	*
1934	0.46	1.80	63	47	30	43	1.07	0.63	0.44	*
1935	0.44	1.77	64	49	30	43	1.04	0.64	0.44	*
1936	0.45	1.88	65	49	30	44	1.03	0.63	0.43	*
1937	0.46	2.11	68	52	32	46	1.09	0.68	0.49	*
1938	0.49	2.26	73	55	35	50	1.14	0.68	0.49	*
1939	0.53 ¹	2.30 ⁵	76	57	36	52	—	—	—	*
1940	0.58 ²	—	79 ³	60 ³	38 ³	54 ³	—	—	—	*
1941: Sept.	*	*	—	—	—	—	*	*	*	*
Dec.	*	*	—	—	—	—	*	*	*	*
1942: Mar.	*	*	—	—	—	—	*	*	*	*
June	*	*	—	—	—	—	*	*	*	*
Index numbers of money wages (Base: 1929 = 100)										
1929	100	100	100	100	100	100	*	*	*	*
1930	91	99	104	104	100	104	100	100	100	100
1931	95	93	101	100	100	104	100	96	96	96
1932	89	91	89	88	94	90	90	90	82	89
1933	84	89	80	82	91	84	79	77	85	80
1934	81	86	78	82	91	84	74	69	78	75
1935	77	85	79	86	91	84	73	72	79	74
1936	79	90	80	85	93	86	71	70	77	78
1937	81	101	84	90	97	90	75	76	88	79
1938	86	108	90	96	106	98	78	78	87	80
1939	93 ¹	110 ⁵	94	100	109	102	—	—	—	—
1940	102 ²	—	95 ³	105 ³	116 ³	106 ³	—	—	—	—
1941: Sept.	*	*	—	—	—	—	*	*	*	*
Dec.	*	*	—	—	—	—	*	*	*	*
1942: Mar.	*	*	—	—	—	—	*	*	*	*
June	*	*	—	—	—	—	*	*	*	*
Index numbers of real wages (Base: 1929 = 100)										
1929	100	100	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
1930	(101)	102	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
1931	(112)	107	107	108	111	110	107	103	102	103
1932	(107)	110	108	107	118	110	113	114	117	113
1933	(108)	112	108	105	120	107	115	113	122	117
1934	(106)	114	104	111	128	113	116	109	122	114
1935	(99)	111	104	114	125	111	128	128	141	132
1936	(96)	109	108	113	127	114	125	123	135	128
1937	(92)	111	108	111	123	110	120	121	140	126
1938	(98)	110	100	107	122	108	123	118	136	125
1939	(107) ¹	111 ⁵	101	107	121	109	—	—	—	—
1940	(108) ²	—	99 ³	107 ³	121 ³	107 ³	—	—	—	—
1941: Sept.	*	*	—	—	—	—	*	*	*	*
Dec.	*	*	—	—	—	—	*	*	*	*
1942: Mar.	*	*	—	—	—	—	*	*	*	*
June	*	*	—	—	—	—	*	*	*	*
Persons covered	289,000	1,528,636	*	*	*	44,716	*	*	*	*

¹ Including the Northern Territories and Subcarpathian Russia. ² Excluding Eastern Territories and Transylvania. ³ Money wages calculated by the I.L.O.: daily rates of wages divided by normal hours per day. ⁴ Series calculated by the I.L.O.: weighted averages of the rates for men and women. ⁵ Mar.

Lithuania. Annual figures: up to 1933, June of each year; from 1934 onwards, July of each year.

(a) Hourly rates or earnings

Date	EUROPE (cont.)									
	Nether-lands	Poland	Sweden			Switzerland				Czecho-slovakia (Prague)
	M., in-dustries	M., in-dustries	Mines ^a , ind., transp., com.			Industries, some transport, com., etc.				Indus-tries
	M.	M. W.	M.	W.	M. W.	M. sk. semi-sk.	M. unsk.	W.	M. W.	M. W.
	Earnings	Earnings	Earnings			Earnings				Rates
Money wages										
		Zl.	Kr.	Kr.	Kr.	Frs.	Frs.	Frs.		Kč.
1929	*	1.01	1.25	0.74	1.12	1.48	1.14	0.77	*	4.37
1930	*	1.00	1.29	0.75	1.15	1.49	1.16	0.76	*	4.47
1931	*	0.93	1.29	0.75	1.15	1.51	1.16	0.78	*	4.49
1932	*	0.86	1.27	0.74	1.13	1.45	1.11	0.74	*	4.49
1933	*	0.78	1.22	0.73	1.09	1.42	1.09	0.72	*	4.47
1934	*	0.74	1.22	0.73	1.09	1.39	1.07	0.71	*	4.37
1935	*	0.72	1.24	0.74	1.11	1.36	1.05	0.70	*	4.34
1936	*	0.71	1.25	0.75	1.12	1.33	1.03	0.69	*	4.33
1937	*	0.74	1.29	0.77	1.15	1.32	1.05	0.69	*	4.22
1938	*	0.78	1.37	0.80	1.23	1.37	1.06	0.72	*	4.32
1939	*	0.79 ²	1.42	0.83	1.27	1.37	1.07	0.72	*	4.35 ¹
1940	*	*	1.53	0.93	1.37	1.41	1.10	0.74	*	—
1941	*	*	1.64	1.01	1.45	1.51	1.21	0.80	*	—
1941: Sept.	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	—
Dec.	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	—
1942: Mar.	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	—
June	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	—
Index numbers of money wages (Base: 1929 = 100)										
1929	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
1930	102	99	103	101	103	101	102	99	101	102
1931	100	92	103	101	103	102	102	101	103	103
1932	93	85	102	100	101	98	97	96	98	103
1933	89	77	98	99	98	97	96	94	96	102
1934	86	73	98	99	98	94	94	92	94	100
1935	83	71	99	100	99	92	92	91	93	99
1936	81	70	100	101	100	90	90	90	91	99
1937	82	73	103	104	103	89	92	90	91	97
1938	86	77	110	108	109	93	93	94	93	99
1939	87	78 ²	114	112	114	93	94	94	94	100 ¹
1940	91 ¹	*	122	126	122	95	96	96	96	—
1941	—	*	131	136	129	102	106	104	104	—
1941: Sept.	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	—
Dec.	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	—
1942: Mar.	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	—
June	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	—
Index numbers of real wages (Base: 1929 = 100)										
1929	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
1930	(106)	(108)	106	104	106	103	104	101	103	105
1931	(111)	(112)	110	108	109	109	109	109	110	110
1932	(111)	(114)	110	108	110	114	114	112	114	112
1933	(107)	(115)	108	109	108	119	117	115	118	113
1934	(104)	(118)	107	108	107	117	117	115	117	112
1935	(103)	(119)	107	108	107	116	116	114	116	108
1936	(103)	(122)	107	108	107	111	112	111	113	106
1937	(101)	(119)	108	109	108	105	108	106	107	102
1938	(104)	(127)	112	110	111	109	109	110	110	100
1939	(104)	(130) ²	113	111	113	108	110	109	109	94 ¹
1940	(101) ¹	*	106	109	106	101	103	102	102	—
1941	—	*	100	104	99	94	98	96	96	—
1941: Sept.	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	—
Dec.	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	—
1942: Mar.	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	—
June	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	—
Persons covered	78,000	813,843	389,747	77,915	505,729	29,000	29,000	9,000	67,000	*

¹ Jan.-June. ² March.

Netherlands. Annual figures: averages; monthly figures: averages for the half-year ending with the month in question.

(a) Hourly rates or earnings

Date	OCEANIA					
	Australia			New Zealand		
	Mines ^o , industries, transport ^o , etc.			Mines ^o , industries, transp. ^o , com.		
	M.	W.	M. W. ¹	M.	W. ¹	M. W. ¹
	Rates			Rates		
<i>Money wages</i>						
	s. d.	s. d.				
1929	2 3	1 2½	*	*	*	*
1930	2 2½	1 2½	*	*	*	*
1931	2 0	1 1	*	*	*	*
1932	1 10¼	1 0¼	*	*	*	*
1933	1 10	0 11¼	*	*	*	*
1934	1 10	0 11¼	*	*	*	*
1935	1 10½	1 0	*	*	*	*
1936	1 11	1 0¼	*	*	*	*
1937	2 0	1 1	*	*	*	*
1938	2 1½	1 1½	*	*	*	*
1939	2 2½	1 2¼	*	*	*	*
1940	2 3¼	1 2½	*	*	*	*
1941	2 4¼	1 3½	*	*	*	*
1941: Sept.	2 5	1 3½	*	*	*	*
Dec.	2 5¼	1 3¼	*	*	*	*
1942: Mar.	2 6	1 4¼	*	*	*	*
June	—	—	*	*	*	*
<i>Index numbers of money wages (Base: 1929 = 100)</i>						
1929	100	100	100	100	100	100
1930	98	99	98	100	100	100
1931	89	90	89	94	94	94
1932	84	84	84	89	90	89
1933	81	81	81	87	88	87
1934	82	82	82	87	88	87
1935	83	83	83	89	89	89
1936	85	85	85	99	99	99
1937	89	90	89	113	112	113
1938	96	93	95	120	116	119
1939	97	98	97	122	122	121
1940	101	100	101	126	126	125
1941	106	107	107	126	126	125
1941: Sept.	107	107	107	*	*	*
Dec.	108	109	108	*	*	*
1942: Mar.	111	112	111	*	*	*
June	—	—	—	*	*	*
<i>Index numbers of real wages (Base: 1929 = 100)</i>						
1929	100	100	100	100	100	100
1930	103	105	103	102	102	102
1931	105	106	105	104	105	104
1932	104	104	104	107	107	107
1933	104	104	104	110	111	110
1934	103	103	103	109	109	109
1935	102	102	102	107	107	107
1936	103	103	103	115	115	115
1937	105	106	105	123	122	123
1938	110	107	110	126	123	125
1939	109	110	109	123	123	122
1940	108	108	108	122	122	121
1941	109	109	109	118	118	117
1941: Sept.	109	109	109	*	*	*
Dec.	108	109	108	*	*	*
1942: Mar.	109	110	109	*	*	*
June	—	—	—	*	*	*
Persons covered	*	*	*	*	*	*

¹ Series calculated by the I.L.O.: weighted averages of the rates for men and women. ² Series calculated by the I.L.O.: index numbers of weekly rates of wages divided by index numbers of normal hours per week.

Australia. Annual figures: averages; monthly figures: last day of the month.

(b) Daily, weekly or monthly earnings

Date	AMERICA														
	Canada	United States				Argentina		Chile	Colombia (Bogotá)						
		M., ind., transp., com. services	B.L.S. Series	N.I.C.B. Series			Whole country		Buenos Aires	Ind.	Industries, services				
				In- dustries	Industries						M.	W.	M. W.		
					M. W.	M.								W.	M. W.
Weekly	Weekly	Weekly	Weekly	Weekly	Mthly	Mthly	Daily	Daily	Daily	Daily					
Money wages															
1929	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	Pesos	Pesos	Pesos	Pesos	Pesos	Pesos				
1930	*	*	*	*	*	*	141.87	*	*	*	*				
1931	*	25.34	27.66	15.98	25.84	*	130.37	*	*	*	*				
1932	*	22.18	24.00	14.69	22.62	*	120.87	*	*	*	*				
1933	*	17.86	17.96	11.73	17.05	*	115.11	*	*	*	*				
1934	*	17.36	18.69	12.35	17.71	*	119.89	*	*	*	*				
1935	*	18.93	21.07	14.50	20.06	*	109.49	*	*	*	*				
1936	*	20.85	23.49	15.37	22.23	*	118.90	*	*	*	*				
1937	*	22.60	26.02	15.74	24.39	*	122.57	*	*	*	*				
1938	*	24.95	28.72	17.02	26.80	104.4	126.63	12.60	*	*	*				
1939	*	22.70	26.07	15.69	14.43	*	125.28	14.16	1.69 ¹	1.05 ²	1.59 ³				
1940	*	26.58	28.97	17.02	27.04	107.3	128.61	16.62	1.72	1.13	1.58				
1941	*	26.11	30.64	17.43	28.54	105.9	132.70	20.23	1.75	1.12	1.61				
1941: Sept.	26.02 ¹	31.08	36.18	20.29	33.62	—	136.70	24.91	—	—	—				
Dec.	26.37	32.06	37.80	21.14	35.10	*	*	27.93	—	—	—				
1942: Mar.	26.13	33.70	38.75	22.15	36.08	*	*	28.09	—	—	—				
June	28.41	36.11 ^r	41.31	22.73	38.14	*	*	30.06	—	—	—				
Sept.	28.55	37.99 ^r	42.82	23.42	39.52	*	*	—	—	—	—				
Sept.	29.16	37.79	45.40	24.92	41.79	*	*	—	—	—	—				
Index numbers of money wages (Base: 1929 = 100)															
1929	*	100	100	100	100	*	100	*	*	*	*				
1930	*	93	90	91	91	*	92	*	*	*	*				
1931	*	83	78	83	79	*	85	*	*	*	*				
1932	*	68	59	67	60	*	81	*	*	*	*				
1933	*	66	61	70	62	*	85	*	*	*	*				
1934	*	72	69	82	70	*	77	*	*	*	*				
1935	*	78	77	87	78	*	84	*	*	*	*				
1936	*	83	85	89	85	*	86	*	*	*	*				
1937	*	91	94	97	94	100	89	100	*	*	*				
1938	*	83	85	89	86	*	88	117	100 ¹	100 ¹	100 ¹				
1939	*	90	95	97	95	103	91	132	103	101	102				
1940	*	96	100	99	100	101	94	161	104	107	101				
1941	100 ¹	113	118	115	118	—	96	198	—	—	—				
1941: Sept.	103	117	123	120	123	*	*	222	—	—	—				
Dec.	102	123	126	126	126	*	*	223	—	—	—				
1942: Mar.	111	132	126	129	134	*	*	239	—	—	—				
June	111	139	140	133	138	*	*	—	—	—	—				
Sept.	114	138	148	142	146	*	*	—	—	—	—				
Index numbers of real wages (Base: 1929 = 100)															
1929	*	100	100	100	100	*	100	*	*	*	*				
1930	*	95	93	94	94	*	91	*	*	*	*				
1931	*	94	90	96	91	*	98	*	*	*	*				
1932	*	84	75	86	77	*	105	*	*	*	*				
1933	*	86	82	94	83	*	102	*	*	*	*				
1934	*	92	87	104	89	*	99	*	*	*	*				
1935	*	96	93	106	94	*	101	*	*	*	*				
1936	*	101	100	105	101	*	95	*	*	*	*				
1937	*	107	106	109	106	100	96	(100)	*	*	*				
1938	*	100	99	103	99	*	96	(113)	100 ¹	100 ¹	100 ¹				
1939	*	109	111	114	111	108	97	(126)	100	99	99				
1940	*	117	118	116	118	98	98	(136)	104	107	102				
1941	100 ¹	132	133	129	132	—	98	(145)	—	—	—				
1941: Sept.	96	133	136	132	135	*	*	(151)	—	—	—				
Dec.	96	137	136	135	136	*	*	(148)	—	—	—				
1942: Mar.	104	142	140	134	139	*	*	(148)	—	—	—				
June	102	147	144	137	142	*	*	—	—	—	—				
Sept.	105	144	150	144	149	*	*	—	—	—	—				
Persons covered	1,719,000	5,001,000	*	*	*	617,000	—	19,435	—	—	13,000				

¹ Mar.-Dec. ² March. ³ May-Dec.

Canada. Monthly figures: last week of the month.

United States. Bureau of Labor Statistics series (B.L.S.): annual figures: averages (except money wages for 1930: averages for the last quarter); monthly figures: a week nearest to the 15th of the month. National Industrial Conference Board series (N.I.C.B.): annual figures: averages; monthly figures: first week of the month. Colombia. Annual and monthly figures: averages. (The index numbers of money wages are not calculated on the money wages given above but are averages of indices for various industrial groups.)

(b) Daily, weekly or monthly earnings

Date	AMERICA (cont.)		ASIA							EUROPE	
	Mexico	Uruguay	China		Japan			Pales- tine	Germany		
	Mi., ind., transp.	Ind.	Shang- hai	Chung- king	Imperial Cabinet series			Bank of Japan	Ind.	M.°,ind., transp.°	Agr.ind., transp., com.
			Ind.	Ind.	Industries			Ind.			
			M. W.	M. W.	M. W.	W.	M. W.	M. W.			
	Weekly	Monthly	Daily	Daily	Daily			Daily	Daily	Weekly	Weekly¹
Money wages											
	Pesos	Pesos	Sh. \$	Ch. \$	Yen	Yen	Yen				RM.
1929	*	*	*	*	264.5	98.9	206.4	*	*	*	31.19
1930	*	*	0.669	*	255.1	91.3	200.2	*	*	*	30.57
1931	*	*	0.678	*	243.0	82.1	187.0	*	*	*	27.73
1932	*	*	0.627	*	250.6	76.5	190.9	*	*	*	22.88
1933	*	*	0.639	*	254.4	73.5	187.9	*	*	*	21.88
1934	*	*	0.600	*	248.6	72.5	189.3	*	*	*	22.83
1935	*	*	0.572	*	243.3	72.6	188.1	*	*	*	24.04
1936	*	38.36	6.607	*	241.5	73.8	190.1	*	*	*	25.25
1937	*	*	0.597	0.787	247.6	78.4	195.7	*	*	*	26.52
1938	*	41.62	0.590	1.376	248.9	84.9	205.9	*	*	*	27.84
1939	28.80	41.55	0.719	1.728	256.0¹	87.7²	200.0¹	*	*	*	—
1940	28.47	42.08	1.423	3.332	—	—	—	*	*	*	—
1941	—	44.69	2.731	7.783	—	—	—	*	*	*	—
1941: Sept.	—	46.24	*	*	—	—	—	*	*	*	*
Dec.	—	45.64	*	*	—	—	—	*	*	*	*
1942: Mar.	—	—	*	*	—	—	—	*	*	*	*
June	—	—	*	*	—	—	—	*	*	*	*
Index numbers of money wages (Base: 1929 = 100)											
1929	*	*	*	*	100	100	100	100	*	100	100
1930	*	*	100	*	96	92	97	95	*	92	98
1931	*	*	101	*	92	83	91	87	*	81	89
1932	*	*	94	*	95	77	92	85	*	67	73
1933	*	*	96	*	96	74	91	86	*	68	70
1934	*	*	90	*	94	73	92	88	*	73	73
1935	*	*	88	*	92	73	91	88	*	75	77
1936	*	100	91	*	91	75	92	88	*	78	81
1937	*	*	89	100	94	79	95	93	*	81	85
1938	*	108	88	176	94	86	100	102	100¹	85	89
1939	100	108	107	220	97²	89²	97²	—	107	88	—
1940	89	110	211	423	—	—	—	—	106	92	—
1941	—	117	408	989	—	—	—	—	117	97	—
1941: Sept.	—	121	*	*	—	—	—	*	—	98	—
Dec.	—	119	*	*	—	—	—	*	—	97	—
1942: Mar.	—	—	*	*	—	—	—	*	—	—	—
June	—	—	*	*	—	—	—	*	—	—	—
Index numbers of real wages (Base: 1929 = 100)											
1929	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	100	100
1930	*	*	100	*	*	*	*	*	*	96	102
1931	*	*	104	*	*	*	*	*	*	92	101
1932	*	*	104r	*	100	100	100	100	*	85	94
1933	*	*	115	*	89	94	98	99	*	89	92
1934	*	*	107r	*	93	89	93	97	*	93	93
1935	*	*	101	*	88	88	89	94	*	94	96
1936	*	100	99r	*	86	86	88	92	*	97	100
1937	*	*	81r	100	84	87	87	93	*	99	105
1938	*	108	65r	151	79	88	85	86	100¹	104	109
1939	100	101	59	115	79²	72²	79²	—	108	107	—
1940	88	87	53r	77	—	—	—	—	92	109	—
1941	—	104	54	54	—	—	—	—	78	112	—
1941: Sept.	—	110	*	*	—	—	—	*	—	113	—
Dec.	—	107	*	*	—	—	—	*	—	112	—
1942: Mar.	—	—	*	*	—	—	—	*	—	—	—
June	—	—	*	*	—	—	—	*	—	—	—
Persons covered	*	39,901	*	*	1,048,576	515,025	1,563,601	1,598,111	*	—	16,393,700

¹ Insurance statistics (invalidity). ² Three first quarters. ³ Jan.

Mexico. Annual figures: April.

Uruguay. Annual figures: averages; monthly figures: quarterly averages.

(b) Daily, weekly or monthly earnings

Date	EUROPE (cont.)												
	Estonia			France	Great Britain and Northern Ireland			Hungary	Italy	Latvia (Riga)			
	Industries, etc.			Indus-tries	Mi., ^c ind., transp., ^c com.			Indus-tries	Indus-tries, etc.	Indus-tries, etc.			
	M.	W.	M. W.	M. W.	M.	W.	M. W. ²	M. W.	M. W.	M. W.			
	Weekly			Weekly ¹	Weekly			Daily	Monthly	Weekly ³			
Money wages													
	E. Kr.	E. Kr.	E. Kr.		s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	Pengö		
1929	19.02	10.92	15.82	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	5.15	*	*
1930	19.32	10.95	15.82	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	5.02	*	*
1931	17.23	10.22	14.42	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	4.71	*	*
1932	15.28	9.56	12.99	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	4.34	*	*
1933	14.70	9.52	12.68	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	4.13	*	*
1934	15.17	9.84	13.25	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	4.03	*	*
1935	16.45	10.51	14.21	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	3.89	*	*
1936	18.00	11.22	15.20	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	3.90	*	*
1937	19.58	11.95	16.89	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	3.97	*	*
1938	20.80	12.45	18.01	*	69	0 ³	32	6 ³	53	3 ³	4.27	*	*
1939	22.28	13.49	19.27	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	4.38 ³	*	*
1940	—	—	—	*	89	0 ⁴	38	11 ⁴	69	2 ⁴	4.79 ⁴	*	*
1941	—	—	—	*	99	5 ⁴	43	11 ⁴	75	10 ⁴	—	*	*
1941: Sept.	—	—	—	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Dec.	—	—	—	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
1942: Mar.	—	—	—	*	102	0 ¹⁰	47	6 ¹⁰	77	9 ¹⁰	*	*	*
June	—	—	—	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Index numbers of money wages (Base: 1929 = 100)													
1929	100	100	100	*	*	*	*	*	100	100 ⁷	*	*	*
1930	102	100	100	100	*	*	*	*	97	95	*	*	*
1931	91	94	91	87	*	*	*	*	91	87	*	*	*
1932	80	88	82	83	*	*	*	*	84	85	100	*	*
1933	77	87	80	80	*	*	*	*	80	85	96	*	*
1934	80	90	84	89	*	*	*	*	78	81	97	*	*
1935	86	96	90	87	*	*	*	*	76	74	98	*	*
1936	95	103	96	103	*	*	*	*	76	78	99	*	*
1937	103	109	107	118	*	*	*	*	77	90	105	*	*
1938	109	114	114	124	100 ³	100 ³	100 ³	100 ³	83	94	114	*	*
1939	117	124	122	—	*	*	*	*	85 ³	101 ³	117	*	*
1940	—	—	—	—	129 ⁴	130 ⁴	130 ⁴	130 ⁴	93 ⁴	*	121 ⁴	*	*
1941	—	—	—	143	144 ⁴	136 ⁴	142 ⁴	142 ⁴	—	*	—	*	*
1941: Sept.	—	—	—	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	—	*	*
Dec.	—	—	—	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	—	*	*
1942: Mar.	—	—	—	*	148 ¹⁰	146 ¹⁰	146 ¹⁰	146 ¹⁰	*	*	—	*	*
June	—	—	—	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	—	*	*
Index numbers of real wages (Base: 1929 = 100)													
1929	100	100	100	*	*	*	*	*	100	100	*	*	*
1930	(114)	(113)	(112)	100	*	*	*	*	(108)	99	*	*	*
1931	(106)	(109)	(107)	100	*	*	*	*	(106)	100	*	*	*
1932	(100)	(109)	(102)	88	*	*	*	*	(101)	102	100	*	*
1933	(103)	(116)	(107)	103	*	*	*	*	(103)	107	100	*	*
1934	(107)	(121)	(113)	108	*	*	*	*	(103)	108	108	*	*
1935	(115)	(128)	(119)	111	*	*	*	*	(97)	97	104	*	*
1936	(113)	(123)	(115)	120	*	*	*	*	(92)	94	107	*	*
1937	(116)	(123)	(120)	115	*	*	*	*	(88)	100	105	*	*
1938	(116)	(121)	(121)	107	100 ³	100 ³	100 ³	100 ³	(94)	96	103	*	*
1939	(123)	(129)	(128)	—	*	*	*	*	(98) ⁴	103 ⁴	103	*	*
1940	—	—	—	—	108 ⁴	109 ⁴	108 ⁴	108 ⁴	(99) ⁴	*	100 ⁴	*	*
1941	—	—	—	—	113 ⁴	106 ⁴	112 ⁴	112 ⁴	—	*	—	*	*
1941: Sept.	—	—	—	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	—	*	*
Dec.	—	—	—	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	—	*	*
1942: Mar.	—	—	—	*	115 ¹⁰	114 ¹⁰	114 ¹⁰	114 ¹⁰	*	*	—	*	*
June	—	—	—	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	—	*	*
Persons covered	35,000	15,000	50,000	*	—	—	6,000,000	289,000	1,526,636	44,716			

¹ Series calculated by the I.L.O.: hourly rates multiplied by hours actually worked per week. ² Incl. juveniles. ³ Oct. ⁴ July. ⁵ Including the Northern Territories and Subcarpathian Russia. ⁶ Excluding Eastern Territories and Transylvania. ⁷ Series calculated by the I.L.O.: hourly earnings multiplied by hours actually worked per month. ⁸ March. ⁹ Series calculated by the I.L.O.: hourly earnings multiplied by hours actually worked per week. ¹⁰ Jan. 1942.

France. Annual figures: averages (see details in table a).

(b) Daily, weekly or monthly earnings

Date	EUROPE (cont.)											
	Norway	Netherlands	Poland	Rumania	Sweden			Switzerland				
	M., industries	M., Ind., transp., com., local auth.	Industries	Ind. (some agr. oc., transp., com.)	Mines ^o , industries, transp., com.			Industries, some transp., com., etc.				
	M.	M. W.	M. W.	M. W.	M.	W.	M. W.	M. sk. semi-sk.	M. unsk.	W.	M. W. ²	
	Daily	Daily ¹	Weekly	Mthly	Weekly			Daily				
	Money wages											
	Kr.	Fl.	Zl.		Kr.	Kr.	Kr.	Frs.	Frs.	Frs.		
1929	11.75	4.20	*	*	59.83	34.19	52.98	12.45	9.85	6.45	*	
1930	11.80	4.23	*	*	61.66	34.50	55.10	12.57	9.90	6.36	*	
1931	11.28	4.22	*	*	57.41	32.70	50.95	12.62	9.97	6.36	*	
1932	11.48	4.07	29.60	*	56.48	32.28	50.46	12.92	10.35	6.54	*	
1933	11.31	3.92	28.01	*	54.73	32.69	49.16	12.73	10.08	6.32	*	
1934	11.34	3.77	26.74	*	56.10	32.57	50.11	12.75	10.00	6.46	*	
1935	11.34	3.64	26.96	*	57.63	33.65	51.54	12.39	9.73	6.36	*	
1936	11.71	3.54	27.30	*	59.62	34.64	52.99	12.12	9.51	6.11	*	
1937	12.59	3.52	29.30	*	61.48	35.40	54.75	11.90	9.69	6.24	*	
1938	13.82	3.54	—	*	64.75	36.69	57.40	12.11	9.58	6.34	*	
1939	14.04	3.56	—	*	67.19	38.85	59.82	12.20	9.69	6.21	*	
1940	15.16	3.70	—	*	72.74	42.63	64.49	12.62	9.95	6.34	*	
1941	—	—	—	*	77.13	45.45	68.56	13.34	10.75	6.97	*	
1941: Sept.	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	
1941: Dec.	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	
1942: Mar.	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	
1942: June	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	
Index numbers of money wages (Base: 1929 = 100)												
1929	100	100	*	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	
1930	100	101	*	96	103	101	104	101	101	99	100	
1931	96	100	*	85	96	96	96	101	101	99	101	
1932	98	97	100	69	95	94	95	100	100	100	100	
1933	96	93	85	63	92	96	93	99	97	97	98	
1934	97	90	80	62	94	95	95	99	97	97	98	
1935	97	87	81	61	97	98	97	96	94	97	96	
1936	100	84	82	62	100	101	100	94	99	93	96	
1937	107	84	89	66	103	104	103	99	94	95	95	
1938	118	84	—	67	109	107	108	94	93	97	94	
1939	119	85	—	69	113	112	112	94	94	95	94	
1940	129	88	—	—	122	125	122	98	96	97	96	
1941	—	—	—	—	129	133	129	103	104	107	104	
1941: Sept.	*	*	*	—	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	
1941: Dec.	*	*	*	—	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	
1942: Mar.	*	*	*	—	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	
1942: June	*	*	*	—	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	
Index numbers of real wages (Base: 1929 = 100)												
1929	100	100	*	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	
1930	104	(105)	*	(107)	106	104	107	103	102	101	102	
1931	104	(112)	*	(116)	103	102	103	109	109	106	108	
1932	109	(115)	100	(111)	102	102	103	100	100	100	100	
1933	109	(112)	(105)	(111)	101	106	102	104	103	102	103	
1934	108	(108)	(108)	(116)	103	104	104	106	103	106	105	
1935	106	(107)	(114)	(110)	105	107	106	103	101	105	103	
1936	107	(107)	(119)	(108)	108	109	108	100	98	99	99	
1937	107	(103)	(119)	(106)	108	109	108	83	84	96	94	
1938	114	(102)	—	(102)	110	110	111	84	85	98	95	
1939	114	(102)	—	(92)	112r	111	111	84	84	95	94	
1940	106	(96)	—	—	106r	108r	106r	89	88	89	88	
1941	—	—	—	—	99	101	99	82	83	85	83	
1941: Sept.	*	*	*	—	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	
1941: Dec.	*	*	*	—	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	
1942: Mar.	*	*	*	—	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	
1942: June	*	*	*	—	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	
Persons covered	—	1,385,000	—	—	389,747	77,915	505,729	6,000	6,000	1,000	14,000	

¹ Insurance statistics (accidents). ² Series calculated by the I.L.O.: weighted averages of the earnings for men and women.

Norway. Annual figures: third quarter of each year, except for 1931 (fourth quarter).

Poland. Annual figures: one pay period (generally a week) in the month of Aug. in each year.

Rumania. Annual figures: averages; monthly figures: averages for Jan., Apr., July, and Oct.

Sweden. Annual figures: averages; from 1929 to 1931, approximate figures.

Switzerland. Annual figures: averages; from 1932 onwards the index numbers of daily earnings are no longer strictly comparable with those for previous years owing to a change in method.

(b) Daily, weekly or monthly earnings

Date	EUROPE (concl.)					OCEANIA		
	Czecho- slovakia	U.S.S.R.		Yugoslavia		New Zealand		
	Agr., ind., some transp., com., etc.	M., industries		Croatia & Slavonia	Ind., some transp., com.	Industries		
				M., ind., tr., com.				
		M. W.	M. W.	M. W.	M. W.	M. W.	M.	W.
	Daily ¹	Daily	Monthly	Monthly	Daily ¹	Weekly		
Money wages								
	Kč.	Rbls.	Rbls.	Dinars	Dinars	s. d.	s. d.	
1929	19.11	3.07	77.06	*	26.32	89 6	39 6	*
1930	19.13	3.55	82.59	1.143	26.56	91 6	37 7	*
1931	18.66	4.11	96.10	1.137	26.19	86 2	35 11	*
1932	17.73	4.88	115.42	1.042	24.58	77 0	34 9	*
1933	16.72	5.18	126.08	988	23.22	73 8	33 3	*
1934	16.30	5.94	147.30	999	22.24	70 6	32 0	*
1935	15.93	7.55	186.75	890	21.65	70 11	31 4	*
1936	16.18	9.23	225.58	909	21.66	75 5	32 1	*
1937	17.09	10.15	242.46	950	22.71	88 9	37 6	*
1938	17.71	—	—	973	23.64	94 6	38 4	*
1939	18.92 ²	—	—	1.000	24.28	98 5	41 7	*
1940	—	—	—	1.151 ³	27.77 ⁴	101 9	44 10	*
1941	—	—	—	—	—	109 10	49 1	*
1941: Sept.	—	*	*	—	—	*	*	*
Dec.	—	*	*	—	—	*	*	*
1942: Mar.	—	*	*	—	—	*	*	*
June	—	*	*	—	—	*	*	*
Index numbers of money wages (Base: 1929 = 100)								
	100	100	100	*	100	100	100	100
1929	100	116	107	100	101	102	95	101
1930	98	134	125	100	100	96	91	95
1931	93	159	150	91	93	86	88	84
1932	88	169	164	88	88	82	84	81
1933	85	193	191	79	84	79	81	77
1934	83	246	242	78	82	79	79	77
1935	85	301	293	80	82	84	81	81
1936	89	331	315	83	86	99	95	95
1937	93	—	353 [†]	85	90	106	97	104
1938	99 ²	—	—	87	92	110	105	109
1939	—	—	—	101 ³	106 ⁴	114	113	114
1940	—	—	—	—	—	122	124	123
1941	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1941: Sept.	—	*	*	—	—	*	*	*
Dec.	—	*	*	—	—	*	*	*
1942: Mar.	—	*	*	—	—	*	*	*
June	—	*	*	—	—	*	*	*
Index numbers of real wages (Base: 1929 = 100)								
	100	*	*	*	100	100	100	100
1929	100	*	*	*	100	100	100	100
1930	(102)	*	*	100	(110)	105	97	104
1931	(104)	*	*	100	(114)	107	101	108
1932	(101)	*	*	99	(115)	103	105	101
1933	(96)	*	*	106	(111)	104	106	102
1934	(95)	*	*	106	(112)	98	101	95
1935	(90)	*	*	98	(111)	95	95	92
1936	(91)	*	*	95	(111)	98	94	94
1937	(95)	*	*	92	(110)	108	103	103
1938	(94)	*	*	92	(104)	111	102	109
1939	(94) ¹	*	*	97	(102)	112	107	110
1940	—	*	*	—	(90) ²	111	111	111
1941	—	*	*	—	—	114	116	115
1941: Sept.	—	*	*	—	—	*	*	*
Dec.	—	*	*	—	—	*	*	*
1942: Mar.	—	*	*	—	—	*	*	*
June	—	*	*	—	—	*	*	*
Persons covered	1,363,341	6,722,000		—	707,435	64,883	22,452	87,335

¹ Insurance statistics (sickness). ² Jan.-June. ³ Two first quarters. ⁴ Insurance statistics (sickness and accidents). ⁵ Jan.-Nov. ⁶ Series calculated by the I.L.O.: weighted averages of the earnings for men and women.

Czechoslovakia. Annual and monthly figures: averages. From 1939, the data refer to the territory of Bohemia-Moravia only.

Yugoslavia. Monthly earnings: annual figures: Dec. of each year; monthly figures: averages. Daily earnings: annual and monthly figures: averages.

New Zealand. Annual figures: a week nearest to 31 Mar. of each year.

Indices of International Comparisons of Food Costs for October 1941

On the basis of the prices of foodstuffs in October 1941¹ the relative costs of food in 18 countries are shown in the table on p. 270 in the form of percentage indices. The indices are arranged in columns according to the country chosen as base: the figures show the cost of food in each other country as a percentage of that in the base country. Thus the figure 82 opposite Canada in the column headed United States means that (at official rates of exchange) the cost of food in Canada is 82 per cent. of that in the United States.

The calculations are made on the basis of prices in certain cities in each country—prices being expressed in a common currency, the United States dollar, by means of exchange rates in October 1941—with the aid of group baskets showing food consumption in wage earners' families in countries with similar food habits. The retail prices were obtained by an enquiry of the Office and published in the October 1942 number of the *Review*, with the names of the cities to which the prices relate. The exchange rates were taken from the *Monthly Bulletin of Statistics* of the League of Nations.² In most countries the exchanges are now subject to official control, which means that the rates have a certain degree of artificiality, and the indices also have a somewhat artificial character. For one or two countries free rates of exchange are quoted in addition to the official rates. The indices given are based on the official rates.³

In calculating the index between any two countries, the relative cost in the two countries of the "basket" corresponding to the base country is averaged (geometrically) with the relative cost in the two countries of the "basket" corresponding to the other country. This calculation is made independently for each pair of countries, thus taking account, in each case, of the consumption habits of the base country and of the other country as reflected

¹ Cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. XLVI, No. 4, Oct. 1942, pp. 512-517: "Retail Prices in Certain Countries in October 1941".

² In a few cases, exchange rates were quoted in Swiss francs, which have been converted into U.S. dollars by applying the exchange rate of Swiss francs in terms of the dollar.

³ To convert the indices based on the official rate to indices based on the free rate, multiply all rates in the column headed Argentina by 1.26 and those in the row for Argentina by 0.79; for Canada multiply rates in the column headed Canada by 1.02 and those in the row for Canada by 0.98; for Chile multiply rates in the column headed Chile by 1.29 and those in the row for Chile by 0.77.

INDICES OF INTERNATIONAL COMPARISONS OF FOOD COSTS, OCTOBER 1941

Country compared	Base Country																	
	Africa	AMERICA				EUROPE								OCEANIA				
		South Africa (=100)	Canada (=100)	United States (=100)	Argentina (=100)	Chile (=100)	Mexico (=100)	Bulgaria (=100)	Denmark (=100)	Finland (=100)	France (=100)	Great Britain (=100)	Hungary (=100)		Norway (=100)	Netherlands (=100)	Sweden (=100)	Switzerland (=100)
<i>Africa</i>	100	90	75	164	98	162	97	90	94	100	102	64	75	69	86	63	71	133
<i>S. Africa</i>																		
<i>America</i>																		
Canada	111	100	82	199	107	176	111	101	102	113	112	65	80	73	89	68	83	144
U.S.A.	134	122	100	228	125	206	140	123	128	141	137	83	100	91	112	86	104	176
Argentina	61	50	44	100	61	101	63	53	57	64	61	44	43	40	49	38	46	77
Chile	102	94	80	164	100	166	98	92	98	106	107	59	75	71	85	68	72	125
Mexico	62	57	49	99	60	100	68	56	60	67	65	39	46	44	52	41	51	76
<i>Europe</i>																		
Bulgaria	103	90	72	159	102	148	100	79	86	101	111	70	68	68	77	66	75	131
Denmark	111	99	81	189	109	180	127	100	101	119	112	70	80	73	88	68	95	143
Finland	107	98	78	177	102	166	117	99	100	113	103	62	78	72	89	68	87	135
France	100	88	80	156	94	149	99	84	89	100	103	60	68	64	76	63	74	125
Gr. Britain	98	89	73	164	93	154	90	90	97	97	100	59	72	65	84	65	67	128
Hungary	156	153	120	229	171	256	142	143	160	167	169	100	121	114	144	113	107	214
Norway	134	125	100	233	134	216	146	122	128	147	139	83	100	92	107	89	114	176
Netherlands	146	137	110	249	140	225	147	137	139	156	153	88	109	100	117	97	107	193
Sweden	117	112	90	205	117	191	129	113	113	132	118	70	94	85	100	76	95	155
Switzerland	160	146	117	260	148	215	151	148	148	159	154	88	112	103	131	100	103	202
Turkey	141	120	96	217	140	196	134	105	116	136	150	94	91	94	105	97	100	77
<i>Oceania</i>																		
Australia	75	69	57	130	80	132	76	70	75	80	78	47	57	52	65	50	57	100

in their respective "baskets". When both countries are in the same group the comparison rests on the relative cost of a single basket.¹

In the calculations four groups of countries are used, the first consisting of the Netherlands and Norway; the second of Canada, United States, Denmark, Great Britain, and Australia; the third of Finland, Sweden, and Switzerland; and the fourth of Chile, Colombia, and Mexico. In other cases baskets based on food consumption in the particular country have been utilised.

Comparison between countries on the basis of their percentage indices of food costs in relation to a third country is inaccurate and strictly speaking incorrect. Thus, a comparison to show the cost of food in Canada in relation to that in Mexico on the basis of their percentage indices with respect to the United States, namely 82 and 49, will give 167 instead of the correct figure of 176 shown opposite Canada in the column headed Mexico. The difference is due to the differences in the respective baskets used in the calculations.

In utilising the results it should be borne in mind that the figures are based on 19 food commodities only. Rent, fuel and light, clothing, and miscellaneous articles are not covered. Thus the results give comparisons not of the whole of the cost of living but of the cost of food only.

The figures are subject to a considerable margin of error arising from errors in quantities and prices used in the calculations. Too much stress should not be paid to the exact units in these percentages.

An interesting comparison is with similar figures for October 1938 and 1940, as published in the *Year Book of Labour Statistics*, 1941 and 1942. This comparison shows, as indeed should be expected, considerable shifts in the percentage indices of the cost of food between countries according as the increase in food costs of the base country between October 1938 and October 1941 rose more rapidly or less rapidly than in the country with which the comparison is made. Obviously in periods of rapidly changing prices, or of rapidly fluctuating exchange rates, these indices may soon become out of date and require modification if they are to continue to reflect the relative costs of food in the different countries.²

¹ For further details of method, see INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE: *Year Book of Labour Statistics*, 1941 or 1942; and *International Comparisons of Food Costs*, by R. M. WOODBURY (Studies and Reports, Series N, No. 24).

² Such modification might be made approximately by a correction factor in which the relative change of the cost of food indices for the two countries compared is multiplied by the change in the exchange rate over the period since the date to which the indices relate.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Book Notes

NON-OFFICIAL PUBLICATIONS

Brayshaw, Shipley N. *Post-War Employment for All*. London, George Allen & Unwin, 1942. 44 pp. 2s.6d.

Under this new title, and with a new introduction, the author has republished a paper originally laid before a conference of Quaker employers in 1938 and published at that time as *Planning Industry for the Utilisation of All Available Abilities*. He outlines a series of proposals for financial and economic reform designed to secure employment for all through the full utilisation of all the means of production coupled with a parallel expansion of consumption.

Bureau of National Affairs. *Collective Bargaining Contracts. Techniques of Negotiation and Administration with Topical Classification of Clauses*. Washington, D.C., The Bureau of National Affairs, Inc., 1941. vi + 734 pp. \$7.50.

A handbook on collective bargaining that should be very helpful to representatives of employers and workers. Part I, entitled "Techniques in Collective Bargaining", contains a group of articles designed to place at the disposal of the reader a summary of the experience and knowledge of persons who are among the best qualified to afford guidance in the negotiation and administration of collective agreements. Part II, "Contract Clause Finder", is a topical analysis of provisions in collective bargaining agreements. It provides "a very large selection of model clauses of collective bargaining contracts in current use which are designed to accomplish practically all the purposes which negotiators wish to accomplish whether they are on the employer's side of the conference table or on the union side". Part III gives the full text of various representative agreements. Consultation of the volume is facilitated by a full topical index.

Chamberlin, Waldo (compiler). *Industrial Relations in Germany, 1914-1939*. Stanford University, Stanford University Press, 1942. xv + 403 pp. \$5.

An annotated bibliography of materials on industrial relations in Germany to be found in the Stanford University Libraries, particularly in the Hoover Library on War, Revolution, and Peace. The term industrial relations is understood as embracing any matter affecting the relationship between employers and employees. An introductory "Note on German Labour Law" gives the background or perspective to enable the student of German industrial problems to understand how German labour legislation has developed under different forms of government and under the influence of changing social philosophies. According to the author, "the most outstanding fact that becomes apparent in studying German industrial relations from 1914 to 1939 is the parallel development of socialistic and totalitarian tendencies noticeable throughout the twenty-five years". He adds that State domination of employer-employee relations increased steadily, ending in the complete subservience of both groups to the power of the national Government.

Foulke, R. A. *The Sinews of American Commerce*. New York, Dun & Bradstreet, Inc., 1941. 418 pp. Illustrated.

A comprehensive account of credit institutions in the United States from earliest colonial times to the present day. Issued on the occasion of the hundredth anniversary of the outstanding credit agency, Dun & Bradstreet, it contains a great deal of valuable historical material not found in less specialised works on banking and credit institutions.

Ginsberg, Eli. *Grass on the Slag Heaps. The Story of the Welsh Miners*. New York and London, Harper and Brothers, 1942. xiv + 228 pp. Illustrated. \$2.50.

The purpose of this book, by an American author, is to bring home to the American public the physical and moral suffering caused by prolonged unemployment and the inadequacy of any remedial action which does not attack the root of the evil by direct measures to secure industrial revival. The author shows by reference to conditions in the South Wales coalfields how, after having for many years regarded the organisation of a more or less liberal scheme of unemployment insurance and assistance as their sole duty, the British Government and Parliament were at last forced to recognise the disastrous effects of idleness and poverty on the population. A traditional dislike of any Government interference in economic life led at first to the attempt to find a remedy by encouraging the transfer of unemployed workers to other areas and organising relief works, but these schemes could not be anything but a palliative under depression conditions. During the years immediately preceding the war the Government at last decided to take direct action to revive economic life in the depressed area by introducing new industries. The author draws from the initial results of this policy morals which may be applicable to the post-war period.

Hambro, C. J. *How to Win The Peace*. Philadelphia, New York, J. B. Lippincott Company, 1942. 384 pp. \$3.

Mr. Carl J. Hambro, the President of the Norwegian Storting, has an experience of the League of Nations which few can rival and has drawn richly upon it in the present volume, which he describes as an attempt to try to direct the imagination "towards practical concrete efforts of international co-operation, to interpret the lessons of our decades of activity in such a way that they can be of aid to the next generation". He points out that in the official statements and declarations which have been made "we have some of the elements necessary to lay the foundations for a dynamic peace: freedom from hostilities, freedom from fear, freedom from want—which transcribed into positive terms will mean political security, spiritual security, social and financial security, and something more than that: the rule of justice and of equity, nationally and internationally, between classes and individuals; liberty for every single nation to develop its own civilisation and the form of government it desires, under the terms of international law; and freedom for the individual men and women to follow the voice of their own consciences and convictions". It is clear, he says, that "the practical solution of the economic, the social, the humanitarian problems mentioned in the Atlantic Charter, will render necessary some kind of universal organisation", which will be wise to draw upon the "funds of experience collected by existing agencies of international administration and co-operation". He takes the view that "no peace conference can be called until a tremendous work of clearing, of salvage and of reconstruction has been done", and that "a long period of transition will be needed before nations can discuss officially the terms of peace treaties to come".

No single Government can be blind, he says, to the colossal problem of readjusting industrial and economic life from war production to peace production. To complete this process without social upheaval and financial calamities will need the co-ordinated efforts of Governments, of labour, and of industry. By itself this fact will make it a social and economic necessity to proceed to demobilisation slowly and by steps so as to make possible the absorption in production and constructive life of the many millions of drafted men and volunteers.

Mr. Hambro refers to a tendency in many quarters "to forget that even if the war as waged in 1942 is, primarily, a war between armies, navies, air forces and giant industries of the Great Powers, fundamentally and morally it is not a Great Power war, but something new and far more important. It would hardly bode well for the future if those who take a keen interest in the post-war settlement start their work by overlooking completely the countries which have suffered most under the hands and heels of the totalitarian aggressors and oppressors."

There is a growing feeling of uncertainty among men and women from occupied countries. Not only do they feel that their war efforts are minimised or not mentioned by the official information machine, but they are well aware that one new organisation after another, leading over to the transition period, is established without any representation for the small powers. They do not demand much, but, on the other hand, they have no intense desire to remain, on the day of final reckoning, just a group of forgotten nations. They think that they have a right to a hand in the peace we have won. Maybe they are touchy, maybe they are unduly suspicious. But they have every reason to be so. They know that unless the small nations are given a voice and a vote in the council of the mighty, there will be faint hope of any international democracy and of any democratic control of foreign policy, and without democratic rights in the international commonwealth, no peace can be won. . . . It may be inconvenient, it may be cumbersome and bothersome to have to consult representatives of a number of countries. But that is the way of democracy; the road to progress is the resultant of the given composition of forces.

Mr. Hambro affirms vigorously that "the problem of a dynamic peace can be met only by a universal solution" and that "no variety of regionalism could effectively prevent war". "It has", he says, "become quite fashionable in America to talk of a European union or even a European constitution. It ought to be made perfectly clear in very outspoken words that such plans have no factual background, they are contrary to historical, geographical, demographic, economic and political realities. Such plans are not welcome to any nation; nor are they supported by any responsible statesman."

Among Mr. Hambro's more detailed chapters those on "Peace and Payment", "International Loyalty", and "The International Rights of Man" are of special interest. The first discusses the financing of international organisations; Mr. Hambro anticipates that the future world organisation, like the present League of Nations, will have to depend for its finances on contributions or quotas from States members, but stresses that in order that such an organisation may "accomplish serious work, and have real power, it must have financial security". "International Loyalty" is a study of the status and loyalties of both the servants and the masters of international organisations, which emphasises that no such organisation can hope to achieve success unless its servants owe their loyalty to it alone. The chapter on the international rights of man argues that:

We have to repudiate, openly and officially, the old doctrine that States alone are subjects of international law, and on the basis of the promises of the Atlantic Charter and the Washington Declaration adopt an International Bill of Rights. A little over two hundred and fifty years have passed since the Lords and Commons of Great Britain wrote the first national Bill of Rights; it certainly could not be premature to make international law what is national law in every democratic country."

The above quotations should serve to indicate the vigour which is characteristic of Mr. Hambro's approach. His book should be read and pondered by everyone concerned with the planning of international reconstruction.

Horowitz, D. *Post-War Reconstruction*. Tel-Aviv, The Palestine and Middle East Magazine, 1942. 30 pp.

This is a concise and interesting survey of the reconstruction problems of Palestine in relation to post-war world economic policies. The author is confident that the progress in economic thought and the experience reaped during this war will determine a new and more positive attitude towards a constructive economic policy under post-war conditions. The development of backward colonial coun-

tries is, in his opinion, not only useful to these countries; it is also required by the socio-economic progress in mature economies. A rising standard of living will have its repercussions first on the capacity of absorption of the colonies for manufactured goods. Secondly, it will ward off the danger of dumping arising from low labour standards in colonial countries competing with organised European labour. The same considerations are applied by the author to the inter-relations between the mature and colonial economies which coexist in Palestine.

The more industrialised, mature, economy created by Jewish colonisation is, he says, confronted, first and foremost, with the problem of markets for its manufactured goods. Any development of an indigenous economy will lead to an expansion of such markets. Organised labour with European standards is exposed to the unceasing pressure of low labour standards prevailing in the indigenous economy. Any rise in the standard of life in the indigenous economy will greatly relieve the pressure by decreasing the abnormal wage differentials.

The author reviews briefly the main elements of such policy: supply of foreign capital, increase of productivity, change in occupational structure, modernisation of agriculture, industrialisation.

McConagha, W. A. *The Development of the Labor Movement in Great Britain France and Germany*. Chapel Hill, The University of North Carolina Press, 1942., ix + 199 pp. \$2.50.

A short but captivating historical outline of the labour movement in Great Britain, France, and Germany, with special emphasis on trade unions. In the author's view, the labour movement is "a modern phenomenon, the product of an existing capitalistic civilisation". It is naturally related to the ideas and institutions of a system with which it is in conflict, either in respect of specific practices or *in toto*. However great the variety of opinions in the labour movement, trade union doctrines may be roughly classified under two headings: those of the conservatives, the pure and simple trade unionists, whose efforts centre around the collective agreement; and those of the revolutionaries, whose position is based on the conviction that any fundamental improvement in the condition of labour must be premised on the destruction of the entire existing economic system. In the three countries he considers, the author finds that the fluctuations of labour's attitude towards the capitalist system are not necessarily progressive in any particular direction, but represent rather "a social barometer marking the rise and fall of labour's confidence in the health of existing economic institutions". With regard to the subjugation of the German labour movement by National Socialism, he states that "failure to find any common denominator for internal differences, particularly the friction between socialists and communists, is in no small degree accountable for its existing plight. For had these groups been able to weld themselves into a solid front, National Socialism must have been effectively checked."

Mallart y Cuto, José. *La organización económica internacional y el problema de la paz*. Madrid, Sobrinos de la Sucesora de M. Minuesa de los Rios, 1941. 294 pp.

The thesis of this book is that a world-wide organisation of economic life and of life in general is the necessary basis for a durable and fruitful peace. The experience of the inter-war period, described in the most interesting part of the book, leads inevitably to this conclusion. In analysing the failure of international organisation, the author, who apparently wrote the book before the outbreak of the present war, takes a somewhat gloomy view of the future. He writes:

The present form of organisation in small independent national economic units is, in a way, a preparation for war. Conversely, the economic interdependence which will develop with the specialisation of production by countries, or better still, by natural regions, with international co-ordination and the broadening of economic life and intercourse, and with world-wide economic organisation, will make war virtually impossible. . . . Just as in the human body the arm cannot be the enemy of the leg nor the stomach of the heart, the economic organism of the world cannot contain hostile members waging war against each other. . . .

To create this economic inter-relationship what is needed is co-ordination, organic distribution, and a comprehensive plan in which each part has its own proper function. A scheme of world economic organisation must be drawn up on the most practical and scientific lines possible. Whether at least a relative peace can be established between men and peoples will depend on the skill with which this scheme is drawn up, on the tact with which the difficulties that must arise in its execution are solved, and on the form in which the necessary adjustments are presented so as to be made acceptable to the groups affected by them. . . . It must be realised that every step towards the normal operation of this world organism will be an obstacle to war and every improvement in world economic organisation will be a step towards permanent peace between peoples.

Mills, Lennox A. *British Rule in Eastern Asia. A Study of Contemporary Government and Economic Development in British Malaya and Hong Kong.* Issued under the auspices of the International Secretariat, Institute of Pacific Relations: International Research Series. Minneapolis, The University of Minnesota Press; London, Oxford University Press, 1942. ix + 581 pp. \$5.

A careful and comprehensive survey of conditions in British Malaya and Hong Kong, which provides the enquiring reader with a clear picture of the governmental and social and economic organisation of the territories at the time of the outbreak of the present war. The survey is the result of painstaking study of a very large number of official reports and other sources of information, of visits to the territories in order to acquire first-hand experience, and of discussions with numerous persons, including officials, on the conclusions reached. A work of this kind supplies an essential need, and is likely to prove invaluable when the plans for post-war reconstruction in that part of the world come to be considered in greater detail than at present.

It must be added, however, that the survey was prepared in or before 1939 and that the first (English) edition appeared before Japan's accession to the Axis as an active partner.

Padover, Saul K. (editor). *Wilson's Ideals.* Washington, D.C., American Council on Public Affairs, 1942. 151 pp.

Excerpts from the writings and speeches of President Wilson, arranged "in logical sequence" under the heads of America, democracy, government, politics, business, labour, foreign policy, Germany, the League of Nations, America's responsibilities, and peace and war.

Wiesner, Beda. *Unpaid Labour or Controlled Dynamics. A Contribution to the Problem of Unemployment.* Jerusalem, Rubin Mass, 1941. 78 pp.

The author finds one of the major causes of mass unemployment in the bad influence on world economics of the simultaneous existence of old, redeemed equipment on the one hand and modern equipment on the other. This, he says, is made possible by the fact that "the work of redeemed machines represents labour which is no longer paid or, in other words, that the entrepreneur uses unpaid labour". This "unpaid labour" appears to him to be the source of the unjustified "surplus value" going to capital instead of to labour. He does not suggest that this evil is inherent in the capitalist system. On the contrary, he strongly favours that system, but insists that the evil must be cured by the abolition of "unpaid labour". His proposal is that, once they have been redeemed, mechanical means of production should either be turned into scrap or continue working, in which case a quota of redemption should be calculated, and this sum should be paid into an "Account of Labour" which would serve to raise the standard of living of labour by appropriate means. The author confesses that his proposal, which to be effective, would need to be applied and controlled internationally, would not be easy to put into practice.

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¹ Mention in this list does not preclude publication of a book note in a subsequent issue of the *Review*.

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