

INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE

THE
I. L. O.
YEAR-BOOK
1936-37

SEVENTH YEAR OF ISSUE



GENEVA
1937

PRICE: 10s. 6d.; \$2.75

INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE

GENEVA, SWITZERLAND

BRANCH OFFICES

- China:** Mr. HAI-FONG CHENG, 754 Bubbling Well Road, Shanghai.
(" Interlab, Shanghai "; *Tel.* 30.251.)
- France:** 205 Boulevard St-Germain, Paris VIIe.
(" Interlab, Paris 120 "; *Tel.* Littré 92.02.)
- Great Britain:** Mr. M. R. K. BURGE, 12 Victoria Street, London, S.W.1.
(" Interlab, Sowest, London "; *Tel.* Whitehall 1437.)
- India:** Mr. P. P. PILLAI, International Labour Office (Indian Branch),
New Delhi. (" Interlab, New Delhi "; *Tel.* 3191.)
- Italy:** Mr. UGO RUFFOLO, Villa Aldobrandini, Via Panisperna 28, Rome.
(" Interlab, Rome "; *Tel.* 61.498.)
- Japan:** Mr. I. AYUSAWA, Shisei Kaikan Building, Hibiya Park, Kojima-
chiku, Tokyo. (" Interlab, Tokyo "; *Tel.* Ginza 1580.)
- United States:** Mr. L. MAGNUSSON, 734 Jackson Place, Washington, D.C.
(" Interlab, Washington "; *Tel.* District 8736.)

NATIONAL CORRESPONDENTS

- Argentine Republic:** Mr. ALEJANDRO UNSAIN, Berutti 3820, Buenos Aires.
(" Interlab, Buenos Aires "; *Tel.* 31 [Retiro] 4338.)
- Austria:** Mr. FRANZ WLCEK, Helferstorferstrasse 6, Vienna I. (*Tel.* R. 28.500.)
- Belgium:** Mr. M. GOTTSCHALK, Institut de Sociologie Solvay, Park Léopold,
Brussels. (" Interlab, Brussels "; *Tel.* 33.74.86.)
- Brazil:** Mr. A. BANDEIRA DE MELLO, Edificio do Castello, Salle 312, Avenue
Nilo Peçanha 151, Rio de Janeiro (" Interlab, Rio ".)
- Cuba:** Mr. JOSÉ ENRIQUE DE SANDOVAL, Secretaria del Trabajo, Havana.
- Czechoslovakia:** Mr. Otakar SULIK, Pankrac 853, Prague XIV. (" Sulik,
853 Pankrac, Prague "; *Tel.* 575-82.)
- Estonia:** Mr. A. GUSTAVSON, Raua 61, Tallinn. (" Gustavson, Raua 61,
Tallinn "; *Tel.* 301-48.)
- Germany:** Mr. WILHELM CLAUSSEN, Dahlmannstrasse 28, Berlin-Charlotten-
burg 4. (" Claussen, 96-42-74, Berlin "; *Tel.* 96-42-74.)
- Hungary:** Mr. GEZA PAP, Margit körut 45, Budapest II. (*Tel.* 1-530-17.)
- Latvia:** Mr. KARLIS SERZANS, Skolas iela 28, Riga. (" Tautlab, Riga,
Latvia ".)
- Lithuania:** Mr. K. STRIMAITIS, Kalniečių 4-a, Kaunas. (*Tel.* 2-48-56.)
- Mexico:** Mr. FREDERICO BACH, Apartado 292, Mexico, D.F.
- Poland:** M^{me} FRANÇOIS SOKAL, Flory 1/11, Warsaw. (" Interlab, Warsaw ";
Tel. 8-15-65.)
- Rumania:** Mr. G. VLADESCO RACOASSA, Piatza Al. Lahovary Ia, București III.
(*Tel.* 231-95.)
- Spain:** Apartado de Correos 3032, Madrid. (" Interlab,
Madrid "; *Tel.* 30.848.)
- Uruguay:** Mr. ERNESTO KUHN TALAY, Colon 1476, Montevideo.
- Venezuela:** Mr. RAFAEL CALDERA, Sur 14, 56-2, Caracas.
- Yugoslavia:** Mr. L. STEINITZ, Poštanski Pregradak 561, Belgrade. (" Inter-
lab. Belgrade ".)

INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE

THE
I. L. O.
YEAR-BOOK
1936-37

SEVENTH YEAR OF ISSUE

GENEVA
1937

341.25

551343



PRINTED BY ALBERT KUNDIG, GENEVA

PREFACE

In the *I.L.O. Year-Book 1936-37* no change has been made in the usual arrangement of this annual publication of the International Labour Office, which has now reached its seventh year of issue.

The *I.L.O. Year-Book 1936-37*—which is now completely separate from the statistical part, published under the title *Year-Book of Labour Statistics*—consists, like the last edition, of a general introduction and eight chapters, supplemented by an Appendix.

The General Introduction gives a brief survey of the activities of the International Labour Organisation during the period under consideration, which is the year 1936 and in some cases the first quarter of 1937.

The eight chapters deal respectively with:

- Economic developments,
- Conditions of work,
- Social insurance,
- The remuneration of labour,
- Employment, unemployment and migration,
- Workers' living conditions,
- Workers' general rights,
- Special problems of certain categories of workers.

The Appendix consists as usual of a number of tables, together with such information as is available concerning the membership of trade union organisations.

As in the case of the General Introduction, the information there given refers, generally speaking, to 1936 and the first months of 1937. The chief aim of the International Labour Office is to ensure continuity from one edition of the *I.L.O. Year-Book* to the next.

CONTENTS

	Page
PREFACE	III
GENERAL INTRODUCTION	1
Relations	10
Workers' Organisations	10
International Federation of Trade Unions.	10
Christian Trade Unions.	14
Fascist Trade Unions	17
Trade Union Movement in the U.S.S.R.	18
Trade Unionism in Extra-European Countries.	19
Employers' Organisations	21
Important Private Associations	26
The Churches	28
The Catholic Church	28
Anglican, Orthodox, Protestant, and Old Catholic Churches	35
International Christian Organisations.	38
Information	39
The Press and Public Opinion	39
CHAPTER I: <i>Economic Developments</i>	42
The Measure of Recovery	42
Measures Adopted	49
Social Implications of Recovery	60
CHAPTER II: <i>Conditions of Work</i>	62
Hours of Work	62
Hours of Work in Industry.	62
Hours of Work in Commercial Establishments and Offices	115
Weekly Rest	123
Night Work in Bakeries	128
Shop Closing	130
Annual Holidays with Pay	133
Public Holidays	144

	Page
Industrial Medicine	145
Industrial Physiology	145
Industrial Pathology	150
Medical Care	159
Hygiene	161
Compensation for Occupational Diseases	167
Medical Inspection	174
Research Centres	175
Training in Industrial Medicine	176
Prevention of Industrial Accidents	178
National Regulations	178
The Safety Movement	184
International Activities	185
International Regulation	185
Women's Work	186
Employment and Unemployment	186
Place of Women's Work in the Economic System	191
General Protection of Women Workers	195
Night Work	201
Employment of Women before and after Childbirth	204
Economic Protection of Women Workers	208
Protection of Children and Young Persons	212
Factory Inspection	219
 CHAPTER III: <i>Social Insurance</i>	 222
Introduction	222
National Schemes	222
Bilateral Treaties	270
International Collaboration	271
International Regulation	277
Conclusions	282
 CHAPTER IV: <i>Remuneration of Labour</i>	 288
The Movement of Wages	288
Wage Policy	291
International Minimum Wage Regulations	302
Family Allowances	302
 CHAPTER V: <i>Employment, Unemployment, Migration</i>	 308
Employment and Unemployment	308
The Problem of Permanent Unemployment	309
Measures to Increase the Demand for Labour	311
Adjustment of Labour Supply and Demand	320
Insurance and Relief Measures	327
Special Measures for Non-Manual Workers and Young People	336

	Page
Migration	342
International Action	343
Measures relating to Emigration	345
Measures relating to Immigration	347
International Regulation	349
 CHAPTER VI: <i>Workers' Living Conditions</i>	 353
Vocational Training	353
Utilisation of Workers' Spare Time	365
Housing	380
 CHAPTER VII: <i>Workers' General Rights</i>	 388
Right of Combination in Trade Unions	388
Profit-Sharing and Workers' Participation in Management	407
Profit-Sharing and Shareholding by Workers	407
Works Councils	408
Collective Agreements	413
Conciliation and Arbitration	421
The Individual Contract of Service	435
Payment of Wages	435
Dismissal	443
Rules of Employment	449
Administration of Labour Law	451
Scientific Management	452
Participation of Workers in National Economic Life	454
National Economic Councils	454
Co-operation	460
 CHAPTER VIII: <i>Special Problems of Certain Categories of Workers</i>	 465
Salaried Employees	465
Professional Workers	475
Home Work	482
Agricultural Workers	490
The Economic Situation of Agriculture	490
Agricultural Organisation, Land Settlement, and Employment Situation	498
Conditions of Work and Wages in Agriculture	501
International Regulation	504
Seamen	504
Maritime Sessions of the International Labour Conference (October 1936)	506

	Page
Native Labour	516
National Developments	516
The International Situation	547
Prison Labour	549
APPENDIX	555
I. List of States Members of the International Labour Organi- sation	557
II. List of Permanent Delegates accredited to the International Labour Office and to the League of Nations	557
III. Distribution of the Fifty Ratifications Registered from 16 March 1936 to 15 March 1937	558
IV. Representation at the Conference and Composition of Dele- gations	559
V. Governing Body	560
VI. Committees	560
VII. Statistics of International and National Federations of Trade Unions	567
INDEX	589

GENERAL INTRODUCTION

The tragic effects of the economic depression have shown more forcibly than all else that social justice is one of the essential conditions for the establishment of peace within and between countries. In this light, the aims and possibilities of the International Labour Organisation stood out even more clearly during 1936. With the increasingly felt need of social legislation, the services of the International Labour Organisation as a source of information and advice are being sought more and more in every country of the globe. At the same time the vitality and activity displayed by the International Labour Conference are more intense than ever before, and the progress made in the ratification of Conventions, which again became marked in 1933, is continuing on the same scale.

If there were any need to prove that the Organisation is becoming ever more active, it would be sufficient to refer to the recent increase in the number of its Members ¹, and to describe the growth of the part they play in carrying out the common task. It is true that the withdrawal of Germany in 1933 made a serious gap in the ranks, but this has been largely compensated by the entry of the United States of America, the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, and, quite recently, Egypt.

It was in fact during 1936 that the Kingdom of Egypt in turn became a Member of the International Labour Organisation.

On 16 June, during its Twentieth Session, the Conference was informed by the Secretary-General of the Egyptian Government's intention, and it unanimously adopted a resolution inviting the Egyptian Government to accept membership of the Organisation. A few days later, on 20 June, the representative of the Egyptian Government accredited to the Conference transmitted the official acceptance of his Government to the President. Egypt thus joined the International Labour Organisation.

As was naturally pointed out by representatives of several Governments and the spokesmen for the Employers' and Workers' delegates when the above resolution was being discussed, the admission of Egypt is a further step towards the universality of the Organisation. In point of fact, Egypt was far from unknown to the other States Members, for since 1932 it had regularly sent an

¹ See Appendix (under I) for the list of the States Members of the Organisation at the end of 1936.

observer to all the Sessions of the Conference. Moreover, there had long been uninterrupted relations between the International Labour Office and the Egyptian authorities.

The adhesion of Egypt, following on that of the United States and the U.S.S.R., is further proof that the centre of gravity of the Organisation is tending to shift. The reform of the Governing Body which was finally carried out in 1934 was concrete evidence of the industrial and economic power acquired by the extra-European countries, an acquisition that is inevitably leading them to pay more and more attention to social questions. The year 1936 brought further evidence of this tendency. It opened with the noteworthy experiment of the American Labour Conference of Santiago-de-Chile and concluded with the acceptance of the invitation given to the Governing Body by the President of the United States of America to hold a world Textile Conference at Washington. These signs that universality is gradually being attained are evidence of the health of the International Labour Organisation.

* * *

The very fact that now, at the beginning of 1937, the number of States Members is so large makes it altogether impossible to attempt to give a general view of their participation in the work of the Organisation. It must suffice to indicate the changes that took place in the system for maintaining relations between the International Labour Organisation and the States Members, which consists on the one hand of the permanent delegations accredited to the Office and, on the other, of the branch offices and national correspondents of the Office established in a certain number of countries.

In the first place, there were changes in the leadership of the permanent delegations accredited to the International Labour Office¹. Mr. Shunzo Yoshisaka, Japanese Government representative on the Governing Body and permanent delegate for many years past, was replaced by Mr. Juitsu Kitaoka in both these offices. Mr. Villa Michel, who had been called to other duties, similarly retired from the Governing Body and the Mexican permanent delegation; he was succeeded by Mr. Isidro Fabela, Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary. For the United States, Mr. Carter Goodrich, Labour Commissioner, took the place of Mr. W. G. Rice, junior. Afghanistan, Ecuador, Finland, Greece, Iran, Rumania, and the Union of South Africa also made changes in their permanent delegations in Geneva.

The International Labour Office continued to develop its network of branch offices and national correspondents. Thus two new national correspondent's posts were created, in Uruguay and Venezuela. The first is held by Mr. Ernesto Kuhn Talay, General

¹ See Appendix (under II) for a complete list of the delegations.

Secretary of the Exchange Department in the Ministry of Finance at Montevideo, and the second by Mr. Rafael Caldera of the National Labour Office at Caracas.

In addition, certain changes took place both in the branch offices and among the national correspondents. Mr. Mario Roques, who had from the first directed the Paris Branch Office, retired and was replaced by Mr. Fernand Maurette, former Assistant-Director of the International Labour Office.

Among the national correspondents, Mr. Fabra Ribas resigned from his post at Madrid, having been appointed Minister Plenipotentiary of Spain at Berne. Mr. Raoul Migone, Buenos Aires correspondent, was transferred to the International Labour Office in Geneva, his place being taken by Mr. Alejandro Unsain, Professor of Labour Legislation at the University of Buenos Aires and former member of the Governing Body of the International Labour Office. Finally, Mr. Soares de Souza, who since 1926 had been correspondent at Rio de Janeiro, resigned; his successor is Mr. A. Bandeira de Mello, formerly Director General in the Ministry of Labour at Rio de Janeiro.

* * *

The *ratification* of Conventions, as indicated above, continued to make regular progress. The number of ratifications registered between 16 March 1936 and 15 March 1937 was 50. The following particulars may be given concerning the ratifications during this period.

The 50 ratifications¹ in question came from 15 States and applied to 29 Conventions. Thus the work of ratification is seen to be going forward in all parts of the world: 28 ratifications came from Europe, 14 from American countries, 7 from Asia, and 1 from South Africa.

The Conventions which made the most progress during this period were: No. 41, Night Work (Women) (Revised), 1934, ratified by Brazil, Great Britain, Greece, Hungary, the Irish Free State, and Switzerland²; No. 42, Occupational Diseases (Revised), 1934, ratified by Brazil, Cuba, Great Britain, the Irish Free State, Japan, and Sweden³; No. 45, Underground Work (Women), 1935, ratified by China, Cuba, Great Britain, Greece, the Irish Free State, the Netherlands, Sweden, and the Union of South Africa.

The most important contribution by any one country was that of Great Britain, which ratified 11 Conventions, thus bringing the total number of British ratifications to 30. Other countries also made considerable contributions, e.g. the Argentine Republic ratified 7, and China 6.

¹ See Appendix (under III) for the distribution of these ratifications by Conventions and by countries.

² In consequence of this ratification, Great Britain, Greece, Hungary, the Irish Free State, and Switzerland have denounced Convention No. 4, Night Work (Women), 1919.

³ In consequence of this ratification, Great Britain, the Irish Free State, and Sweden have denounced Convention No. 18, Occupational Diseases, 1925.

In consequence of its ratification by Great Britain, Convention No. 43, Sheet-Glass Works, 1934, will come into operation on 13 January 1938.

Reference may also be made to the first ratification, by Norway, of Convention No. 49, Reduction of Hours of Work (Glass-Bottle Works), 1935.

* * *

During the year under review the machinery of mutual supervision of the *application* of Conventions, through the agency of a Committee of Experts and a Committee instituted at each of its Sessions by the Conference, which has been evolved within the framework of Article 22 of the Constitution of the Organisation, continued to function smoothly and made further progress.

Out of a total of 630 reports due from the Governments in 1936, 551 were received by the Office in time for examination by the Committee of Experts, while of the 79 missing reports no less than 69 had been received by the date of the Conference, leaving only 10 reports outstanding. The Committee of Experts and the Conference Committee on the Application of Conventions placed on record their recognition of the increased punctuality shown by the Governments during the year under review in respect of the submission of their annual reports.

Both Committees were satisfied that in the great majority of cases the Governments concerned had taken the necessary measures to ensure that the ratified Conventions were properly applied. There were, however, a few cases in which it seemed that a State, in its desire to make the largest possible contribution to the work of the Organisation, had ratified a number of Conventions *en bloc*, without a full preliminary examination of the measures which would be necessary for their individual and detailed application. In respect of these cases the Committee of the Conference emphasised that the ratification of an International Labour Convention is as solemn and as binding an act as the ratification of any other international treaty, and that ratification imposes a definite obligation upon the ratifying State to give effect to the terms of the Convention completely and punctually.

Both Committees stressed the importance of factory inspection as one of the principal guarantees for the proper enforcement of labour legislation. Satisfaction was also expressed at the spread of the application of Conventions in colonies and other dependent areas.

During the year under review important changes took place in the composition of the Committee of Experts. The death on 23 November 1936 of Mr. Jules Gautier, who for five years had been its Reporter and for three subsequent years its Chairman, created a vacancy in the Committee. The term of office of Sir Selwyn Fremantle and Mr. Gini having expired, the Governing Body appointed Sir Atul Chatterjee and Professor Perassi respectively to succeed them. The Governing Body decided to strengthen

the Committee of Experts by making provision for the appointment of two additional members from extra-European countries. Mr. Yoshisaka, a former member of the Governing Body, was appointed to one of these places.

* * *

The *International Labour Conference* held three Sessions in 1936, an Ordinary Session (the Twentieth) and two Maritime Sessions (the Twenty-first and Twenty-second).

The Twentieth Session took place at Geneva from 4 to 24 June. Fifty-one States sent delegations, numbering 161 delegates and 256 advisers. Egypt became a Member of the International Labour Organisation during the Session, to which it had already sent an observer, and it immediately appointed a Government delegate. For the first time, the delegation of the U.S.S.R. included a Workers' delegate accompanied by advisers.

The day on which the Conference opened, the International Labour Office was informed by the Italian Government that the Italian delegation which had been appointed would not be able to take part in the work of the Conference. It is to be hoped that this will prove a merely temporary interruption of the active and steadfast collaboration which the Organisation has always received from Italy.

Of the delegations which attended the Twentieth Session, 32 were complete in accordance with the provisions of Article 3 of the Constitution, i.e. they comprised in addition to two Government delegates, one Employers' delegate and one Workers' delegate. The delegations included 17 women as delegates or advisers¹.

The following subjects appeared on the Agenda of the Session²:

- (1) The regulation of certain special systems of recruiting workers.
- (2) Holidays with pay.
- (3) Reduction of hours of work on public works undertaken or subsidised by Governments.
- (4) Reduction of hours of work in the building and civil engineering industry.
- (5) Reduction of hours of work in iron and steel works.
- (6) Reduction of hours of work in coal mines.
- (7) Reduction of hours of work in the textile industry.
- (8) Safety provisions for workers in building construction with reference to scaffolding and hoisting machinery.

On items (1) to (6), the Conference held a second discussion. It adopted a Draft Convention and Recommendation on item (1) and a Draft Convention, a Recommendation, and four Resolutions on the question of holidays with pay. Item (3) (reduction of

¹ See Appendix (under IV) for the usual table showing the number and composition of delegations in successive years.

² For more detailed information on the work of the Conference on each of the questions on its Agenda, see under the corresponding headings in the several chapters of this volume. The above is only a bare general summary.

hours of work on public works undertaken or subsidised by Governments) was the subject of a Draft Convention fixing the working week at 40 hours. The texts which had been prepared in Committee for Draft Conventions concerning the introduction of the 40-hour week in the building and civil engineering industry, iron and steel works, and coal mines respectively were passed by large majorities, but the two-thirds majority required by the Constitution for the final vote was not reached, so that the drafts were not adopted. The Conference considered, however, that it should not give up the possibility of reaching a settlement of these questions, and it adopted a Resolution in favour of holding a tripartite technical conference for each of these industries. In taking this decision, it expressed the hope that the proposed conferences would facilitate the conclusion of the desired agreements.

Items (7) and (8) on the Agenda were the subject of a preliminary discussion, intended to determine the points on which Governments should be consulted in preparation of the second stage of the double-discussion procedure, which would take place during the 1937 Session. Item (7) (reduction of hours of work in the textile industry) could have been dealt with by a single discussion, but the Conference decided to observe the usual procedure. After placing the question on the Agenda of the 1937 Session, it adopted a Resolution requesting the Governing Body to convene a tripartite conference which would include the necessary technical and expert assistance from textile-producing countries.

The Conference examined a report on the question of the recruiting, placing and conditions of work of migrant workers, on which it adopted a resolution.

Other matters before the Conference were: the Report of the Director of the International Labour Office; annual reports on the application of the Conventions supplied by Governments in compliance with Article 22 of the Constitution; proposals for amendment of the Standing Orders of the Conference; and a number of resolutions submitted in accordance with the Standing Orders ¹.

The Twenty-first and Twenty-second (Maritime) Sessions of the Conference were held in Geneva from 6 to 24 October and 22 to 24 October 1936 ². Thirty-three States sent delegations to these Sessions, numbering for the Twenty-first Session 97 delegates and 137 advisers. These 33 States taken together represented some 54 million tons of sea-going merchant shipping (ships of 100 tons gross and over), out of a world total of some 65 million tons—in other words, some 83 per cent. of the world total.

¹ For a detailed account of the work of the Twentieth Session of the Conference, see *International Labour Review*, September 1935, Vol. XXXIV, No. 3, pp. 289-338.

² For a detailed account of the work of the Twenty-first and Twenty-second Sessions of the Conference, see *International Labour Review*, January 1937, Vol. XXXV, No. 1, pp. 3-30, and February 1937, Vol. XXXV, No. 2, pp. 141-176.

Of the delegations which attended the Twenty-first Session, 18 were complete in accordance with the provisions mentioned above.

The Agenda of the Twenty-first Session included the following subjects:

- (1) (a) Regulation of hours of work on board ship.
(b) Manning in conjunction with hours of work on board ship.
- (2) Protection of seamen in case of sickness (including the treatment of seamen injured on board ship) i.e.
 - (a) The individual liability of the shipowner towards sick or injured seamen;
 - (b) Sickness insurance for seamen.
- (3) Promotion of seamen's welfare in ports.
- (4) Establishment by each maritime country of a minimum requirement of professional capacity in the case of captains, navigating and engineer officers in charge of watches on board merchant ships.
- (5) Holidays with pay for seamen.

Items (1) (a), (2), (3), and (4) had already been the subject of a first discussion at the Maritime Session of the Conference in 1929. Items (1) (b) and (5) had been discussed at a Preparatory Technical Tripartite Meeting which took place in Geneva from 25 November to 6 December 1935. This Meeting had also reconsidered the question of the regulation of hours of work on board ship.

For ships exceeding a specified tonnage and engaged in specified trades, the Conference adopted a Draft Convention applying to merchant seamen the principle of the 8-hour day. In addition, the Convention provides for the three-watch system and defines the minimum manning standards needed to secure the working of this system. The Draft Convention was supplemented by a Recommendation, urging the States Members to investigate the conditions on board the ships not covered by the Draft Convention and to take all necessary measures to prevent overwork and insufficient manning in such ships.

The Conference adopted two Draft Conventions concerning the organisation of the protection of seamen in the event of sickness or accident, whether in the form of certain liabilities imposed on the shipowners or in that of insurance legislation. It also adopted a Draft Convention concerning the establishment of a minimum requirement of professional capacity in the case of captains, navigating and engineer officers in charge of watches on board merchant ships of over 200 tons gross, subject to certain exceptions. The question of holidays with pay for seamen was the subject of a Draft Convention. As regards the promotion of seamen's welfare in ports, this question was dealt with in a Recommendation covering all its aspects. The Conference further adopted a series of resolutions in favour of the study of certain questions, with a view to their possible selection for the Agenda of a future Maritime Session.

There was only one question on the Agenda of the Twenty-second Session of the Conference:

Partial revision of the Minimum Age (Sea) Convention, 1920, on the following points:

- (1) The raising of the minimum age from 14 to 15 years and any related revision of the exceptions provided in the Convention;
- (2) Substitution for Articles 5-12 of the 1920 Convention of the standard articles included in the Draft Conventions submitted to the Conference at the Twenty-first Session.

The discussion of this question had to take place at a special session owing to certain constitutional requirements which prevented it from being placed on the Agenda of the Twenty-first Session.

The Conference expressed itself in favour of raising the minimum age for admission to employment at sea, and the revised Convention fixes this minimum at 15 instead of 14 years, subject to a few very limited exceptions. The Convention will not come into operation until the Conference has adopted the Draft Conventions revising the minimum age for admission to employment in industry and to non-industrial employment respectively.

* * *

The present *Governing Body* of the International Labour Office was constituted by the International Labour Conference at its Eighteenth Session (1934); its term of office, which is for a period of three years, thus expires in 1937, and new elections will be held during the Twenty-third Session of the Conference, which opens on 3 June 1937.

During 1936 the Governing Body suffered the loss of one of its deputy members by the death of Mr. Constantin Mircea, who had been elected to a deputy member's seat on the Governing Body by the Employers' delegates at the Eighteenth Session of the Conference in 1934. Mr. Mircea was a Professor at the Polytechnic College of Bucarest, Director-General of the Rumanian Federation of Industries, and Senator of the Kingdom of Rumania. He had attended the sessions of the Conference for many years and in 1935 was elected Vice-President. His death was deeply regretted by all those who had had an opportunity of appreciating his ability and courtesy.

At its Seventy-sixth Session (June 1936) the Governing Body amended its Standing Orders relating to the election of its Chairman, which had been in force since October 1931. Under the amended Standing Orders, any regular member of the Governing Body may be elected Chairman for one year. The elections take place each year at the autumn session, and the outgoing Chairman is not re-eligible until three years after he ceases to hold office. The amended Standing Orders provide for the appointment of two

Vice-Chairmen, chosen one from each of the two groups to which the Chairman does not belong. They are elected for one year at the autumn session and are re-eligible.

Under the amended Standing Orders the Governing Body appointed its Officers at the Seventy-seventh Session (November 1936). In the place of the retiring Chairman, Mr. Riddell (Canadian Government representative), it elected Mr. Nečas, Minister for Social Welfare of Czechoslovakia, Czechoslovak Government representative. It also appointed Mr. Oersted (Denmark) as Employers' Vice-Chairman and Mr. Mertens (Belgium) as Workers' Vice-Chairman.

Since the period covered by the last issue of the *Year-Book*, the Governing Body has held the following sessions: the Seventy-fifth Session, from 23 to 25 April 1936; the Seventy-sixth Session, on 2 and 22 June 1936; the Seventy-seventh Session, from 12 to 14 November 1936; the Seventy-eighth Session, from 4 to 6 February 1937. All the sessions were held in Geneva.

* * *

The Governing Body set up certain new *Committees* during the year. The Committee of Experts on Workers' Nutrition is composed of Mr. Bramsnaes, the Chairman, who is a deputy member of the Governing Body, three members of the Governing Body (one from each group), and five experts. The Permanent Agricultural Committee consists of six members of the Governing Body (two from each group) and representatives of agricultural employers' and agricultural workers' organisations, other agricultural experts, and representatives of international institutions and organisations dealing with social problems in agriculture; certain individual experts, who will in each case be approved by the Governing Body, may be appointed *ad hoc* for each session of the Committee. The Governing Body also set up a Sub-Committee on Silicosis, which is composed of eight members of the Correspondence Committee on Industrial Hygiene. It decided to set up an Advisory Committee of Correspondents on Workers' Spare Time, and appointed six of its members (two from each group) as an Executive Committee to make proposals to it as regards the composition of the Advisory Committee. Further, the Governing Body decided to set up a Correspondence Committee on Unemployment Insurance and Placing, on which it will be represented; the members of this Committee will be appointed by the Governing Body at one of its next sessions.

The Governing Body also made various changes in the composition of certain existing Committees¹.

¹ See Appendix (under VI) for the composition of the new Committees and for the list of the changes made in the composition of the other Committees. The full list of the members of all the Committees was published in the *I.L.O. Year Book 1934-35*, and will not be given again until the 1937-38 edition.

Relations

WORKERS' ORGANISATIONS¹

International Federation of Trade Unions

Important increases of membership were recorded by the International Federation of Trade Unions during 1936. According to a report made to the Seventh Ordinary International Trade Union Congress (London, 8-11 July 1936) the total membership of the Federation had again reached a figure of 13,500,000.

A noteworthy addition to the ranks of the International Federation from overseas was the Mexican General Confederation of Labour (*Confederación de Trabajadores de Mexico*), with a membership of over half a million.

On the question of securing a general reduction of working hours by international action, the International Federation maintained its previous attitude, and the London Congress instructed the Executive Committee to increase its activity in favour of the 40-hour week. It expressed the opinion, however, that the procedure, introduced by the International Labour Organisation, of dealing with the problem of working hours industry by industry could only lead to results "in a very slow and piecemeal fashion". The International Trade Union Congress took up the view that this procedure had to be abandoned and efforts resumed for the adoption of a general Draft Convention establishing the 40-hour week for all workers without distinction.

In reviewing the problem of trade union liberty the Congress reaffirmed its faith in the free decision of the trade unions; this, it held, could not be replaced by organisations which people were compelled to join, and by means of which the trade unions were made "helpless tools" of the State or of employers.

The problem of relations with the Red International of Labour Unions was again under discussion, and the International Trade Union Congress considered that, in view of the serious nature of the present international situation, efforts to secure trade union unity should be continued. It was decided to open separate negotiations with the national trade union centres of America, Australia and New Zealand, the Far East, the Soviet Union, and all other non-affiliated trade union centres, with a view to establishing a united trade union movement throughout the world.

Finally, the profound interest in which the problem of economic planning is being followed by the trade union movement was shown by a decision to convene a conference of affiliated bodies to study the international aspects of planning.

The increase in membership of the International Federation can be attributed in large measure to the rapid expansion of the trade

¹ See Appendix (under VII) for statistics of membership of the organisations.

union movement in *France* as a result of the fusion achieved at Toulouse in March 1936. In this country the activities of the reunited General Confederation of Labour resulted in the "Matignon Agreement", which gave some millions of French workers the 40-hour working week, increases in pay ranging from 7 to 15 per cent., the recognition of the trade unions, collective agreements, holidays with pay, and other social advantages.

Not only in France, however, was the trade union movement able to obtain conspicuous results. The *Belgian* trade unions also achieved by legal enactment a reduction of working hours, holidays with pay, and a minimum wage. The Belgian Trade Union Committee, which played the leading part in the negotiations for these reforms with the Belgian Government in May 1936, made on this occasion common cause with the Belgian Federation of Christian Trade Unions.

Another important affiliated centre, the British Trades Union Congress, was also deeply concerned with the problem of trade union unity, but from another angle. At Plymouth (September 1936) the Congress approved the policy of the British Labour Party in refusing to accept the affiliation of the Communist Party, or to co-operate with Communist elements in a "united front". Great activity was displayed by the Congress in trying to win public opinion in favour of holidays with pay; the negotiations conducted by the trade unions in Great Britain are undoubtedly leading to the wider adoption of this system in the industrial undertakings of the country.

Interest also attaches to the activities of the Scandinavian national trade union centres. The reaffiliation of the *Norwegian* Confederation of Trade Unions to the International Federation was definitely consummated in the period under review. In November 1936 the Confederations of Trade Unions of the Northern European countries (*Denmark, Finland, Norway, Sweden*) discussed jointly, and partly in conjunction with the political labour movements of their countries, the improvement of economic collaboration between the countries concerned, the promotion of uniform social legislation, the reduction of hours of work, uniform wage statistics, and the exchange of young workers.

The Northern Workers' Collaboration Committee also dealt with the possibilities of closer collaboration between the trade union organisations of the four countries, and the Swedish Confederation of Trade Unions was asked to work out guiding principles upon which the future co-operation might be based. The Committee also examined the work of the International Labour Organisation and the participation of the four Northern European countries therein.

In *Czechoslovakia* the Czech National Trade Union Federation (*Odborové sdružení československé*) has put forward demands for the introduction of the 40-hour week, the reorganisation of employment exchanges, the legal regulation of collective agreements, and measures to prevent the closing-down of industrial undertakings.

The Federation celebrated at the beginning of 1937 the fortieth anniversary of its foundation.

As regards the oversea federations affiliated to the International Federation of Trade Unions, the activities of the Trades and Labour Congress of *Canada* merit attention. The Congress was able to report an increase of affiliated membership, and at its annual Convention (Montreal, September 1936) it was confronted with the task of defining its attitude to industrial organisation. It will be recalled that the majority of trade union organisations in Canada are sections of international organisations whose headquarters are in the United States. For this reason the events in the United States, leading to the suspension of certain unions from the American Federation of Labor have had an inevitable repercussion on the Canadian trade union movement. The Canadian Trades and Labour Congress gave careful consideration to the situation, and reiterated its standpoint that it was itself the legislative body of the "international unions" in Canada, and that it would refrain from any action which, according to the resolution adopted on the subject, "might be considered as injurious to the best interest of the labour movement on the North American continent".

Some progress was made towards the establishment of trade union unity in *India*. The National Trade Union Federation gave support to the idea of co-operating with the All-India Trade Union Congress and the setting-up of an All-India Joint Labour Board. The All-India Trade Union Congress laid down two conditions, namely, that there should be no affiliation to foreign organisations, and that the national central organisations, when amalgamated, should accept the principle of sending as delegates to the International Labour Conference at Geneva only those elected by the central organisation, and that no delegate should be sent if the Government did not accept the nominee of this central organisation.

At the Fifteenth Session of the All-India Trade Union Congress (Bombay, May 1936) the merging of the two wings of the Indian labour movement for a period of one year was proposed, and a resolution was adopted which expressed the willingness of the Congress to meet in a spirit of conciliation the demands of the National Trade Union Federation. The problem of trade union unity in India, therefore, is not yet definitely solved.

The International Federations of Crafts and Industries. International Trade Secretariats. — The relationship between the International Workers' Federations of Crafts and Industries (International Trade Secretariats) and the International Federation of Trade Unions underwent no change during the period under review, and continued to be close and cordial.

Among the Trade Secretariats, the *International Transport Workers' Federation* was particularly active. Its affiliated seamen's unions provided most of the Workers' delegates to the Twenty-

first (Maritime) Session of the International Labour Conference held in Geneva in October 1936. The Federation was thus able to play an effective part in the presentation of seamen's claims to the Conference.

On the question of road transport, this Federation was also active in securing the selection of the regulation of hours of work and rest periods in road transport undertakings for the Agenda of the 1938 Session of the International Labour Conference. It may be recalled that the Federation has for many years advocated the adoption of international regulations for motor drivers. At an international Conference (Antwerp, November 1936) where more than a quarter of a million motor drivers were represented, it was urged that with a view to public safety, the hours of work and rest of workers concerned in road transport should be determined by international regulations on the basis of the 40-hour working week.

The *Miners' International Federation* likewise continued its policy of close collaboration with the International Labour Office. At the Thirty-second International Congress of the Federation (Prague, August 1936) attention was directed to the problem of miners' occupational diseases, and the Federation welcomed the help given by the Office in the work of research on which it was engaged. Having regard to the diverse practices and inadequate provisions for the health and safety of mine workers, the Congress called on the International Labour Office to take immediate steps to achieve an improved and uniform code of health and safety regulations.

On the problem of working hours the Congress, while welcoming the action of the International Labour Organisation, also envisaged other steps for bringing about a general reduction of the working day in mines, and demanded a maximum 6-hour day from bank to bank and a 36-hour week.

The Federation also pressed once more for an all-inclusive international coal agreement for organising output, markets, and prices.

The discussion on rationalisation centred on the consequent worsening of coal miners' working conditions. A resolution was adopted affirming that rationalisation and mechanisation in coal mines had led to a considerable increase of production per worker and an important lessening of the number of workers, and also to a considerable increase in the number of accidents and of the causes of invalidity.

The international federations of workers engaged in the printing and kindred trades also continued their close collaboration with the International Labour Office with a view to the discussion at the Twenty-third Session of the Conference in June 1937 of the question of the reduction of hours of work in printing and kindred trades. The *International Typographers' Secretariat*, the *International Federation of Bookbinders*, and the *International Federation of*

Lithographers all expressed their appreciation of the efforts to secure a general Convention aiming at a reduction of hours of work, and of special Conventions dealing with the various industries. At Congresses held in the course of 1936 the hope was generally expressed by printing operatives that further assistance should be given through the machinery of the International Labour Organisation to secure a reduction of working hours for their trades.

The *International Federation of Boot and Shoe Operatives*, at its Congress held in Copenhagen, also expressed keen interest in the efforts of the Organisation concerning the reduction of working hours. After pointing to the adoption of the Convention of principle by the International Labour Conference in 1935, the Congress urged that the 40-hour week should be put into operation in those industries where it was immediately practicable.

The *International Federation of General Factory Workers*, which covers a large proportion of the workers engaged in the chemical industry, prepared for submission to the Preparatory Technical Meeting on the Chemical Industry, which was held under the auspices of the International Labour Office in October 1936, an extensive documentation on the possibility of securing an international reduction of working hours in the industry.

The *International Federation of Building and Woodworkers* requested the Governing Body of the International Labour Office in the latter part of 1936 to consider the question of accidents and sickness in the building and woodworking industries, and expressed the wish that the Convention concerning workmen's compensation for occupational diseases should be extended to cover fibrosis of the lungs caused by asbestos dust, and dermatitis due to cement and other substances.

Christian Trade Unions

The calm and steady progress of the Christian trade union organisations which had been a feature of 1935 was suddenly interrupted towards the middle of 1936 by strike movements in France and Belgium. In both these countries, but especially in France, these movements, as also the new labour legislation introduced in France by the Government which came into office in June 1936, led among other things to a substantial increase in the membership of all trade unions, including the Christian unions. In France this membership increased, generally speaking, almost fivefold. But the influence of these events was no less important in regard to the standards and principles underlying the Christian trade union movement.

The point is that the occupation of the factories, which was one of the new features of the strikes in France, brought the Christian unions face to face with a question of principle of the highest importance and of an interest going beyond national frontiers.

It was not long before this question was definitely settled. This form of trade union activity was found to be categorically contrary to the principles of the Christian unions. The French Confederation of Christian Workers at once made its attitude clear on this point, and it instructed its affiliated unions to act in accordance with this principle whenever they were in a position to do so.

This attitude of the French Christian unions, which moreover coincides with that of the international Christian trade union movement, was also adopted by the Belgian Christian unions when the question arose—at least theoretically—in that country, as was pointed out in an article by M. Henry Pauwels, President of the Federation of Christian Trade Unions in Belgium, published in the monthly organ of the French Confederation¹. The representatives of the Belgian Christian unions made their formal opposition to the occupation of factories quite clear as soon as the strike movement broke out in Belgium in June 1936. On this question, as also on the demands to be pressed by means of strikes, complete agreement was reached between the two main branches of the trade union movement in Belgium. The above-mentioned article states that it was at Geneva, on the occasion of the International Labour Conference that the leaders of these two branches first got into touch with each other with a view to determining the bases for an agreement on the labour disputes that were at that date on the point of breaking out in their country.

The new labour legislation in France also gave rise to much controversy as regards the recognition of the Christian trade unions and their participation in the conclusion of collective agreements. During this controversy, which was echoed in the Chamber of Deputies and the Senate, the French Confederation of Christian Workers rested its argument primarily on the interpretation of Article 3 of the Constitution of the International Labour Organisation contained in the advisory opinion given by the Permanent Court of International Justice in 1922, which stated that if “in a particular country there exist several industrial organisations representing the working classes, the Government must take all of them into consideration”.

The counterpart of this discussion may be found in nearly every country where there are Christian trade unions. In all these countries the problem has been solved by loyal collaboration, such as that established in Belgium when the unions belonging to the two branches of the movement fought side by side during the strikes of 1936 for the realisation of the demands they had drawn up in common. Moreover, in the international field mutual recognition has also facilitated that loyal collaboration of all trade union organisations which has for many years existed in the International Labour Organisation, and which has proved purely beneficial both to that Organisation and to the cause of international labour legislation.

¹ *Syndicalisme*, No. 8, September 1936.

The firm will of the Christian trade unions to collaborate actively with the International Labour Organisation found frequent expression during 1936. The central institution of the international Christian trade union movement, the *International Confederation of Christian Trade Unions*, held the annual meeting of its Council on 22 and 23 May 1936 at Luxemburg. The questions on the Agenda of the International Labour Conference were thoroughly discussed, and a resolution was adopted in which the Council declared its general approval of the proposals submitted to the Conference by the International Labour Office, and added: "With regard to the 40-hour week, the Council notes that the prospects of the Conference are not very reassuring and expresses regret that many Governments, like the employers, oppose the reduction of hours of work as a measure against unemployment, but fail to put forward any alternative". At this same meeting the Council also discussed the admission to the International Confederation of the Federation of Polish Occupational Associations, and authorised its executive officers to continue the negotiations on the question and to take any decisions in the matter.

In the discussion on the general report, the Council defined the position of Christian trade unionism with regard to extremist movements, stating that both extremism of the right and communism must be regarded as incompatible with Christian trade union principles. Subsequently, several national Christian trade union federations, such as those of the Netherlands and Belgium, took similar decisions and organised an active campaign against extremist movements and for the protection of democracy and trade union principles.

The various international Christian federations of crafts and industries held numerous congresses and meetings during 1936, all of which were focused on the problems on the Agenda of the International Labour Conference. The *International Federation of Christian Metal Workers*, for example, at a meeting at Chur (13 and 14 May 1936) expressed itself in favour of the 40-hour week in iron and steel works and of holidays with pay, and at the same time denounced ". . . the armaments race . . . which must be considered unhealthy and dangerous . . ." even if it "has more favourable effects on the conditions of employment of metal workers than is in fact the case".

The *International Federation of Christian Salaried Employees* held its Congress on 15 and 16 May 1936 at Karlovy-Vary (Czechoslovakia). After having specified the demands of salaried employees with regard to holidays with pay, the Congress once more affirmed "its attachment to the work undertaken by the International Labour Organisation and its desire to collaborate in this to the fullest extent of its capacity". The Congress also asked "the International Labour Organisation to continue to devote special attention to questions affecting salaried employees".

The *International Federation of Christian Building Workers' Unions* (Luxemburg, 21 and 22 May 1936) welcomed the proposals of the International Labour Office for the introduction of an international Convention to standardise and generalise safety provisions in the building industry, and expressed itself in favour of the reduction of hours of work in this industry, "as much for social reasons (reabsorption of the unemployed in production) as for economic reasons (compensation for the progressive mechanisation of building work)".

The *International Federation of Christian Transport and Factory Workers' Unions* held its triennial congress during the year (Luxemburg, 27 and 28 July 1936), as also meetings of its technical groups for the chemical industry (Antwerp, 20 November 1936) and for professional motor-vehicle drivers (Strasburg, 20 January 1937). At all these meetings, too, the questions on the Agenda of the International Labour Conference were the main subject of discussion.

Similarly, the Congress of the *International Federation of Christian Miners* (Brussels, 4-6 September 1936) asked the Governing Body of the International Labour Office and the Council of the League of Nations to resume the study of the possibilities of an agreement between the coal-producing countries with a view to the regulation of the production and marketing of coal on European and world markets.

Finally the system of "study days", first introduced by the Christian trade unions in 1935, was continued in 1936. They were held in Switzerland, and the problems studied were: (1) the utilisation of existing pre-corporative institutions for the establishment of corporations; (2) women's work; (3) the present international tension and the League of Nations.

As these meetings for study are not intended to take decisions, their importance to the general public lies in the fact that they throw light on the problems which, side by side with ordinary trade union activities, are engaging the attention of the leaders of the Christian trade unions in different countries.

Fascist Trade Unions

During 1936 meetings were held of the national councils of the various trade union federations and confederations. Besides the usual questions specified in the rules of the unions, these meetings discussed such matters as economic resistance to sanctions, the measures to be proposed for the working of the corporations and the principles to be followed, and the possibilities of readjusting wages, thus preparing for the increases decreed by the Corporate Committee.

There was no substantial change during the year in the structure of the trade organisations, or in their leadership, since the meetings

of the federations for the election of secretaries, which are held every three years, were not due to take place until 1937. The confederations continued to improve their internal services and intensified their economic researches with a view to enabling the workers representatives to take an efficient part in the work of the corporations.

Trade Union Movement in the U.S.S.R.

The membership of the trade unions in the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics continued to increase, although somewhat less rapidly than the number of workers. From 1 January 1935 to 1 January 1936, for example, the number of workers increased by 5 per cent. (22,893,700 as compared with 24,038,900), whilst the increase in the number of trade unionists was only 4.4 per cent. (18,169,600 as compared with 18,970,700). If apprentices and persons working in isolation, e.g. domestic workers, are included, the total membership of the trade unions on 1 January 1936 was 20,260,300. An effort was made by the organisations to secure the affiliation of a still larger proportion of the workers, who were estimated to number over 25 million at the end of 1936.

The Soviet trade unions administer the social insurance funds, whose total income in 1936 was estimated at 8,300 million roubles. The unions also had at their disposal a sum of 1,800 million roubles for the fulfilment of other functions assigned to them, which was derived from members' contributions (now fixed at 1 per cent. of wages) and subsidies from the undertakings, establishments, and institutions. Among these various functions, reference may be made to the campaign against disease and accidents, the improvement of rest homes, sanatoria, and maternity and child welfare institutions, the development of physical culture, the organisation or workers' spare time, the construction and repair of houses, the promotion of education, and the raising of the standard of general and vocational education among trade unionists. As regards education, the plan prepared by the U.S.S.R. General Council of Trade Unions was for the total abolition of illiteracy among trade unionists during 1936, and among the adult members of their families during 1937. All trade union activities are now to be entrusted mainly to members giving their services voluntarily without pay. The number of paid trade union officials having reached over 76,000 by the end of 1936, it was decided to reduce the figure to a minimum.

In view of the profound changes in trade union activity, particularly since 1933, the Commissariat of Labour was abolished, and its functions were transferred to the General Council of Trade Unions. The former rules of the workers' organisations were declared invalid, and the trade unions are now engaged in drawing up model rules on new principles.

A new task was entrusted to the trade unions by the Constitution adopted on 5 December 1936, which requires that candidates for election to the soviets as workers' representatives,

from the rural or municipal soviets and up to and including the Supreme Council of the U.S.S.R., shall, *inter alia*, be nominated by the workers' organisations.

The journal of the General Council of Trade Unions¹ announced that after the adoption of the Constitution all the executive bodies of the unions would have to be re-elected, and that this re-election would furnish an opportunity to give concrete expression to the new functions entrusted to the trade unions. It will be the task of the plenary meeting of the General Council to be held in May 1937 to define the election procedure and the future activities of the Soviet trade union movement.

Trade Unionism in Extra-European Countries

The *American Federation of Labor* reported that for the financial year ending 31 August 1936 the membership of its affiliated unions was 3,442,398, an increase of nearly 400,000 over the membership for the twelve months of the previous financial year. One of the most important questions dealt with by the Federation during the year was the question of industrial unionism. Since the Convention of the Federation held at Atlantic City in October 1935, a certain number of unions have been suspended by the Executive Council of the Federation for their relations with the body known as the "Committee for Industrial Organisation", which has for its object the promotion of labour organisation on an industrial basis as distinct from a craft basis, to which latter most of the unions of the American Federation of Labor subscribe. When the matter was under discussion at the last Convention of the Federation, at Tampa (Florida) in November 1936, it was stated that every attempt would be made "to hold out the hand of fellowship and goodwill", and that if the Federation had an opportunity "to sit at the conference table with the representatives of these organisations", one might be "confident and sure that a settlement could be reached".

The Federation has continued to press for an amendment to the Constitution of the United States in order to protect children from industrial exploitation.

In the international field, the Executive Council of the Federation expressed the hope that when the Twenty-third Session of the Labour Conference met in Geneva, the American Federation of Labor would be represented by its President.

As regards the International Federation of Trade Unions, the American Federation of Labor looked to closer co-operation with the International Federation, and delegated to its President and Executive Council the responsibility for further negotiations with a view to affiliation.

The Federation also continued its support of the Pan-American Federation of Labour, and expressed the hope that at the Buenos Aires Conference of the Pan-American Union consideration would

¹ *Voprosy Profdvizenija*, October 1936.

be given to the material standards of the workers, their standard of living, and the general improvement in the standard of living of the States of the American Continent.

After a discussion on political activities, it was decided that no change should be made in the well-established non-partisan political policy of the Federation.

Despite the formation of a rival nationalistic trade union centre in Japan in April 1936, the *Japanese Trade Union Congress* continued to make progress. At the fifth annual session of the Congress, which was held in October 1936, the difficulties of the present situation for trade unionism in Japan were set forth in a declaration of policy. In the course of this declaration it was pointed out that export inflation had gradually diminished, and that industrial inactivity was being checked solely by means of a munitions inflation. What was needed was the reorganisation of the whole structure of the capitalist system and the consequent stabilisation of the national livelihood. The Government should see that the working classes were given organisation and control, and through such organisation should devise a means of industrial co-operation. For this reason the Congress urged the enactment of a trade union law and a collective agreement law. "The Government should proceed without delay to give legal recognition to trade unions, carry out measures for controlling industry and labour; set up a new Department of Labour, and make plans for the co-ordination of labour administration".

The question of the annual reports made to the International Labour Office by countries which have ratified international labour Conventions was the subject of an application addressed by the Congress to the Minister of Home Affairs. The Congress pointed out that the provisions of the present Primary School Ordinance alone were not sufficient to give effect to the Convention concerning the age for admission to employment in agriculture, and maintained that a law fixing the minimum age for admission to such employment should be enacted. It also considered that certain additional Conventions could readily be ratified by Japan if the laws and regulations concerned were amended.

The *All-Australian Council of Trade Unions* held no Congress during the year 1936, but its executive officers and its affiliated bodies in the various States maintained their constant endeavour to secure improved industrial conditions in keeping with the measure of economic recovery which has taken place in Australia.

As regards hours of work in particular, the Council urged the Commonwealth and State Governments to subscribe to the principle of the 40-Hour Week Convention and to pass the necessary legislation to make it effective in Australia. The Council also undertook a campaign throughout the country to win popular support for the reduction of hours of work, and thus to induce Governments to act in the matter. Claims for a working week of

40 hours or less were lodged by various unions with the Arbitration Court. The All-Australian Council of Trade Unions is considering the action to be taken with a view to the revision of the basic wage.

The largest trade union in Australia, the Australian Workers' Union, celebrated in 1936 the fiftieth anniversary of its activities in the Commonwealth.

In *New Zealand* a conference of representatives of the New Zealand Alliance of Labour and the New Zealand Federation of Trades and Labour Councils considered the possibility of forming one large organisation, representing the whole of the trade union movement in New Zealand, on the model of the Trades Union Congress in Great Britain. This Conference of the two national bodies drafted a constitution and prepared plans for a national conference of all delegates from trade union bodies in the Dominion, which would finally determine the structure and policy of the projected organisation.

EMPLOYERS' ORGANISATIONS

International Organisations

The International Organisation of Industrial Employers held its usual meetings in 1936. The annual meeting of the General Council took place in Geneva immediately before the International Labour Conference. In accordance with its rules, the General Council considered all the aspects of the work of the International Labour Organisation affecting employers' organisations.

The Executive Committee of the *International Cotton Federation* (London, autumn 1936) adopted a resolution confirming its general opposition to the application of a 40-hour week in the cotton textile industry, and its consequent opposition to the adoption of any international Convention in this respect.

The Board of the *International Wool Federation* (Paris, April 1936) approved the attitude adopted by the President of the Federation in regard to enquiries made by the International Labour Conference; it also confirmed a previous declaration to the effect that labour questions should be dealt with by the national trade organisations of the various countries, the International Wool Federation being a technical and economic body. The Twelfth International Wool Conference was held at Warsaw on 24 and 25 June 1936. The 40-hour week was discussed among other things, but, in accordance with the previous policy, no resolution was adopted in this connection. The economic questions on the agenda included the adjustment of production and consumption and a survey of the wool industry and trade with reference to recent economic developments throughout the world.

The Executive Committee of the *International Railway Union* (Paris, November 1936) considered various proposals submitted by the technical committees of the Union, including its committee on automatic coupling.

The Sixth International Conference of *Catholic Employers' Associations* (Paris, 20 May 1936) was held on the occasion of the tenth anniversary of the French Catholic Employers' Federation. The Conference considered opportunities for developing affiliated associations and setting up new centres for Catholic employers.

National Organisations

Few changes were made during 1936 in the structure of the various national employers' organisations. Some events are however worthy of note.

The *Federation of Austrian Industries* held its seventeenth and last general meeting in Vienna on 18 May 1936. The activities of this organisation had largely been transferred to the *Austrian Manufacturers' Federation*, which was established by the Act of 17 October 1934 in accordance with the provisions of the new Constitution of 1 May 1934. The Federation of Austrian Industries took the view that a private organisation of manufacturers had now become superfluous and consequently decided to dissolve. After approving the accounts for 1934 and 1935, the meeting resolved that the assets should be transferred to the Austrian Manufacturers' Federation.

At its Eighteenth General Meeting (Prague, 23 June 1936) the *Czechoslovak Manufacturers' Federation* stated its views on the Government's proposals for the compulsory organisation of industry. In the opinion of the Federation each branch of industry should decide how far such organisation is desirable in its own field.

The *French General Confederation of Production* decided during the summer of 1936 on a complete reorganisation. The Confederation is now to be known as the *General Confederation of French Employers*, and comprises all commercial as well as industrial activities. The employers' associations and federations which constitute the Confederation are divided into 31 groups, most of which combine production, manufacturing, and distribution. In addition, three of the groups consist of associations of commercial employers (for foreign trade, for general trade, and for specialised commercial employers' associations). The Confederation will thus provide for the investigation, representation, and protection of the general interests of French employers, whether in industry or trade, whether large or small, and will co-ordinate the efforts of producers' and traders' associations. It will also develop its service dealing with labour and social questions.

Shortly before carrying out this change, the General Confedera-

tion of Production decided to join the *National Committee of Industry and Commerce*. This body was set up on 3 August 1936 at the suggestion of a meeting of Presidents of Chambers of Commerce. Its functions will include the holding of a National Congress of Commerce and Industry at least once a year and extraordinary sessions more often in case of need.

Under an Act of 7 July 1936, the *Lithuanian Chamber of Commerce and Industry* was reorganised as a *Chamber of Commerce, Industry and Trades*. The powers of the Chamber, which is a public body with headquarters in the capital of the State, are determined by its rules. These are drawn up by the Cabinet. The whole activity of the Chamber is under the supervision of the Minister of Finance. The President of the Chamber is appointed by the President of the Republic on the proposal of the Minister of Finance. The Chamber may be dissolved by decision of the Cabinet.

A *Federation of Polish Textile Employers' Associations* was set up in October 1936, and includes practically all the textile employers' associations in Poland, representing large, medium-sized and small undertakings. It intends to draw up a common programme covering all matters connected with the textile industry.

As regards extra-European countries, it may be noted that *Chambers of Industry* were set up in *Ecuador* under a Decree of 20 August 1936. By an Act of 27 August 1936 the *Chambers of Commerce and Industry* in *Mexico* were officially recognised and placed under the supervision of the Minister of National Economy. Affiliation is compulsory for manufacturers and traders respectively, with the exception of small undertakings. The internal organisation of the Confederation of Chambers of Industry and the Confederation of Chambers of Commerce has been modified in consequence.

A *Small Industries Association of India* was set up at Bombay and held its first annual meeting on 4 July 1936. Under the rules, the objects of the Association are: to develop and protect the small industries of India; to collect and circulate statistics and other information relating to small industries; to study scientifically comparative costs of production and the possibility of developing markets for the products of small industries both in India and abroad; to make representations to local, central or imperial authorities regarding legislation on all matters affecting small industries; and to secure organised and concerted action on all subjects involving the interests of persons engaged in small industries, including the regulation of conditions of employment.

The matters with which employers' organisations were chiefly concerned in 1936 included the question of hours of work. In *Belgium*, in an address to the Crown in July 1936, a delegation of the *Belgian Central Industrial Committee* and the *National*

Federation of Chambers of Commerce and Industry made suggestions with a view to lessening the consequences of any hasty application of the Act of 9 July 1936 concerning hours of work. The delegation asked that, before Royal Orders were issued applying the 40-hour week, the effects of such application not only on producers but on the national economic system as a whole should be thoroughly investigated.

The big employers' associations in *France*, such as the General Confederation of French Employers, the Chambers of Commerce, the Association of Metal and Mining Industries, the National Committee of Mine Owners, the Federation of French Manufacturers and Traders, the National Federation of Industrial and Commercial Organisations in France and the Colonies, and the Catholic Employers' Confederation, adopted resolutions and submitted addresses to the Government expressing their fears of effects of a rapid application of the 40-Hour Week Act of 21 June 1936 on the economic system of the country. They recognised, however, the advantages of the collective agreements which were made general under the Act of 24 June 1936, and of the principle laid down by the Act of 20 June 1936 concerning holidays with pay. The attitude of the employers in regard to the Act of 31 December 1936 concerning conciliation and arbitration was reserved, but the hope was expressed that the provisions of the Act would restore industrial peace and put an end to the stay-in strikes which had taken place in many localities.

It is interesting to note that the principle of minimum wages has been accepted in countries where industrialism is of recent growth. In *Yugoslavia* the secretariats of manufacturers' associations and manufacturers themselves were represented at a Conference held by the *Federation of Industrial Corporations* (Bled, 23 August 1936), which unanimously adopted the principle of minimum wages. Some months later, the manufacturers made their position clear at a Conference of Chambers of Commerce and Industry (Banja Luka, 11-13 November 1936). While confirming the desirability of minimum wages, the Conference held that the system should be applied with the help of the economic organisations concerned and that its introduction in different branches of industry and trade should be gradual. Similar views were expressed at the *Third Cuban Industrial Congress* (Havana, 8-14 December 1936), which stated that the minimum rates of pay should be 1 dollar a day for workers and 45 dollars a month for salaried employees.

Another tendency which is to be observed in countries of recent industrial development is that of opposition to interference by foreign capitalists. In the *Irish Free State* a resolution was adopted in this connection by the *Federation of Saorstát Industries* at its Third Annual Meeting (Dublin, 19 January 1937). A similar decision was taken in *China* at the Ninth Annual Meeting of the

National Federation of Chinese Industry (Shanghai, 21 November 1936), to the effect that the establishment of new foreign factories should be prohibited in China.

The principal extra-European countries of industrial importance were particularly concerned with the regulation of conditions of employment by collective agreement. At its Sixty-fifth Annual General Meeting (Quebec, 2-4 June 1936) the *Canadian Manufacturers' Association* expressed the view that the Acts promulgated in Quebec, Ontario and Alberta concerning collective agreements had not been attended by satisfactory results. The Association was therefore of opinion that such legislation, so far from aiding, had actually delayed recovery without achieving to any great extent the elimination of sweat-shop wages. Further evidence of this was supplied to the Executive Council of the Association (Montreal, 12 November 1936) in a report which drew attention to the growing preference for minimum wage legislation.

The *National Association of Employers in the United States* (New York, 10 December 1936) adopted a declaration of principles in which it undertook to initiate an era of good feeling between employers and wage earners and to further such measures as would promote the best interests of the American people. On the other hand the Association claimed that employers should be free from interference or coercion by workers' organisations. It was in favour of economic security for the workers and against sweat-shops and child labour. The progressive programme adopted by the Associations includes better living, better housing, more of the necessities, comforts and luxuries of life, steadier work, more certainty of a job, and more security for old age.

A similar declaration had been published a few months previously with the approval of 1,400 affiliated organisations, including 700,000 members, by the *Chamber of Commerce of the United States*. While asserting that business would ignore its gravest responsibility if it failed to provide the greatest possible degree of economic security to the individual, the Chamber did not consider that Government interference in the form of legislation would contribute to this end, which included the maintenance of high wages and provision for aged workers. Accordingly it asked that employers and employees should have full freedom for the discussion and adjustment of terms of employment either through individual negotiations or through representatives of their own selection.

These statements may be compared with a declaration made by the *Japanese National Confederation of Industrial Associations* at a meeting of its Standing Committee (Tokyo, 11 April 1936): "We shall endeavour, by means of collective action and without waiting for Government interference or legislative compulsion, to renew our efforts for further improvement of the welfare of the workers

and for a better assurance of their livelihood." The Confederation also stated that one of its chief tasks was to protect small industry.

Among the important resolutions adopted by employers' organisations in 1936, that passed by the *Association of Chambers of Commerce of South Africa* at its Thirty-eighth Annual Congress (Johannesburg, 12-15 October 1936) is worthy of note. The Congress recommended that the Government should consider the question of encouraging the flow of immigrants to the Union from the countries from which South Africa's white population mainly originates.

On returning to their respective countries several representatives of extra-European employers' organisations who had attended the Twentieth Session of the International Labour Conference made statements in regard to the International Labour Organisation. The following remarks of Sir Hormi Mehta (Indian Employers' delegate) may be quoted:

"The International Labour Office appears to be a strong young man who has come through some difficult years in the childhood days. The steady growth of its influence and force in the future is certain. The whole force of the growth in Geneva of international outlook will go forward through intellectual and moral pressure without any setback except probably when any coercive methods of influence are attempted to be used. I submit then that the deliberations of this Conference and the work of the International Labour Organisation are worthy of the keenest interest of the Government, employers and workers of India."

IMPORTANT PRIVATE ASSOCIATIONS

At its Twentieth Plenary Congress (Glasgow, 1-4 June 1936) the *International Federation of League of Nations Societies*, on the proposal of its Committee on Economic and Social Questions, passed a resolution concerning the ratification of international labour Conventions adopted since 1932. Recognising the great importance of the work accomplished by the International Labour Organisation and wishing to encourage its efforts, the Congress urged the constituent societies "to bring pressure on their Governments to accelerate the progress of ratifications, and themselves to awaken public opinion in their respective countries to the growing discrepancy between the attitude of Governments towards international labour Conventions and the principles which they are bound to observe". Another resolution referred to the international aspect of over-population and unemployment, calling upon the League of Nations and the International Labour Organisation "to study without delay methods of remedying this situation, including diminution of the legal and administrative measures inimical to migration and progressive removal of the obstacles to the international exchange of labour, capital and commodities".

Under the auspices of the International Federation, a *World Youth Congress* was held (Geneva, 31 August-7 September 1936), attended by 750 delegates from 36 countries. With reference to the "economic and social organisation of the world", which was one of the questions on the agenda, the Congress indicated various means of remedying economic nationalism, unemployment and over-population. The programme for the prevention of unemployment included several measures that have come before the International Labour Organisation, such as the reduction of hours of work, public works, raising of the minimum age for admission to employment, apprenticeship, social insurance, etc. The Congress decided to continue its work by setting up a *Committee of the World Youth Congress*. It instructed this Committee to draw up, on the basis of the reports of the Congress, an International Charter of the rights of youth, and to submit this Charter to the International Labour Organisation and all Governments and employers' and workers' associations.

The *International University Federation for the League of Nations* held its Thirteenth Annual Congress (Montreux, Switzerland, 24-29 August 1936), attended by twenty national groups, including some sixty delegates. The Congress unanimously adopted a resolution defining the principles on which propaganda carried on by the Federation should be based. The second part of this declaration dealt with social and economic matters. It urged that "economic agreements should be concluded between the European States in order to abolish national autarky, which deepened the depression and lowered the standard of living of the individual", and that "a general peace conference should be called as soon as possible to make a simultaneous study of economic and social questions closely related to one another".

The Third *International Conference on Social Work* (London, 12-18 July 1936) was attended by about 1,800 persons. The general subject for discussion was "Social Work and the Community". Several plenary meetings were held, in the course of which the Conference considered the evolution of social work, the solution of the problems raised by the depression, and the most recent forms of relief. The Conference then broke up into five committees on: (1) social work and health; (2) education and the utilisation of spare time; (3) methods of medical aid; (4) methods of social re-adjustment; (5) the consequences of unemployment for the community and the remedies tried. In view of the very different economic, political and social conditions prevailing in each country, the committees did not submit resolutions, or even recommendations, but merely outlined a few general points suggested by the exchange of views.

The programme of the *Save the Children International Union* includes a series of meetings in which consideration is also to be given to the statutory protection of young persons. A first

Balkan Congress on Child Protection was held at Athens (5-9 April 1936), and was attended by about 300 delegates, representing Bulgaria, Greece, Rumania, Turkey, and Yugoslavia. The conclusions adopted by the section of the Congress which considered the statutory protection of young workers deal in particular with: the responsibility of private associations for the protection of young persons; co-operation between such associations and the State in the application of national and international legislation; remedies for the unemployment of young persons; the organisation and supervision of placing; the development of institutions for the utilisation of spare time; and the improvement of conditions for young rural workers and of children employed in itinerant and seasonal trades. A second Balkan Congress on Child Protection will be held in Yugoslavia during 1938. The questions on the agenda are the protection of young persons in rural areas and the training of child protection staff.

The International Union also selected for possible study the question of the revision of the international Conventions concerning the minimum age for the admission of children to employment.

At a meeting of the Executive Committee of the *World Federation against Alcoholism* (London, September 1936) Mr. Slotemaker de Bruine, Minister of Education in the Netherlands, was elected Chairman. The Executive Committee reviewed the work of its various sub-committees, in particular that of the sub-committee dealing with labour legislation and social questions. It further drew up the agenda for the next International Congress on Alcoholism, which is to meet in Warsaw from 12 to 16 September 1937, and will discuss, among other things, a report on the evolution of international social legislation, with special reference to the campaign against alcoholism, and a report on the utilisation of workers' spare time in relation to the campaign. With a view to the preparation of the latter report, the International Bureau against Alcoholism, which is the permanent secretariat of the Union, is consulting trade union leaders in the different countries.

THE CHURCHES

The Catholic Church

One of the chief features of 1936 was the large number of episcopal documents urging Catholics to deal actively with social questions.

In *Austria* Cardinal Innitzer protested vigorously against persons who undermine social justice and against firms and undertakings which take advantage of business depression and unemployment to fish in troubled waters.

In *Poland* Mgr. Teodorowicz and Mgr. Twardowski considered that the time had come for Catholics to take stock of the suffering

and neglect which had been the lot of the workers. Stop-gap remedies would no longer suffice, and, in the interests of the country, a vast plan of action must be prepared.

In *Great Britain* the bishops pointed out, in a collective pastoral letter, that the social injustice which had so long been the curse of Europe, had brought Christian civilisation to the brink of disaster. True to the traditions of their predecessors and especially of Cardinal Manning, they publicly protested against social injustice, the oppression of the poor and of the workers, and the exploitation of the weak, and appealed for concerted action by laymen.

In *Belgium* the bishops likewise published a collective letter recalling the general principles of Christian social doctrine: the dignity of man, respect for family life, and the duties of individuals and communities to one another. They condemned both systematic disregard for truth, justice and security and the recourse commonly had nowadays to lying, slander and abuse. Finally, they recommended the development of trade organisations, these being a factor in social order which, without prejudice to Belgian traditions of freedom, should form an integral part of the political structure.

In *France*, since the month of June, episcopal messages have been heard in nearly every diocese, calling men of good will to work. Mgr. Salièges, Archbishop of Toulouse, declared that the present system, based on the supremacy of money, could not last and that the interests of Christianity were not identical with those of capitalism. Cardinal Liénart, Bishop of Lille, recalled the fact that the Church had always been in favour of the method of collaboration and that united efforts were urgently required to overcome the depression and establish humane relationships between all the factors in each occupation, namely, capital, management, employees and workers, all of whom had a common interest.

The message which attracted most attention was that sent out by Cardinal Verdier immediately after the general election of 1936. At a time when, in spite of various improvements, the workers were destitute and their suffering was increased by the depression, the Archbishop of Paris faced the economic problem, asking Catholics to do what they could towards solving it by restoring peace and harmony and by making a bold attempt to introduce the new order for which every one was waiting.

“ May I recall the fact that the Church, speaking nearly 50 years ago through Pope Leo XIII and more recently through Pope Pius XI, denounced the evils of our social order and reminded the world of what ought to be done in the interests of real justice and wise equality, for the welfare of the workers ?

“ Had this teaching been better understood, many of the ills from which we are now suffering might have been avoided.

“ Let us all set to work, for a solemn duty is laid on us at the present time, on employers and workers, dwellers in town and country, moralists, pastors and flock, resolutely to seek a solution for the economic problem which is worrying us all. In view of the suffering which is so widespread, this duty is a sacred one of the utmost importance.

“ Rising above party considerations, we must all work to bring about an

atmosphere of peace and brotherly feeling in which able men may serenely and courageously cope with this thorny problem.

"We must eschew all bitterness, all political or social prejudice, and, up to a point, sacrifice our own interests, in order to promote this social peace."

Shortly afterwards, this appeal received the explicit approval of the Holy See.

At the turn of the year, Cardinal Verdier again expressed the same ideas. He said he was convinced that there was no going back on the social improvements introduced by recent French legislation. He urged the clergy not to set their faces against the future and told them they should not try at all costs to preserve "even that which was bound to disappear".

The most important of the great international congresses was the Second *International Congress of Catholic Journalists*, held (Rome 24-28 September) on the occasion of the World Exhibition of the Catholic Press, under the chairmanship of the Director of the *Osservatore Romano*. The meetings were attended by journalists from 28 countries. Before the Congress opened, two days were spent in studying Catholic schools of journalism. Cardinal Pacelli, Secretary of State of the Papal See, recalling the pontifical instructions regarding the press, invited those attending the Congress to oppose certain theories which ran counter to Christianity, including "the maxims and practices of a plutocratic liberalism which, disregarding or despising the intrinsic dignity of labour and treating the workers as a means of earning profits rather than as citizens possessing certain rights, sought to hinder or at any rate to delay the gradual, methodical and organic redemption of the proletariat". The Congress then considered the questions of the general attitude of the press, the national and international organisation of journalists, and the protection of their moral and material interests. It further approved the rules of the International Union of the Catholic Press.

The Sixth Congress of the *Belgian Catholics* (Malines) undertook a general study of the religious, moral, intellectual, economic, and social problems raised by modern life and of the need for reorganising the forces of Catholicism. More than 200 reports were submitted, which clearly showed that the time was ripe for important reforms in trade organisation and in the status of joint stock companies and banks.

The *Association of Young French Catholics* celebrated its fiftieth anniversary from 30 May to 1 June. It was pointed out that for half a century the Association had been the training ground for the most prominent social Catholics in France.

The General Meeting of *Hungarian Catholics* (4 to 6 October 1936) dealt with the economic situation of the countryside under the heading of "the rural depression".

At their Eighth Congress (Paris, 16 and 17 May) the *French Social Secretariats* were mainly concerned with the problems of handicraftsmen and with the rural movement. The organisation of handicraftsmen, which was started four years ago at the Congress

of Social Secretariats, is now in full swing. In Paris, and in the northern and western areas, organisations have been set up which are capable of grouping all handicraftsmen bent on joint action. Similar developments are taking place in the south-western and south-eastern areas.

From 4 to 8 December, the leaders of the trade organisations concerned held a Second Social Maritime Congress (Saint Malo, 4-8 December 1936) to consider the reorganisation of maritime occupations, classified according as they belong to the fishing or the transport industry.

The *Social Weeks* met with the same success as in previous years. The programme of the *Canadian Social Week* (Trois-Rivières, 20-27 August), like that adopted at Angers in France in 1935, bore on occupational organisation and corporatism.

At the same date, the Walloon and Flemish Weeks, held at Louvain in *Belgium*, dealt with "renovation". The subject to which the lectures led up was "occupational organisation as a means of remedying the abuses of financial dictatorship".

The subject for discussion at Vilno in *Poland* was education. This Week, which was open to laymen, was followed by another (Poznan, November 1936) for the clergy from all parts of the country, at which the outstanding economic and social questions of immediate importance were reviewed.

In *France* the vast issue of "conflicts between civilisations" was studied at the Social Week (Versailles, 18-24 July). The conclusion was reached that although the various civilisations were tending towards material and technical uniformity, they had never been so far apart in respect to ideology. Catholicism, by creating an atmosphere in which every one could develop freely, while continuing to respect and appreciate one another, might do much to facilitate the passage from conflict to peaceful intercourse. The conclusions adopted recommended active co-operation with international organisations.

In *Great Britain* the Sixteenth Catholic Summer School, held at Oxford, was devoted to the study of the social Encyclicals and international and national problems. A great many week-end lecture courses were also given in big centres. The various University study circles for undergraduates are supplying the Catholic social movement with its future leaders. The Catholic Workers' College in Oxford continued its task of social training for workers. Its activities recently received the special approval of the Holy See. The part played by graduates of this College in public bodies, trade unions and the *Catholic Social Guild* speaks highly of the training they have received.

A first and very successful attempt at a Social Week was made in *Brazil* (Rio de Janeiro, 8-12 June 1936). Conclusions were adopted recommending the organisation of periodical meetings for studying legislation, drawing up a progressive programme of

action, and bringing together all Catholics who are eager to do social work.

The social reforms which were being carried out in *France* during 1936 somewhat hindered the holding of the intensive summer meetings of the *Workers' Social Colleges*. The northern session alone was able to complete its programme; the Lyons meeting, which was very well attended, was confined to the three days' public holiday in the middle of July. It is hoped, however, that the institution of paid holidays will in future facilitate attendance at these schools, which are more to the fore than ever.

In the *United States* the outstanding feature of the year was the interview of Cardinal Pacelli, Secretary of State of the Papal See, with President Roosevelt. Reference was made on this occasion to the President's high regard for the Encyclical *Quadragesimo Anno*, which, in virtue of the Senate's decision, has been included *in extenso* in the official documents of that body.

In May, under the patronage of all the archbishops and bishops, Catholics throughout the United States celebrated the twofold anniversary of the Social Encyclicals of Leo XIII and Pius XI. Everything was done to make this event a memorable one. The papal documents and their commentaries were amply quoted and discussed in the pulpit, by the press, and broadcasting stations, in conferences, public meetings, colleges and seminaries, and study circles. In every diocese the Sunday sermons on 10 and 17 May were largely devoted to the Encyclicals. Apart from local broadcasts, mention should be made of the addresses given by Mgr. George L. Leech, Bishop of Harrisburg, and Mgr. John A. Ryan, D.D., Director of the Department of Social Action of the *National Catholic Welfare Conference* on "the message of the Encyclicals for the America of to-day", and that of the Director of the Department of Agriculture of the Conference, Dr. Edgar Schmiedler, on "the Church and agriculture". The Knights of Columbus did much to make the event a success by organising a large number of meetings and distributing books and pamphlets. They also opened new study centres on this occasion. The same remarks apply to the students of various Universities. At Detroit more than 8,000 students took part in these celebrations.

One hundred and twenty-five Catholic Universities, colleges and seminaries held summer schools, which were attended by 35,000 students. Considerable space was allotted in the programmes of these schools to economic and social questions.

The National Catholic Welfare Conference made strenuous attempts to secure relief for small rural landowners and to develop distributive co-operative societies and mutual credit societies.

Sessions of the *Catholic Conference on Industrial Problems* were held in Chicago, Schenectady, Philadelphia, Washington, San Francisco, and Rochester N.Y. Stress was laid on the faulty distribution of wealth, the hoarding to which this leads, and the

need for raising wages. It was held that sincere co-operation between capital and labour, on the one hand, and the Government, on the other, would provide a remedy for the disadvantages attributed to a planned economy by many people, who fear that this involves too much interference by the State. A conference on the problem of coloured workers in industry was held at Cincinnati. The National Catholic Welfare Conference, besides trying to lessen the severity of immigration formalities, afforded much practical assistance to migrants in the ports.

The Catholic social movement also made progress in South America.

In the *Argentine Republic* the activities of the Economic and Social Secretariat, set up barely three years ago, now cover the whole country. This organisation operates in 22 dioceses and consists of one national secretariat, ten diocesan secretariats, four regional delegates, and 56 diocesan delegates, ten of whom are members of the Men's Association, while 11 belong to the Federation of Youth, 18 to the Women's League, and 17 to the Girls' Organisation. The Secretariat organised a vast enquiry into the conditions of urban and rural workers and started an intensive propaganda campaign by means of monthly tracts. Under its auspices, a "Culture Week" was held at Santiago-del-Estero, which, for the first time, dealt exclusively with social problems.

On 9 November 1936, a group of Catholic ladies submitted to the President of the Republic a memorandum calling for a long series of urgently needed reforms, particularly with regard to workers' dwellings, minimum wages, and measures for preventing the exploitation of home workers, which is very common.

In *Chile* the League of Clerical Action, at the request of the Archbishop of Santiago, started a preaching campaign in favour of social justice, urging the need for fair rates of pay and condemning speculation and cut-throat competition.

In the same country the Catholic Girls' Association organised lecture courses for women and girls in the country-side. Apart from general education, these courses dealt with domestic training, health and agriculture, the object being to raise the material and moral standards of the rural population.

In *Brazil* there was a considerable increase in the number of courses and lectures on social subjects, and in the activity of social training schools for teachers.

Among the workers' movements, the *Young Christian Workers' Organisation*, known as the "Jociste" movement, which is developing rapidly, is especially worthy of note.

In *Austria*, a Young Christian Workers Organisation (*Christliche Arbeiter-Jugend*) was formed and has branches in four dioceses. In *Hungary* there is now a girls' branch of the movement, which includes 46 groups of young women workers. A similar organisation also exists in *Czechoslovakia*.

In *Canada* the movement is strongly supported by the religious authorities. It has drawn up a programme for the relief of young unemployed persons and a plan for the utilisation of spare time. In the *United States* the movement has been started among Portuguese workers.

In *Colombia* the "Jocistes" held their first National Congress. The movement is developing in several *Brazilian States*. Throughout *Brazil* it is co-operating closely with the adult workers' movement. The *Brazilian Labour Action* (*Accção Trabalhista Brasileira*), which was formed on 7 September 1936, co-ordinates and directs the labour movement throughout the country.

In the *Belgian Congo*, the "Jociste" movement tries to promote thrift among its members and is studying apprenticeship and the remuneration of young persons. In *Northern Africa* a first "Jociste" Week was organised in the neighbourhood of *Algiers* during the month of October. Three sections were set up in *Tunisia* and the first members were recruited in the principal towns of *Morocco*. In *Indo-China* there was a demand among workers for the immediate launching of a "Jociste" movement. In *Japan* this organisation was started in vocational schools.

In *Switzerland* the first National Congress of the "Jociste" organisation was held (*Geneva*, 6 September 1936) to celebrate its second anniversary; it was attended by 5,000 members.

One of the main concerns of the *Belgian*, *British*, *French*, and *Swiss* "Jociste" movements is the prevention of unemployment among young persons on the basis of the Recommendation adopted by the *International Labour Conference* in 1935.

In *Great Britain*, for instance, at *Bristol*, the organisation co-operated actively with private and official organisations to provide board and lodging for young unemployed persons who are destitute.

In *Switzerland* relief centres and hostels were organised for young unemployed persons.

In *Belgium* new labour centres were organised at *Lophem*, *Gemmich*, *Noncevaux*, and *Lorcé*. As a result of press campaigns and public meetings, the Government granted a subsidy of 10 francs per day and per unemployed worker.

In *France* the labour centres and hostels have likewise been developing. A campaign was started on a wide scale to secure higher wages for young persons. Detailed investigations were carried out with this end in view by the young persons themselves in their own neighbourhood, both in *Belgium* and in *France*. The claims of the young workers may be summed up as follows: the raising of the school-leaving age to 16; systematic organisation of vocational guidance and of the placing of young persons; supervision and regulation of apprenticeship, with penalties for contraventions, in every occupation; health protection for apprentices and health supervision for young workers.

Anglican, Orthodox, Protestant, and Old Catholic Churches

During 1936, as in previous years, these Churches were mainly concerned with the problem of the Church in its relation to contemporary society and secular institutions. Considerable attention was however paid to immediate social developments and the responsibility of religious bodies in this respect. While these activities are chiefly noticeable in the *United States*, there is no country in which these Churches have not been concerned in one way or another with social developments affecting their members both nationally and internationally.

Universal Christian Council for Life and Work. — During its Session held at Chamby-sur-Montreux, (Switzerland) from 21 to 25 August 1936, this Council, in which the Anglican, Orthodox, Protestant, and Old Catholic Churches are officially represented, dealt mainly with the preparatory work for the Universal Conference of Churches which will be held under its auspices at Oxford from 12 to 26 July 1937, when the relations of "Church, State and society" are to be discussed. This general subject is considered from an economic and international point of view:

"If the Church is to meet the needs of modern man", states the Universal Council in a pamphlet intended for delegates, "it should have something to say on what we believe to be the real problems of life The greatest risk we run is that of under-estimating the importance of the mental revolution we must accomplish. It is only if we are profoundly discontented with what we have already achieved that we can acquire a new outlook and a new sense of our mission Our first duty is to listen not only to the opinions and statements with which we are in agreement, but also to those which strike us as odd and distasteful In the face of dire human needs and a conflict of elementary beliefs in which all that is essential to humanity is at stake, no one who has any feeling or understanding can bear the idea of a conference which would waste its time in mere talk and theory. The only justification for this Conference is that it should lead up to a decision and end in action"

"The question as to what action the Church can take in political and social matters is one of the most important which the Conference will have to consider. . . . It is to be hoped that the prayers and discussions of the Conference will afford the Church as a whole some guidance and useful advice as to the form that action should take and the direction in which it should tend."

Further, acting in close co-operation with the Management Committee of the World Alliance for International Friendship through the churches, the Universal Council urged, at the same session, that a new world conference should be held which would "bring under impartial survey the economic grievances and other inequities out of which the anxieties and fears of nations grow and which account in large measure for the fateful race in armaments".

"We urge that the League of Nations, acting in conjunction with those States not included in its membership, should convene, after due preparation but at the earliest practicable date, a world conference on these subjects, open to all States. Protective tariffs and financial obstacles to world trade, inability to obtain raw materials and an outlet for surplus populations, and the future administration of colonial possessions and mandated territories would necessarily be among the subjects with which such a conference should

deal. As regards the colonial problem, we hold strongly that a primary consideration should be the welfare of the races who inhabit the territories concerned.

"We recognise that a special responsibility rests on the Christian Churches in this hour. Hence we ask that the Churches urge upon their several Governments the necessity for such a world conference, whether convened by the League of Nations or under other auspices. Each of our National Councils should take early action in this matter."

The Universal Council also confirmed the interest it took in calendar reform and the fixing of Easter Sunday and in the forthcoming international discussions with regard to this question.

Finally, the programme of the third Universal Seminary (Geneva, 28 July-15 August 1936), organised under the auspices of the Council, included lectures on Christian social ethics and their application to the economic situation, and a course on contemporary social policy. This Seminary was attended by representatives from 16 countries.

The Federal Council of the Church of Christ in America. — In 1936 this large American ecclesiastical federation followed with close attention the development of the industrial and social situation. At the Biennial Assembly of the Federal Council (Asbury Park, New Jersey, 9-11 December 1936) the commission charged with deciding what problems should be placed on the programme for the next two years' activity presented, under the title "The Situation of the Church", a report in which it drew special attention to the pressing demand of the masses for a greater measure of economic security and a more equitable distribution of economic power. This report contains certain facts which should serve as an encouragement to the Church to be more logical in the social domain. In this connection, it points to the close relation which exists between the economic system and the needs of the individual, and to the necessity of subordinating this system to the rules of morality; even from the point of view of the end which it is desired to attain, the choice of means is of the greatest importance.

The programme relating to problems of world peace which was adopted by the same Assembly mentions particularly the extension of commercial agreements as a means of reducing the economic tension at present prevailing throughout the world.

Even in the sphere of social policy several questions occupied the attention of the leading members of the Federal Council. Part of the editorial of the *Federal Council Bulletin* for May 1936 is devoted to the Social Security Act. This new piece of legislation which, as the editor writes, still requires improvement, nevertheless constitutes "a major advance in which Christians of social vision rightly rejoice". The editorial continues: "To develop an intelligent interest in and study of the Social Security Act is an important educational service which Church agencies can render. The only way in which the law may become an effective means of mitigating the wholesale misery of economic depressions and the ever-haunting spectres of unemployment, illness and old-age is through an informed and alert public opinion,

which the churches can greatly help to create." The review *Social Action*, edited by the Council for Social Action of the Congregational and Christian Churches, contains most interesting documentation on these problems, and is worthy of special mention here.

In its *Message to the Churches*, delivered on the occasion of "Labour Sunday", the Executive Committee of the Federal Council stated, in September, its conviction that it was impossible for the Christian conscience to accept prevailing social inequalities, and that the Christian must look the harsh facts in the face. "We cannot merely look the other way", declares this Message, "and we can never be at rest until we have set in motion redeeming social purposes which can change old facts to new ones, juster, fairer and more kind. Our danger to-day is that the discontent with social and economic evils which these recent tragic years have roused may try to satisfy itself with soft compromise . . ." Leading members of the Council further drew attention to the possibilities inherent in the co-operative movement. It was under the auspices of the Council that a seminary for the study of the consumers' co-operative movement was held at the beginning of 1936 in Indianapolis. This seminary declared that the Churches and religious organisations found in the co-operative movement certain elements of great importance, to which more attention should be given.

Finally, the Federal Council has on several occasions collaborated in common action with Roman Catholic and Jewish ecclesiastical organisations. On the occasion of the strike in the General Motors Corporation works, for instance, the Council indicated both to the workers and to the employers that it adhered firmly to the principle of collective negotiation. In the field of housing an inter-ecclesiastical campaign was conducted in New York in favour of the demolition of slum dwellings, at whatever cost. An appeal was addressed to the municipal, State and Federal authorities throughout the country, asking them immediately to draw up a programme providing for the construction of houses for the millions of American citizens without adequate accommodation.

South American Congress of the Evangelical Methodist Church.—The Fourth South American Congress of the Evangelical Methodist Church (Buenos Aires, February 1936), brought together delegates from Argentina, Bolivia, Chile, Peru and Uruguay. The Congress issued several declarations regarding the attitude of the Evangelical Methodist Church in South America towards social movements. Several of its recommendations relate to labour problems and note, among other things, the necessity for a more equitable organisation of the production and distribution of wealth; the Congress supported the trade union movement.

In *Great Britain* the Consultative Commission of the Industrial Christian Fellowship—an organisation related to the Anglican Church—expressed its satisfaction at the Government's intention

to revise the law relating to industrial labour, and called, with the support of an informed public opinion, for the rapid execution of the project in order to put an end to the grave evils at present prevailing. In particular, in a resolution carried on 13 November 1936, this organisation declared that the Christian conscience could never be satisfied until a new Bill was introduced establishing a maximum working week of 40 hours for adolescents between 14 and 18 years of age, and of 48 hours for women; prohibiting all overtime work for adolescents and regulating it strictly for women; raising to 15 the minimum age of admission to industrial employment; and laying down much stricter standards for the health and welfare of workers.

As regards the *Greek Orthodox Church*, the First Congress of Orthodox Theologians (Athens, 29 November-5 December 1936) gave its consideration to the subject of the responsibility of the Church in the social domain.

International Christian Organisations

The Twenty-first World Conference of the *World Alliance of Young Men's Christian Associations* (Mysore, India, 2-10 January 1937) was attended by about 250 delegates from 30 countries. The Conference discussed the responsibilities of the Christian Associations in the social and international spheres. It affirmed the attachment of the Associations to the social ideal of the Gospel which upholds brotherhood, the spirit of service, co-operation and love, as against the present practices of *laissez-faire*, profit, competition and coercion in economic life. It recommended the constitution of special study groups on social and economic questions. As regards the international field, the Conference asked for the re-establishment of the Committee on International Relations, dependent upon the World Committee, and approved a resolution asking that the World Committee should supply the national Associations with information on international problems and should indicate to them, when the occasion arises, possible lines of action. The Conference drew the special attention of the Associations to the tragic situation of the unemployed and especially of young men out of work. It called upon the Associations to intensify their work of mutual assistance, especially in the direction of finding remunerative positions for the unemployed and useful occupations for persons undergoing prolonged periods of forced idleness.

The Executive Committee of the *World Alliance of Young Women's Christian Associations* held a session (Kandy, Ceylon, 29 October-6 November 1936) at which delegates from 23 countries were present, Asia being particularly strongly represented. As regards juvenile unemployment, the Committee noted that the minimum age for admission to employment, fixed by the international Conventions at 14 years, was disregarded in several

Asiatic countries and that the resulting situation was having a harmful effect upon the conditions of employment of adults; in view of this fact, the Committee felt that a closer contact between Asiatic countries and the International Labour Organisation, and between the national associations in Asia and the Correspondents of the International Labour Office in that continent, appeared necessary. It was also felt that efforts should be made towards increasing the participation of women in the work of the International Labour Conference.

Among the other questions discussed in 1936 by the Social and Industrial Section of the World Committee of the Alliance figured the questions of unemployment, domestic employment, the status of women, and certain aspects of the problem of migration.

INFORMATION

In the course of 1936, as in preceding years, a number of lectures on questions relating to the activity of the International Labour Organisation were given in several countries by officials and Correspondents of the International Labour Office, either in the normal course of their missions for the Office or their annual leave, or in response to special requests. Members of the Office staff also took part in courses of study and meetings organised by the International Union of Associations for the League of Nations and its national branches, e.g. the British League of Nations Union, by the Geneva Institute of International Relations, and by the Workers' Educational Association of Great Britain.

The Office also frequently received visits from delegates to congresses and members of various associations, who were given information concerning the activity of the Organisation.

THE PRESS AND PUBLIC OPINION

In 1936, as in the previous year, an almost uninterrupted succession of grave political events kept public opinion constantly in suspense and filled the pages of the newspapers. Nevertheless, the interest taken by the press in the work of the International Labour Organisation not only did not decrease but actually became more lively.

Several causes contributed to this development.

First of all, a general cause: although the grip of the depression is relaxing, its effects have not been forgotten, and the social problems whose acuteness it has revealed still retain their urgency.

Among the particular causes the principal, no doubt, was the large number of meetings called by the Organisation during 1936. Besides the ordinary General Session of the International Labour Conference, the year saw one, or rather two, Maritime Sessions as well as technical tripartite meetings held to study the question of

the reduction of hours of work in certain industries, as well as the Conference of Santiago-de-Chile mentioned in the *I.L.O. Year-Book 1935-36*. The discussions of the Maritime Conference and its success naturally found persistent echo in the journals of large ports all over the world. As for the technical meetings of the printing and chemical industries, they were, in some sense, continuations of the discussions of the General Conference on the 40-hour week, and thus helped to keep this question to the fore.

The questions of the 40-hour week and annual holidays with pay, which were also on the Agenda of the General Conference, were even more "topical", and consequently "journalistic", owing to the legislation adopted in various countries, particularly France and Belgium.

There can be no doubt that these specialised meetings—whether maritime conferences or technical tripartite meetings—obtained for the work of the Organisation a greater hearing in a number of trade organs which are accustomed to devote their attention chiefly to the technical aspects of every question.

From the geographical point of view, moreover, the Labour Conference of Santiago-de-Chile, followed by the convocation of the Textile Conference in Washington at the invitation of the President of the United States, certainly helped to spread, through the press of the whole American continent, a better knowledge of the International Labour Organisation.

The studies, investigations and statistics of the Office were, as in previous years, the object of the curiosity, sometimes impatient but nearly always sympathetic, of journalists seeking precise information on social movements and the development of the economic situation.

In 1936 the number of visitors—that is to say, of persons passing through Geneva who come to "see" the Office—rose to about 78,000, or 4,000 more than in 1935. They were welcomed by the Reception Service, which is conducted by an official with the collaboration of temporary assistants and gives visitors general explanations about the activity of the Organisation, while showing them over the principal rooms of the Office. In the case of organised groups of visitors, talks on those aspects of the work which are of special interest to them are arranged whenever possible.

The Office once again benefited by the help of the Geneva Correspondence Office of the League of Nations Association of the United States, which from July to September kindly lent the services of guides charged particularly with the reception of visitors coming from the United States. This service received about 6,000 visitors.

In the field of visual publicity a new series of graphs, maps, mural charts, etc., showing certain aspects of the work of the Office, was prepared in 1936. This material has been used chiefly for exhibitions.

The Office is also continuing work on a film which will serve as a general introduction to the work of the International Labour Organisation.

Thanks to the official wireless station of the League of Nations and to the co-operation of national wireless bodies which provided the desired local relays, the Office organised again in 1936 several wireless broadcasts for distant countries. During the Twentieth and Twenty-first Sessions of the Conference the delegates of the Governments, employers and workers of Argentina, Australia, Brazil, Japan, and the United States were able to communicate directly to the public of their respective countries their impressions regarding the Conference and its results. The Director and certain members of the staff of the Office also took part in these broadcasts, and the activity of the International Labour Organisation periodically finds a place in the weekly wireless bulletins of the League of Nations.

In European countries, e.g. in Belgium, Czechoslovakia, France, Great Britain, Hungary, Luxemburg, Spain, Sweden, and Switzerland, broadcasts on the work done by the International Labour Organisation continue to figure in the programmes of the different stations. As in the past the Paris Branch Office provides, through the Eiffel Tower station, daily items which are relayed by the other official French stations. Finally, from the Geneva station short addresses are still given regularly by members of the Office staff, which are relayed from the French-speaking Swiss national station of Sottens.

CHAPTER I

ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENTS

Judged by the general standards of economic activity 1936 was a year of great improvement. Throughout the world production was on a higher level, both quantitatively and from the point of view of profitability. Countries which as late as 1935 were still in the trough of the depression finally succeeded in emerging, at least to some extent, into a phase of increasing activity. General indices of production are, however, scarcely an adequate criterion of prosperity. In the first place, the phenomenon of chronic mass unemployment has not completely disappeared. Not only is the volume of total unemployment some 25-50 per cent. above the 1929 level, but in certain countries there are clearly defined groups which have remained untouched by the general improvement. The fact that the quantum of international trade remained some 15 per cent. below the 1929 level furnishes a partial explanation of this failure. Certain of the recovery features, moreover, are double-edged. The rapid rise in the prices of raw materials, whilst contributing to the prosperity of the main producing countries, is already threatening manufacturing countries with an unwelcome rise in industrial costs and holds out the possibility of a dangerous reaction at a later stage. Furthermore, the favourable picture of recovery as a whole is modified to no small extent by the fact that national economies have, in varying degree, come to be dependent on policies of hurried rearmament. This dependence, it is true, is of decisive importance in but two or three countries; elsewhere the influence of rearmament is less dominating. But the fact remains that expansion is unhealthy to the extent that it is based on the special demand created by abnormal defence measures¹.

THE MEASURE OF RECOVERY ²

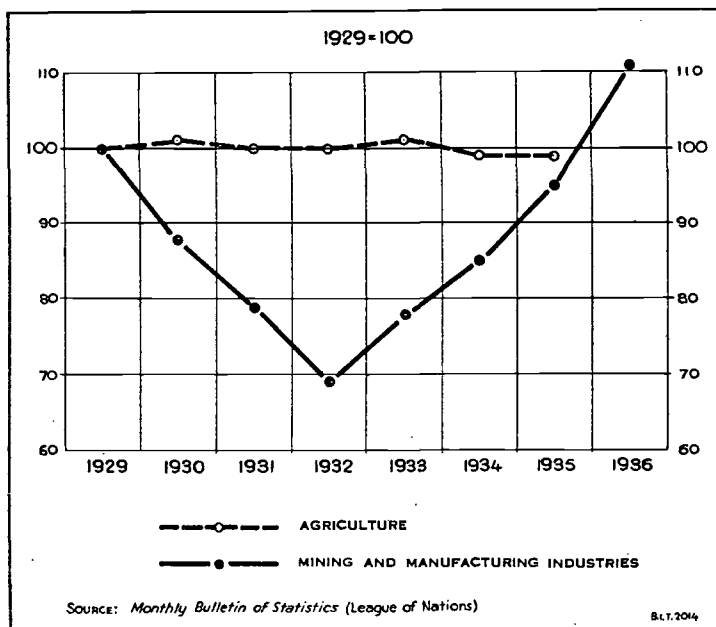
World indices of production, unemployment, and international trade are shown in Figures I to III. It will be seen that the output of

¹ For a fuller discussion of this point, cf. INTERNATIONAL LABOUR CONFERENCE, *Report of the Director*, 1937, pp. 16-19.

² For a more detailed study, reference should be made to the *World Economic Survey*, published by the Economic Intelligence Service of the League of Nations.

agricultural products has remained practically unchanged throughout the whole period 1929-1935. Manufacturing production, which during the depression declined more than 30 per cent., is now well above the 1929 level. Unemployment has declined continuously since 1932 to approximately the 1930 level¹. The quantum² of world trade is still far below the 1929 figure, the rise in 1936 being only some 4 per cent. In the great majority of countries

FIG. I. — INDICES OF WORLD PRODUCTION



both wholesale prices and the cost of living advanced, the typical rise being between 5 and 10 per cent. for wholesale prices and rather less than 5 per cent. for the cost of living. This rise continued at an accelerated rate in the early months of 1937. As regards primary products, the reduction to normal of stocks which had hitherto depressed the market enabled considerable increases in price to be maintained.

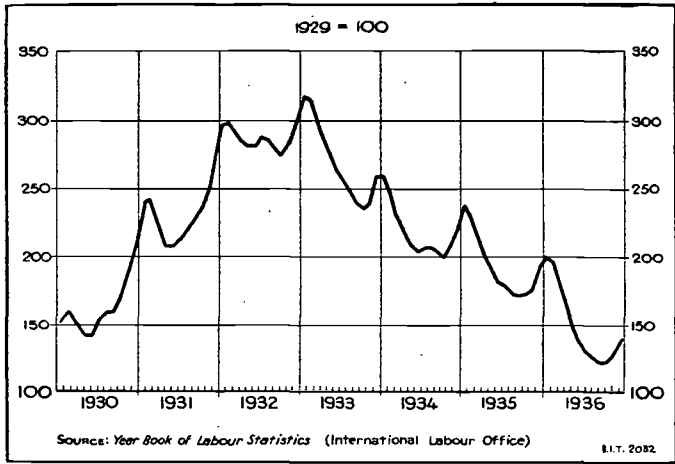
¹ For a detailed survey of unemployment during 1936, see below, Chapter V, under "Unemployment".

² Gold value of world trade divided by the index of gold prices of commodities entering into world trade.

Increase in Industrial Production

Figure IV presents indices of industrial production for 12 representative countries, divided roughly into three groups: countries

FIG. II. — INTERNATIONAL INDEX OF UNEMPLOYMENT



where expansionist policies were adopted relatively early and where the production index is already above the 1929 level; countries where the depression was on the whole more severely felt,

FIG. III. — INDICES OF INTERNATIONAL TRADE

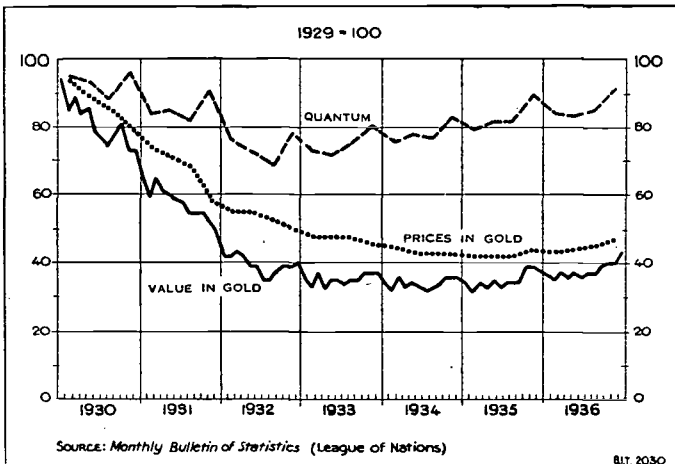
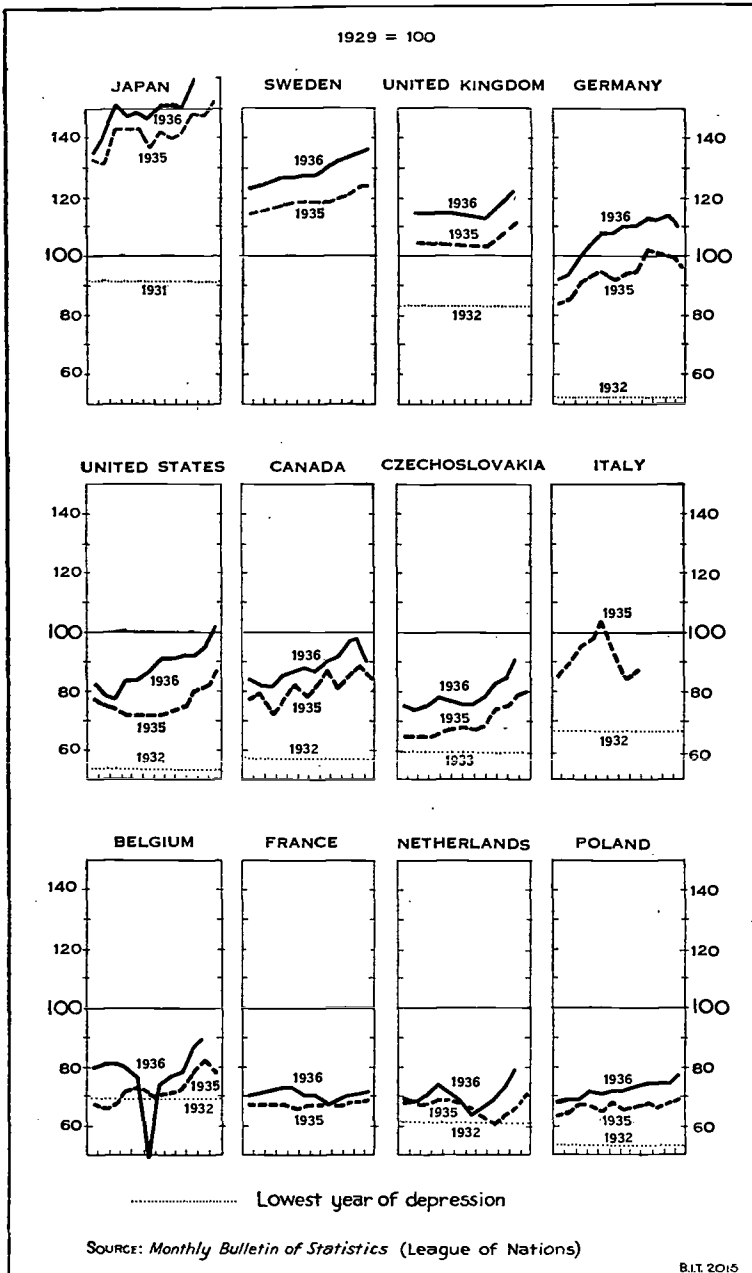


FIG. IV. — INDICES OF INDUSTRIAL PRODUCTION ¹



¹ Sweden: data for lowest year of depression not available; Italy: no data published since August 1935; France: lowest year of depression 1935.

where expansionist measures were adopted at a rather later stage, and where the 1929 level has not been passed; and countries which pursued a deflationary policy late into the depression and where recovery is still in the initial stages. Such a classification is, necessarily, exceedingly general, and conceals a wide variety of individual differences. It tends also perhaps to overstress the monetary aspect; for although the fundamental rôle of monetary policy in national economy cannot be denied, allowance must also be made for other factors, in particular the degree to which effort has been consciously diverted towards rearmament or self-sufficiency or to which unusually favourable export conditions influence industry as a whole.

Recovery continued to be characterised by a rapid increase in the production of investment goods (see Figure V). In some countries, this increase may be attributed in large part to armament production. Generally, however, the influence of rearmament, though considerable, was not the decisive factor in the expansion of investment, which would have taken place in any case in the increasingly profitable state of industry. The enormous advance in the U.S.S.R. will be noted; on balance, production surpassed the figures laid down in the various plans, but the coal, oil, non-ferrous metals, timber, and flax industries failed to fulfil their quotas. Total industrial production for 1936 showed an increase of 28.4 per cent. over 1935, as compared with an increase of 23 per cent. provided for in the plan for the year. The increased output was in large measure a reflection of the improved productivity of Soviet industry; during the first eleven months of 1936 productivity increased in relation to the same period of 1935 by 25.5 per cent. in heavy industry, by 21.0 per cent. in light industry, and by 16.2 per cent. in the food industry.

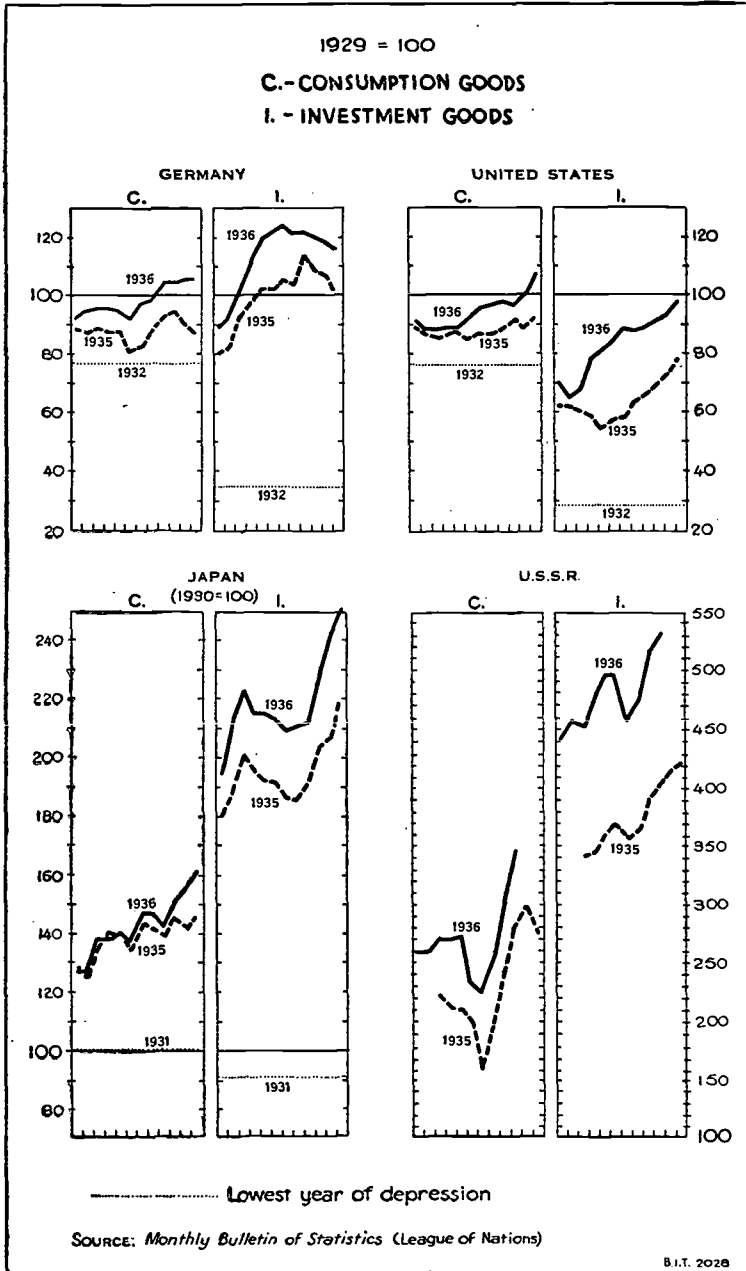
Details of the production in certain countries in the motor-car, building, coal, iron and steel, and textile industries are given in the table on page 48. The remarkable recovery in the iron and steel industry in Germany, the United States, Czechoslovakia, and the United Kingdom will be noted.

Rise in Prices

In most countries the upward tendency of wholesale prices and the cost of living continued at a gradual rate (see Figures VI and VII; the countries chosen for illustration are the same as those in Figure IV). A sharp increase towards the end of 1936 is noticeable in most cases, that in France being the most marked.

In Figure VIII are shown the price movements in recent years of certain important commodities. It will be seen that the prices of foodstuffs are still mainly below the 1929 level, whereas those of the raw materials of industry have to some extent recovered their former position—the prices of the non-ferrous metals and of rubber have, indeed, risen even more sharply during the first quarter of 1937. In general, the tendency to reduce the gap between

FIG. V. — INDICES OF THE PRODUCTION OF CONSUMPTION GOODS AND INVESTMENT GOODS



INDICES OF PRODUCTION OF CERTAIN INDUSTRIES
(1929 = 100)

Industry	GERMANY						BELGIUM						UNITED STATES						
	1935		1936		1937		1935		1936		1937		1935		1936		1937		
	Jan.	July	Jan.	July	Jan.	July	Jan.	July	Jan.	July	Jan.	July	Jan.	July	Jan.	July	Jan.	July	
Motor-car	111.3	169.8	153.5	193.3	170.0														
{ Apartments	35.4	74.4	53.1	107.2	63.0														
{ Industrial,						59.6	117.9	80.6	101.7										
{ etc..	56.1	107.3	74.1	140.2		100	100	113	111	110	110	110	84	51	88	71	89		
Coal	85	88	100	98	109														
Pig-iron and ferro-alloys	80	99	116	119	117	74	78	81	75	85	85	85	42	43	57	74	91		
Steel	84	107	117	127	113	72	75	80	73	84	84	84	63	50	67	87	105		
Textile	100.8	96.3	100.8	105.4	99.9	59.0	72.1	86.2	60.9	93.4	93.4	93.4	89.6	91.3	91.3	100.0	107.8		
Industry	FRANCE						UNITED KINGDOM						CZECHOSLOVAKIA						
	1935		1936		1937		1935		1936		1937		1935		1936		1937		
	Jan.	July	Jan.	July	Jan.	July	Jan.	July	Jan.	July	Jan.	July	Jan.	July	Jan.	July	Jan.	July	
Motor-car	61.5	62.7	65.1	63.6	84.0														
Building	61.8	52.8	55.3	52.8	49.6	196.3	167.8	209.0	198.4	226.5	226.5	226.5	34.4	76.7	22.6	70.6			
Coal	90	84	91	87	81	141.3	168.5	152.1	178.0	131.0	131.0	131.0	68	59	73	67	90		
Pig-iron and ferro-alloys	59	56	59	60	68	95	81	100	85	91	91	91	44	46	46	65	90		
Steel	61	67	69	67	75	82	86	94	105	103	103	103	49	55	60	68	102		
Textile	66.3	72.8	77.2	63.0	77.2	98.0 ²	93.4 ³	103.0 ²	99.6 ³	—	—	—	64.8	68.6	89.0	85.2	100.4		

¹ Without the Saar.

² Figure for first quarter.

³ Figure for third quarter.

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

industrial and agrarian prices, already noted in 1935¹, continued during 1936.

International Trade

A comparison of the position of some of the principal countries from the point of view of international trade is made in Figure IX. Improvement over 1935 is to be seen in Japan, the United States, and Canada, although in Japan the rate of increase in the value of exports fell off during the greater part of the year, due to some extent, perhaps, to the trade war with Australia, which terminated only at the very end of the year. Both in Germany and France the value of international trade in national currency remains exceedingly low; the improvement in the French position at the end of the year—and similarly in that of the Netherlands and Switzerland—is, of course, mainly the statistical reflection of the devaluation, although the volume of these countries' external trade at this period also showed a slight increase over the same period of 1935.

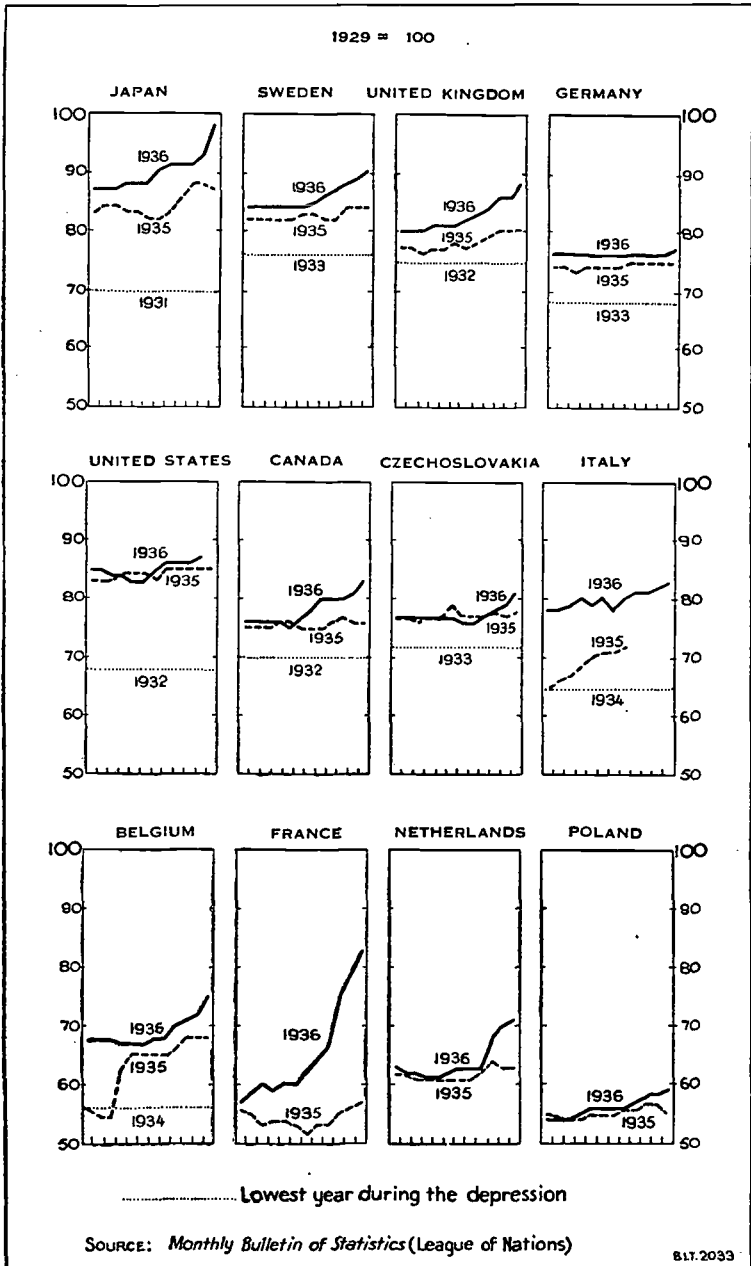
MEASURES ADOPTED

With the advent of at least partial recovery, the possibility of international economic co-operation—which, since the setback of the World Monetary and Economic Conference in 1933, had completely vanished—again came within sight. The year was marked also by an increasing realisation of the importance of monetary management and of the vital need for an improvement in international trade.

Anglo-French-American Agreement

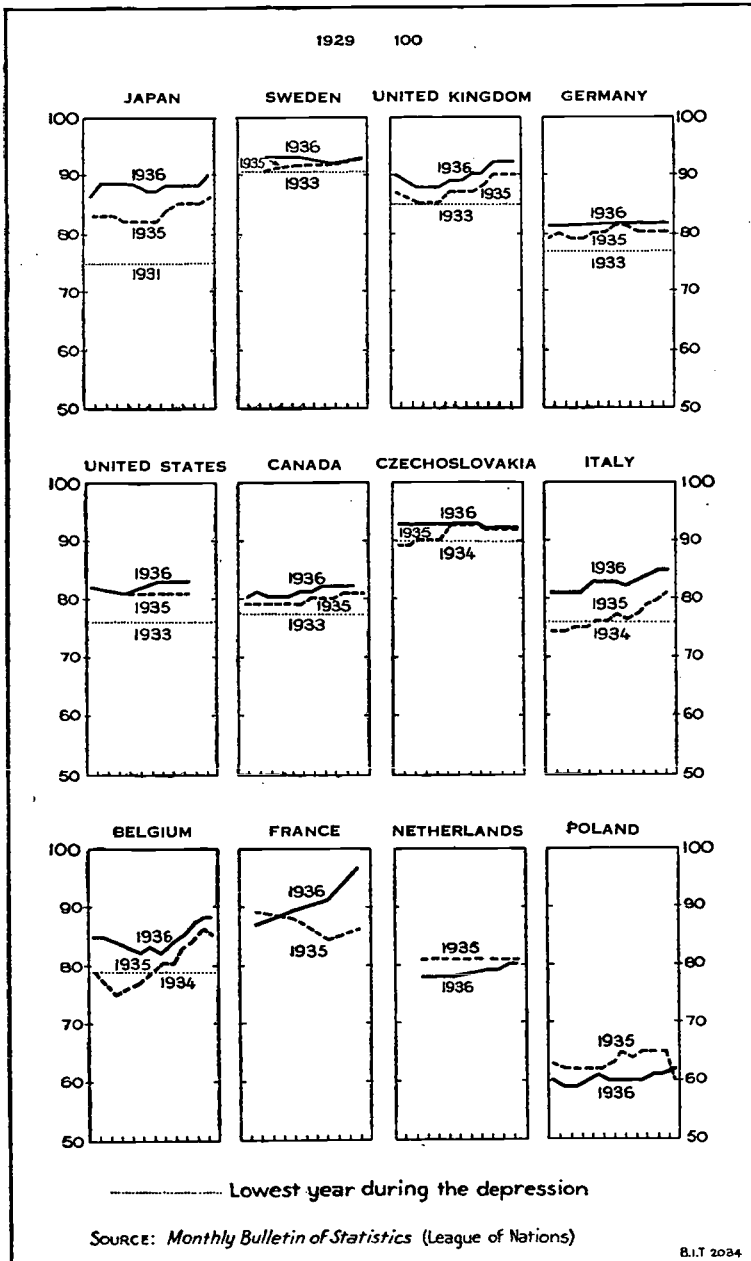
The manner in which the final collapse of the gold bloc came about was, perhaps, the most significant thing that has happened in the economic world since Great Britain left the gold standard in 1931. On 26 September 1936, the Governments of France, Great Britain, and the United States issued a statement that they were agreed "in affirming a common desire to foster those conditions which will safeguard peace and will best contribute to the restoration of order in international economic relations, and to pursue a policy which will tend to promote prosperity in the world and to improve the standard of living". The agreement went on to declare that, following the depreciation of the franc, the respective Governments would "continue to use the appropriate available resources so as to avoid as far as possible any disturbance of the basis of international exchanges resulting from the proposed readjustments". Finally, it emphasised that "the success of the policy set forth above is linked with the development of international trade. In particular, they (the Governments) attach the

¹ Cf. *I.L.O. Year Book 1935-36*, p. 42.

FIG. VI. — INDICES OF WHOLESALE PRICES ¹

¹ Italy: Data for last four months of 1935 not available.

FIG. VII. — INDICES OF THE COST OF LIVING ¹



¹ In a number of countries (Czechoslovakia, France, Japan, Netherlands, Poland) the data are for the principal towns only.

greatest importance to action being taken without delay to relax progressively the present system of quotas and exchange controls with a view of their abolition ”.

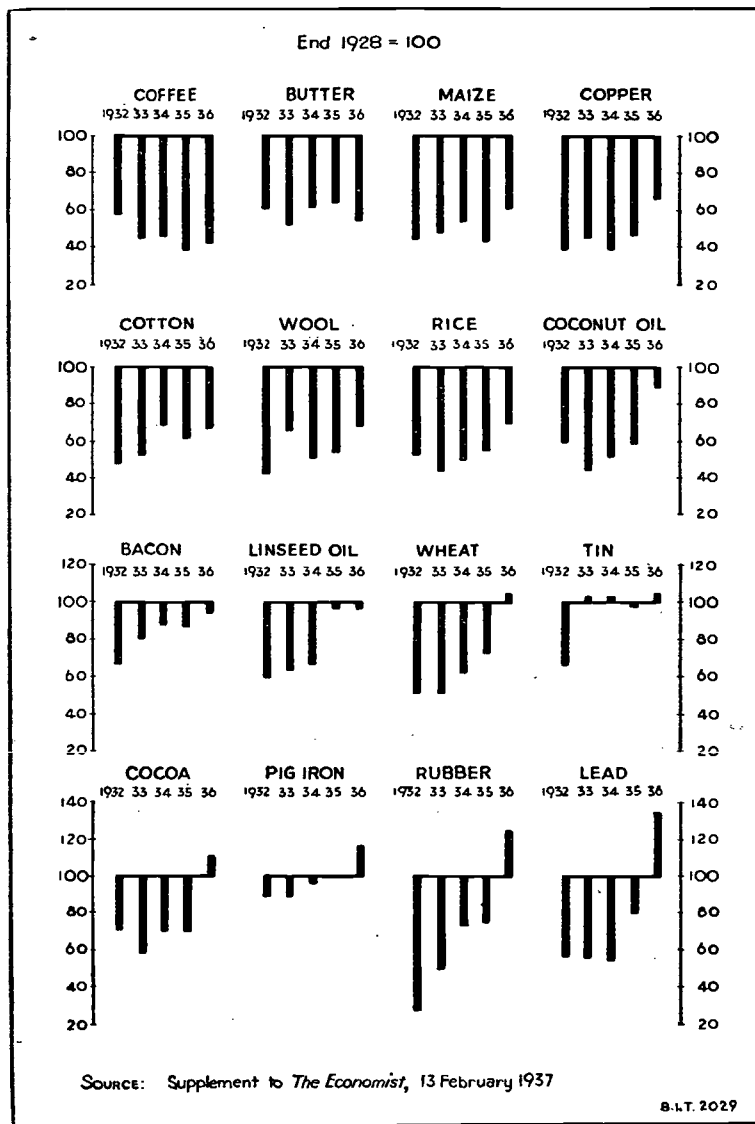
The possibility of a world system of managed exchanges, working with the smoothness of the gold standard but avoiding that standard's drastic effects upon internal credit and prices, is, perhaps, still remote. The general readjustment of tariffs and quotas referred to in the declaration has not been realised; neither are the implications of a stable sterling-franc-dollar exchange for such matters as national bank rate policy clearly formulated. But the care taken by the Governments concerned to avoid any possibility of a new currency war, to say nothing of the psychological relief that an intolerable situation had been ended without the dreaded domestic panic, was a welcome sign in an increasingly competitive and nervous world.

State Intervention

The gradual approach to conditions of prosperity, associated for the main part with conscious State interference in the economic system, has not resulted in a return to pre-depression individualism. On the contrary, the fact that this interference has in most cases been chronologically followed by revival has appreciably encouraged what is loosely described as economic planning. It was the depression which first forced the Governments to experiment in emergency control, and their efforts, although often somewhat arbitrary, nevertheless reflected their feeling of positive responsibility in the face of the economic destitution of their peoples. So far as can be seen, State economic action on a wide and probably increasing scale has become a permanent feature of the modern industrial community.

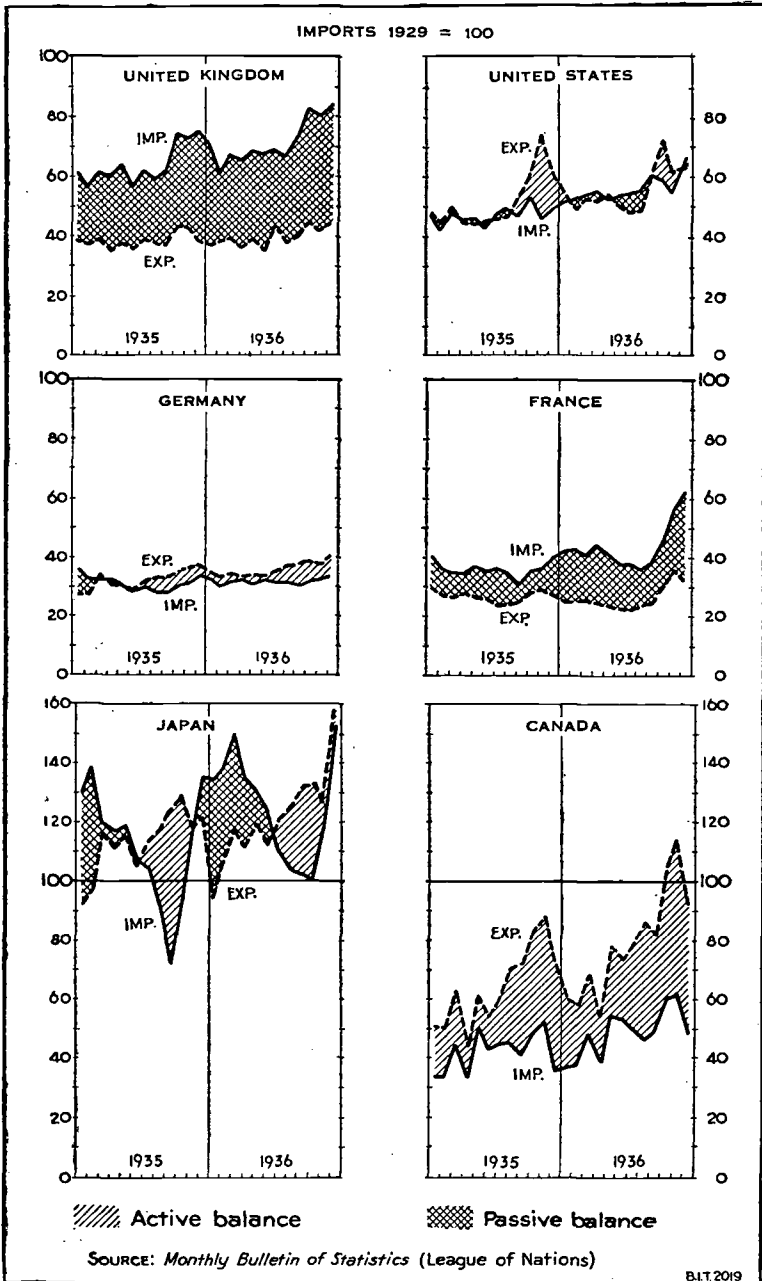
In the U.S.S.R., where the problems are in the main those of the realisation of a detailed plan of production and distribution rather than of the guidance and adjustment of spontaneous activity, various measures were introduced for the control of output and profitability and the organisation of distribution and sale. By a Decree published on 16 July 1936, the four industrial Commissariats of the Union (heavy industry, light industry, food, and timber), which had hitherto been concerned essentially with questions of production, were charged with responsibilities of distribution and sale formerly undertaken by special bureaux or by the various trusts. Measures are being taken to strengthen control over the quality and diversity of industrial products. Steps were also taken to reorganise the funds set up for the payment of bonuses and the improvement of the living conditions of the workers. The new Constitution of 5 December 1936 set up a Commissariat of the Industry of Defence to control production of the appropriate industries throughout the territory of the Union.

FIG. VIII. — STERLING PRICES OF IMPORTANT COMMODITIES



In the rest of the world the outstanding event of 1936 from the point of view of economic organisation was the German Four-Year Plan introduced on 18 October 1936. This Plan provides for the creation by 1940 of a self-contained economic system, which it is hoped will render irrelevant many of the present problems of exchange and foreign trade. The main features of the programme

FIG. IX. — INDICES OF VALUE OF INTERNATIONAL TRADE
(Value in national currency)



include the manufacture of substitutes for imported natural products such as petrol, wool and rubber, the stimulation of the production of domestic raw materials, the conservation and adaptation of old materials, and particular economy in the consumption of food. The necessary capital expenditure is being financed mainly by Government-guaranteed bills, which are to be redeemed from time to time by means of long-term borrowing. Markets for the products of the new industries at prices covering the cost of production (including interest and amortisation) and a suitable profit are to be guaranteed by the State for periods of from five to ten years.

The Plan represents, of course, an intensification of the process of industrial control¹ entailed by Germany's desire to create an effective "defence economy" (*Wehrwirtschaft*) rather than a revolutionary innovation. But its implications are far-reaching. Control of retail prices has for some years been a feature of German economy, as has the prohibition of industrial expansion in spheres not considered vital by the State². The Four-Year Plan involves new methods of production, greater working costs, more rigid supervision of activity, and, ultimately, increasing control of consumption. To this end direction of production has been unified; the Price Commissioner has been empowered to fix prices for goods and services of every kind; and the so-called "accounting cartels" are being developed in an endeavour to secure a uniform relation between costs and market prices. Control of this nature over the form of production and the ultimate price clearly involves more than the tentative steps of the last three years. The effect on the consumer can already be seen in the fact that, although the rise in the cost-of-living index has during 1936 been confined to one per cent.³, rationing of meat and fats is a measure officially recognised from 1 January 1937.

In France and in New Zealand sweeping reforms have been made, amounting in the aggregate to a fairly complete reorganisation of the social-economic system in those countries. In France the reform of the Central Bank, the taking-over of the armaments industry, and the enactments incidental to the application of the

¹ Actual State ownership of undertakings is not sought after except as an emergency measure. During 1936 the State sold holdings in the Hamburg-Südamerikanische Dampfschiffahrtsgesellschaft and Deutsche Schiff- und Maschinenbau A. G. concerns, the Deutsche Bank und Diskontogesellschaft, the Commerz- und Privatbank, the Stahlverein and certain other less important concerns.

² It has been estimated that in 1935 Government orders accounted for two-thirds of total expenditure on investment goods, as against one-fifth of the total in 1928. (U. K. DEPT. OF OVERSEAS TRADE: *Economic Conditions in Germany*, 1936, p. 4). According to the Institut für Konjunkturforschung, the ratio of public loan issues to private industrial issues (shares and debentures) has fundamentally changed; during the expanding period of 1926-1929 this ratio was 0.55 to 1, whilst during the present State-induced revival it became 5.5 to 1 (*Wochenbericht*, 27 January, 1937, p. 20).

³ Effective prices, however, are alleged by the *Deutsche Volkwirtschaft* (No. 31, 1 November 1936) to have risen appreciably.

40-hour week were among the most important of these measures. In New Zealand Central Bank legislation and the 40-hour week also figured prominently, but the outstanding measure was the provision for Government acquisition at a guaranteed price of dairy produce intended for export¹.

Elsewhere the technique of State industrial organisation during 1936 differed very much from country to country. The simpler forms, such as subsidies or technical assistance, involved little that was new. The various methods of controlling output, such as the prescription of rigid quotas or the destruction of surplus products (e.g. the Brazilian "sacrifice" quota of 30 per cent. for coffee during 1936-1937), were increasingly supplemented by the direct prohibition of investment in so-called saturated industries; apart from Germany, this latter system was especially in evidence in Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia and Greece. Compulsory industrial reorganisation, either on a corporate or on a cartel basis, was favoured in varying degrees by Czechoslovakia, Italy, Japan, Latvia, and Portugal; Poland, on the other hand, undertook a vigorous attack on industrial cartels with a view to reducing prices on the internal market by an average of 15 per cent. In Australia, Canada, and the United States the endeavour to institute a large-scale control of industry was held up by the difficulties inherent in federal constitutions. In Mexico further progress in the carrying-out of the Six-Year Plan of December 1933 was recorded. In the Irish Free State the adoption of the Conditions of Employment Act marked an important stage in the economic organisation of the country.

Pric-fixing was an increasingly popular governmental weapon, partly as a mechanism incidental to the control of production and partly as a safeguard against undue rises in the cost of living. Measures of the first type were undertaken by Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, Japan, Portugal, and Turkey and of the second type by Czechoslovakia, New Zealand, Turkey, and most of the former gold-bloc countries. On the other hand, the abandonment of official prices for certain products is to be noted in the case of several countries which have benefited from the rise in agricultural prices.

Financial Policy

The financial implications of the Anglo-French-American Agreement have already been indicated. On a national scale, financial policy was directed mostly towards taking advantage of the universally favourable credit conditions to convert existing indebtedness to lower rates of interest or to float new loans for public works. The rapid increase in activity led most of the countries which had in the past encouraged budget deficits to adopt, or at

¹ For further details of the measures taken in these two countries, cf. INTERNATIONAL LABOUR CONFERENCE, *Report of the Director, 1937*, pp. 77-80.

least to work towards, a policy of financing expenditure out of revenue, but a number of countries, notably Germany and Japan, continued to engage in large-scale borrowing for current needs. Stock markets were generally active, although the Amsterdam, Brussels, and Paris bourses remained depressed during the first nine months of the year. A striking rise in share values took place, accentuated in the former gold-standard countries by the devaluation in September (see Figure X).

In London the capital market was active, but the volume of new capital issued publicly during 1936—£255.7 million—, whilst some two and a half times as large as the total for 1931, the worst year of depression, was only two-thirds that of 1928¹. Total issues in the United States amounted to 6,255 million dollars as against 4,752 million dollars in 1935; of these amounts, new capital, as distinct from refunding, accounted for 1,986 million dollars and 1,412 million dollars respectively². Loans to foreign countries continued to be almost negligible in both centres.

Deliberate credit creation, having served its purpose, is now being discouraged in a number of countries. Precautionary restrictive measures are already in operation in the United States, where, following a 10 per cent. increase in the gold reserve and a large influx of foreign short-term capital, the Treasury took steps to increase the reserve requirements of the member banks. In Great Britain, where expansion had been effected by banking policy and not by Government expenditure, official policy appears to favour the maintenance of cheap money rates. Fear has already been expressed, however, that the continuance of these rates might contain the germs of a serious credit crisis, characterised by the familiar "vicious spiral" of rising wages and rising cost of living³. In Sweden the special Government borrowing during the depression with the object of reinforcing effective demand has been discontinued and the loans have been repaid. In these and other countries there is a growing recognition that the problem is now one of transforming the more or less crude measures of expansion into a permanent technique of monetary adjustment.

Commercial Policy

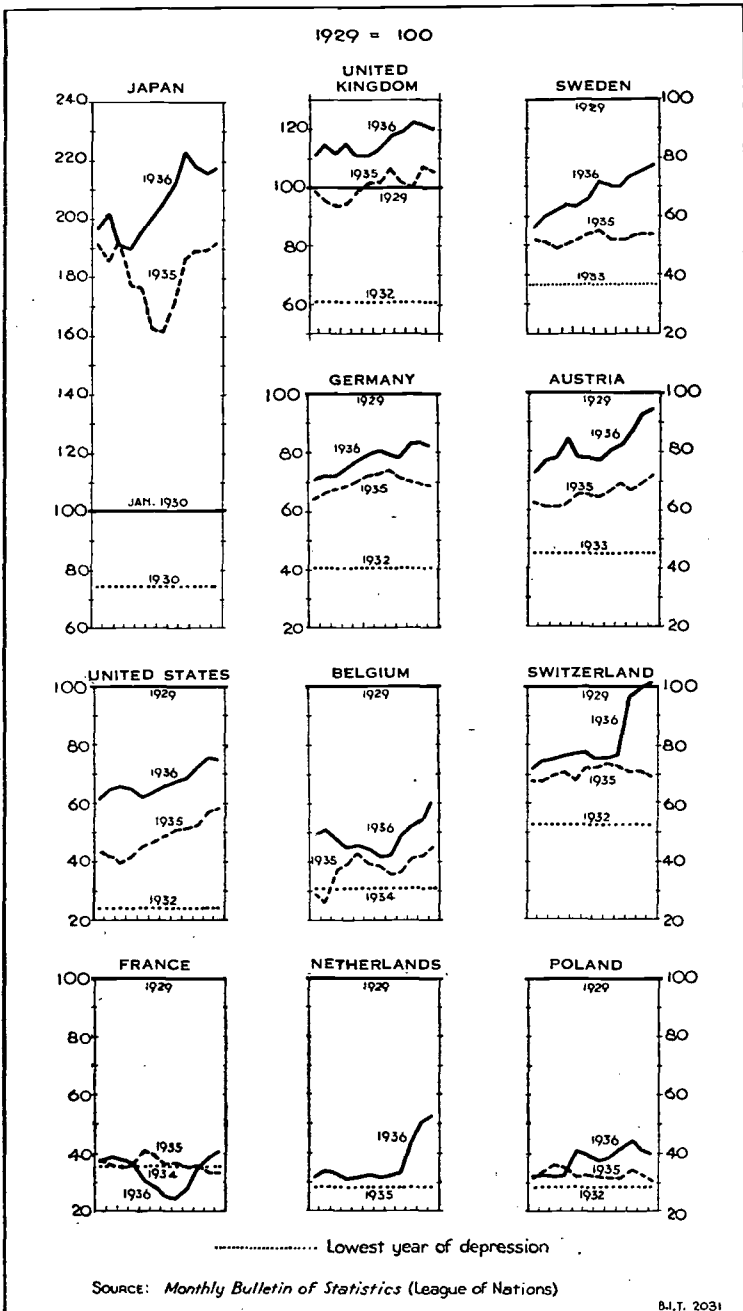
Although 1936 had its full share of autarkic policy, the phenomenon of most significance was the endeavour to secure, for the first time since the depression, a large-scale development of measures calculated to reduce the barriers to international trade. Allowance must however be made for the degree to which so-called liberal measures were merely the substitution of one form of protection for another; and too much insistence must not be placed

¹ *Economist*, 13 February 1937.

² *Commercial and Financial Chronicle*, 9 January 1937.

³ Cf. H. D. HENDERSON: "The Monetary Problem", in *Lloyds Bank Monthly Review*, December 1936.

FIG. X. — INDICES OF MARKET VALUE OF INDUSTRIAL SHARES



on the fact that countries, after the devaluation, were more willing, to lower their tariffs or modify their quota regulations, since the motive was primarily the endeavour to avoid a serious rise in the costs of their home production.

Prior to the Anglo-French-American Agreement of 26 September, measures to increase protection were more noticeable than measures to encourage international trade. Some reduction in tariffs was, indeed, made by Bulgaria, Canada and Great Britain. The United States continued its policy of reducing tariffs by negotiation, applying the most-favoured-nation clause with valuable effect. Austria and Hungary maintained easier exchange regulations and Turkey announced a policy of what practically amounts to free trade towards those countries with which it has clearing agreements or a favourable balance of trade. Greater restrictions were, however, undertaken by Australia (restrictions which called forth counter-measures on the part of Japan and the United States), Germany, Greece, and Yugoslavia, and exchange control was introduced by Poland in April 1936. Bilateral agreements were as numerous as in previous years. Clearing arrangements, as is well known, act often in the sense of changing the direction as well as the volume of trade. Germany, in particular, was able to make use of her debtor position to secure an increasing proportion of the foreign trade of countries such as Brazil, Bulgaria, Chile, Greece and Yugoslavia, which have considerable frozen credits in Germany.

In the last three months of 1936 the monetary alignment of a number of European countries (in particular Czechoslovakia, France, Italy, Latvia, the Netherlands and Switzerland) after the Anglo-French-American Agreement was characterised by a widespread recognition of the urgent necessity of stimulating international trade. To this end customs duties were reduced by France, Italy, Latvia, Switzerland, and, to a lesser degree, the Netherlands, quota restrictions being relaxed in all these countries but Latvia. Measures in the direction of restoring freedom of the exchanges were undertaken in Czechoslovakia, Italy, and Latvia; and early in 1937 negotiations were resumed between the Scandinavian countries, the Netherlands, and the Belgium-Luxemburg Customs Union with a view to giving effect to the Oslo Convention of 1930. In the U.S.S.R. the external commercial debt, which stood at 410 million dollars at the beginning of 1929, and by the end of 1931 had grown to 1,220 million dollars, was reduced to 75 million dollars at the end of 1936. The total imports envisaged during the second Five-Year Plan (1933-1937) are only some 30-40 per cent. of those during the first Five-Year Plan (1928-1932). In point of fact, the returns for 1936 show a slight increase in the value of imports over the two preceding years.

Reviewing the whole field of international trade, it would seem at the present stage unwise to infer from the Agreement of 26 September 1936 anything more than the possibility of improvement. The *rapprochement* between the sterling-dollar zone and the ex-gold bloc is a fact of primary monetary significance; but it

has not solved the problems of self-sufficiency and exchange control. Protection has, in fact, ceased to be a weapon of defence; rather is it a fundamental instrument of positive national policy, guided to a large extent by non-economic considerations. This is a fact which is basic in the consideration of the commercial aspects of economic "planning"; and it suggests caution in estimating the future course of world trade.

SOCIAL IMPLICATIONS OF RECOVERY

The economic developments briefly outlined in the foregoing pages have a many-sided social significance. Most immediate of all is the fact that more goods are being produced, better prices are being paid, and more men and women are at work than was the case a year ago. While no all-inclusive social index can be cited, it is probably true to say that social well-being reached a higher level in 1936 than in any of the five preceding years.

But these immediate consequences of a resumption of business activity are by no means the only socially significant features of economic evolution during the past year. That recovery in various countries has been found to coincide with a change from a policy of active or passive deflation to a policy of monetary management and the application of some form of expansionist technique is one of the most suggestive social-economic developments of recent times. It is a fact of vital interest both to employers and to workers. It has shown the employer that the State and the banking system together can take measures to increase, decrease or maintain the total volume of effective demand; and that when goods in general throughout the world cannot find markets at remunerative prices, the situation is not entirely one beyond human control. It has shown the worker that the total volume of employment depends to a great extent on the monetary and financial policy followed. This does not mean that the difficulties of particular industries and of particular areas can invariably be dealt with by monetary measures. Nor does it mean that every country is master of its own economic destiny. But the lessons of the period 1929-1936 give good reason to believe that suitable monetary and financial management in the various countries, provided it is internationally co-ordinated, can help to prevent depressions of the depth, severity, and duration of that through which the world has just passed.

The development of monetary and financial technique, however, is but one aspect of a still larger movement, viz. the progressively increasing part taken by the State in the conduct of economic affairs. Economic "planning", as it is sometimes called, beginning as a measure of resistance against the disasters brought on by the depression, is developing slowly into a more positive form of action, aiming at something more than the mere salvaging of hopeless situations. So far, however, in the great majority of countries no

adequate measures have been taken to set up the machinery necessary to co-ordinate the various measures of State intervention so as to enable them to yield an optimum of social advantage. From this point of view there is little true "planning", and such as there is has been directed largely towards non-social objectives. Furthermore, a great deal of the action contributing to the present recovery must be classed as definitely uneconomic. Production is being promoted which, from an economic point of view, does not pay; and to a large extent it is the employers and workers who must perforce foot the bill.

Finally, among the economic developments of the year under review having a special social significance, the Agreement of 26 September 1936 is at once the most hopeful and the most capable of extension. As already indicated, the actual achievements so far recorded are not great. What is important is that some action in the international sphere has at last been found possible. International economic co-operation touches on the problem of social welfare at three main points. Until some international monetary agreement has been reached, laying down the broad principles on which the major countries propose in future to base their policy, no country can rely upon effective demand from abroad being maintained, however expertly it succeeds in adjusting the demand coming from its own people; and so long as this situation endures, employment rests upon an unstable foundation. Until trade between countries can proceed more freely and with less frequent changes in the regulations and obstacles placed in its way, the standard of living in every country tends to be impaired. Finally, and in some ways most important of all, until long-term capital can once again move to countries lacking the necessary equipment, the great improvement in living standards that may thereby be brought about is inevitably held back.

In all of these main fields—the technique of monetary and financial adjustment, the co-ordination of State intervention, and international economic co-operation—the means employed are principally economic, but the results that may be attained are of the utmost social importance. The year 1936 is noteworthy in that it has seen some progress in each of these spheres; but in each case, too, what has so far been accomplished is no more than a beginning. So long as the threat of war and the possibility of recurrent depression darken the horizon, the outlook for social progress remains obscure.

CHAPTER II

CONDITIONS OF WORK

Hours of Work

Hours of work problems may be divided into two groups: (1) those relating to the hours actually worked in industry, commerce, offices, and the like—that is to say, the number of hours actually worked by each worker in the day, week, or other period in the undertakings in question; (2) related problems, such as those of the weekly rest, night work in bakeries, shop closing, holidays with pay, and public holidays, which affect the total number of hours worked during the year, or the distribution of hours of work, or the provision of the rest periods needed in the week or year in order to maintain the workers' physical and moral health.

In the social field, the year 1936-1937 displayed two important tendencies: the reduction of hours of work and the extension of annual holidays with pay. The reduction of hours of work, especially in industry, made marked progress in several countries; moreover, the question has given rise to considerable discussion, which has attracted public interest throughout the world. As regards holidays with pay, a subject on which international regulations were adopted in 1936, no less than eight countries introduced such measures during that year.

HOURS OF WORK IN INDUSTRY

National Regulations

Albania. — A Labour Bill drafted by the Government was examined by the Council of State. It limits hours of work to 8 in the day and 48 in the week. Overtime will be permitted in case of urgent work only, may not exceed 4 hours in the day, and must be paid for at time-and-a-half rates. The Bill also provides for a weekly rest day, and for an annual holiday of 12 days, but without pay.

Argentina. — Several Decrees, dated 26 October and 29 November 1935 and 30 January and 16 July 1936, were issued in application of the Decree of 10 August 1935 to regulate hours of work in railway services under national jurisdiction. The chief aim of the new

measures is to define the method of calculating the hours of certain categories of workers and of allocating rest periods.

A Decree of 24 June 1936 declares carding in cotton spinning and weaving mills to be unhealthy work within the meaning of the Hours of Work Act of 12 September 1929, and hours at such work are therefore limited to 6 in the day and 36 in the week. Exceptions are provided, particularly for establishments with apparatus for ventilation and removal of dust by suction.

A Bill submitted to the Chamber of Deputies by a Socialist member in June 1936 provides for the introduction of the 40-hour week in industrial and commercial establishments, with alternative hours schemes—either five 8-hour days, or five 7-hour days with 5 hours' work on the sixth day; the reduction in hours may not involve a fall in earnings. The Bill was referred to the Committee on Labour Legislation.

Australia. — As noted in the last issue of the *Year-Book*¹, the Commonwealth Government proposed early in 1936 to convene a conference, representative of various interests, to enquire into the question of working hours in Australia. After examining the proposal the trade unions declined to participate in the proposed enquiry, being dissatisfied with the representation offered them at the conference and holding that its suggested composition was such as would render it unwieldy. They also considered that the Government, by supporting the 40-hour week at the International Labour Conference at Geneva, had committed itself to the principle and should promote its adoption throughout Australia.

In presenting to Parliament the decisions of the 1935 Session of the International Labour Conference, the Commonwealth Government indicated on 12 March 1936 that its attitude from a practical point of view was that legislation in connection with the fixing of working hours was a matter mainly for the Parliaments of the individual States and that the 40-Hour Week Convention (1935) had therefore been referred to the State Governments for consideration. The labour movement contended, however, that in virtue of the treaty-making power vested in the Commonwealth, the latter was constitutionally competent to ratify and apply international labour Conventions relating to hours of work.

In a statement issued on 28 April the Prime Minister, after reviewing the history of the 40-hour week at the Sessions of the International Labour Conference and the practical application of the principle in other countries, said:

“With this evidence before us the Government realises that a change is taking place in relation to working hours, and if the principle of reduced working hours is more generally adopted, and found to be advantageous and practicable, the Commonwealth Government would be prepared to do everything in its power to see that Australia does not lag behind the world in this matter. Australia has rightly taken pride in its advanced social and industrial conditions, and the Government is determined to see that this country remains

¹ Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1935-36*, p. 71.

abreast of any generally adopted beneficial reforms. But we have already experienced enough difficulty in disposing of our surplus products, and it would be short-sighted policy, even with the best intentions in the world, to rush into the adoption of a principle which, in the absence of fairly universal adoption, might bring about results very different from those envisaged.

"That is the reason the Government proposed to convene a conference in Australia to enquire into and report upon the question..."

The Prime Minister added that, in view of the refusal of the trade unions to appoint delegates, the proposed conference would not be held, but the Government would facilitate the investigation of the subject by the Commonwealth Arbitration Court if the unions applied to the Court for a reduction of the standard working hours.

On 6 May the Leader of the Labour Party in the Commonwealth Parliament moved a vote of censure of the Government on the ground of "failure to promote the adoption of the 40-hour week in Australia". After considerable discussion the sense of the motion was changed from censure to the following tenor, in which it was adopted:

"The House notes the action taken by the Commonwealth Government to promote the adoption of the 40-hour week in Australia, in accordance with public opinion of the Commonwealth and with the principle embodied in the Draft Convention adopted, with the support of the Commonwealth Government Delegate, at the 1935 Session of the International Labour Conference, and commends the proposal for an enquiry into the application of this principle to Australia and urges the trade union movement to co-operate with the Government to that end."

Following the adoption of this resolution attempts were made to revive the proposal for a conference on the subject, but it proved impossible to reach agreement between the Government and the unions. On 22 May the Prime Minister, emphasising the national importance of the question and the Government's desire to devise some alternative method of enquiry, repeated his offer to facilitate an investigation by the Arbitration Court and indicated that in order to secure a comprehensive hearing the Government would welcome application to the Court by all organisations interested. To this the Leader of the Labour Party replied that the Prime Minister's statement did not advance the solution of the problem, since appeal to the Court was open to the unions at any time and the Government had not indicated whether it would be represented at the proceedings and would advocate, as a matter of national policy, the adoption of a shorter working week. The trade unions also continued to press for governmental action, taking the view that the responsibility of Governments in the matter could not be delegated to the Arbitration Court. Finally the Prime Minister agreed to place the question on the Agenda of the Conference of Commonwealth and State Governments which met in August 1936. At this Conference, after considerable discussion, a resolution affirming the necessity for the early introduction of legislation to establish a national 40-hour week was defeated by four votes (those of the Commonwealth, New South Wales, Victoria, and

South Australia) to three (Queensland, Western Australia, and Tasmania).

In view of this failure to secure uniform action by the Commonwealth and State Governments, the trade unions decided to organise a campaign throughout the Commonwealth in order to secure public support for a reduction of hours and to press for the ratification of the Conventions on the subject. The Australasian Council of Trade Unions stated:

“ The shortening of the working week is the logical, necessary, and beneficial outcome of technical progress. Labour considers that the future working hours should be 30 hours weekly, which could and should be adopted with a 25 per cent. increase in wages. As the first step towards this end the immediate aim is a reduction of hours to 40 with the maintenance of the weekly wage.”

The employers maintained that comprehensive enquiry was necessary before any definite step was taken. The Central Council of Employers stated:

“ It is the duty of any responsible Government or controllers of industry to ascertain by a searching enquiry what would be the real effect of the general adoption of a 40-hour week before making so drastic a change.

“ It is contended by the opponents of the 40-hour week that the reduction of hours without reduction in the weekly pay of those employed will increase the cost of production and, in consequence, the prices of products. The question then arises whether this will have the effect of accentuating the mechanisation of industry and the adoption of further labour-saving devices to offset the increased cost of manual labour, which would in turn cause a still greater measure of unemployment.

“ There should be no objection to an exhaustive enquiry into all these phases of the subject before the country is committed to a policy which might in the long run be responsible for greater economic disorganisation.”

The question continued to be raised from time to time in the Commonwealth and State Parliaments, but in the absence of a general agreement for concerted action individual Governments were reluctant to move in the matter. The Commonwealth Government on various occasions reaffirmed its attitude as stated by its representatives at the last two Sessions of the International Labour Conference.

“ It is not practicable to adopt 40 hours as the standard in Australia unless the leading nations of the world whose products are competitive with those of Australia take similar action.

“ If those nations agree to adopt a uniform and reduced standard of hours, Australia will join in international agreement and action for that purpose.

“ The Commonwealth Parliament can legislate as to the working hours in the Commonwealth public service, and the Commonwealth Arbitration Court (but not the Commonwealth Parliament) can deal with the question of working hours when it is raised in an industrial dispute. The State Parliaments, however, can legislate upon this matter.”

In November 1936 the High Court of Australia, in a constitutional case, delivered a judgment the effect of which appeared to be that the Commonwealth Government, in virtue of its treaty-making power, could ratify an international Convention on an industrial

question such as hours of work, and could then pass legislation to make it effective throughout the Commonwealth.

The trade unions claimed that this judgment vindicated their contention that the Commonwealth Government should ratify and apply the Geneva Conventions, but the Prime Minister said that the Government's policy had not been changed as a result of the High Court's decision.

In practice, the 40-hour week was adopted by twenty-four municipal councils in New South Wales, five in Victoria, three in Western Australia, and one in South Australia. In the mining centre of Broken Hill the weekly hours were fixed at 35 for underground workers and 40 for surface workers. In the principal newspaper establishments in Victoria the average hours were reduced to 37½ (morning papers) and 39 (evening papers). 15,707 out of a total of 48,000 persons in the employment of the Commonwealth Government were working 40 hours or less per week in 1936 (8,272 in the administrative and clerical grades, 6,471 in the postal and telegraph services, and 964 in miscellaneous services).

The 44-hour week, which is established by law as the general standard for industry in Queensland and New South Wales and is also applied to numbers of workers in other States by awards of industrial tribunals, made further progress. According to the calculations of the Commonwealth Bureau of Census and Statistics the average weekly hours of adult males for the Commonwealth as a whole were 45.21 on 31 March 1936 as compared with 45.36 on 31 March 1935. The averages for the various States were as follows, those for the previous year being given in brackets: Queensland 43.69 (44); New South Wales 44.13 (44.23); Western Australia 45.46 (45.51); Victoria 46.62 (46.82); South Australia 46.63 (46.83); Tasmania 46.75 (46.77).

Austria. — It was stated in the previous issue of the *Year-Book*¹ that under an Order of 23 April 1936 the exceptions to the legislation concerning overtime which had been granted to sawmills covered by the provisions of the Industrial Code were to be maintained in force during 1936. An Order of 5 March 1937 extends the operation of these exceptions until 31 December 1937.

Belgium. — After repeated expression of trade union demands and a wave of strikes, which swept over the whole country in June 1936 and affected almost every industry, the Government's efforts at conciliation led to a general agreement between the employers' and workers' organisations. One point in this agreement expressly provided for the gradual reduction of hours of work to 40 in the week in industries or branches of industry where operations are carried on in dangerous, unhealthy or exhausting conditions; it was understood that this general principle should be embodied in an Act, and that Executive Orders should determine the industries in question and the details of enforcement.

¹ Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1935-36*, p. 72.

A new Government having been formed, the Prime Minister announced at the opening of Parliament that a Bill embodying the stipulations of the above-mentioned agreement was being presented on the same day. This Bill passed the Chamber of Representatives and the Senate, and became law on 9 July 1936.

The new Act provides that the King may, by Order in Council, gradually reduce hours of actual work to 40 in the week in industries or branches of industry where operations are carried on in dangerous, unhealthy or exhausting conditions. As regards the meaning of "dangerous, unhealthy or exhausting", the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare stated that in the Government's opinion hours should be reduced, *inter alia*, in the docks, the iron and steel industry, the mines, and certain branches of the chemical industry. The Act provides further that, before issuing measures for its administration, the Government shall consult the joint committee or the employers' and workers' organisations most representative of the interests concerned, the Superior Council of Labour and Social Welfare, and, if occasion arises, the Superior Council of Public Health. The Minister has already consulted this body on the subject of the unhealthy nature of the following industries: slate quarries and clay pits, coke furnaces, manufacture of sulphate of ammonia and of by-products of coal, briquette factories, distillation of benzol and coal tar, blend roasting works, zinc foundries, glass works. In the opinion of the National Public Health Board it is not as a rule necessary to envisage the application of the Act except in the case of underground workers in clay pits and slate quarries, and of those groups of workers who are exposed to the harmful effects of pitch dusts in briquette factories. With regard to the other industries the Board recommended that a distinction should be made between the different factories according to the conditions of health obtaining in the different undertakings.

The Government then appointed three special committees of enquiry, one for the mining industry, one for the iron and steel industry, and one for the Antwerp docks, to provide information for the Government and the bodies called on to give their opinion under the Act of 9 July; with this object, they were required to study, *inter alia*, (1) the means and technical possibilities of adapting the conduct of undertakings to a new time-table, involving shorter weekly working hours; (2) the effects, from various standpoints, of this reduction on the cost price of coal, the activity of the industries in question (or of the Antwerp docks), and on the national economy; (3) the consequences of shorter hours for the working class.

After the threat of a strike in the collieries, an agreement was reached in the Joint Committee for the Mines, and a Royal Order of 26 January 1937 limited the hours of underground workers, in accordance with this agreement, to 45 in the week, with a daily maximum of 7½ hours including both winding times.

The Order establishing the special committee to enquire into the regulation of hours of work in the port of Antwerp stipulated that

the committee's proceedings should be terminated by 25 February 1937.

The committee of enquiry for the iron and steel industry has not yet completed its work.

Employers made objections, some of an economic and some of a social nature, to the new legislation, whereas the workers demanded rapid enforcement of the principles of the Act. The Belgian Trade Union Committee, jointly with the Labour Party, urged the Prime Minister to secure the widest possible application of the 40-Hour Week Act, and the Confederation of Christian Trade Unions decided to press for steps to expedite the application of the 40-hour week in unhealthy, dangerous and exhausting industries.

Meanwhile, the reduction of hours in the mines raised various economic questions, for it was equivalent—if the existing working force were retained—to a monthly fall in output of 150,000 tons, from a total output of 2½ million tons. To make up this loss, employers proposed that foreign workers should be taken on, and the Minister of Labour authorised the engagement of 1,500 such workers in the southern coalfields. The Minister was obliged to have recourse to this measure as the efforts made to re-engage regular Belgian miners proved very inadequate. Moreover, certain collieries applied for authorisation to bring hours up to 48 a week, provided those worked in excess of 45 were regarded as overtime and paid at time and a quarter; but the miners' organisations objected.

As regards the enforcement of the Act of 14 June 1921 concerning the 8-hour day and 48-hour week, a Royal Order of 10 February 1936 gave permanent effect to the provisions of preceding Orders which had temporarily suspended certain special hours regulations previously introduced for the building and public works industry, brickworks, and the warehousing of scutched flax. Experience having shown it to be possible for the industries and undertakings concerned to dispense with the exceptions to the 8-hour day and 48-hour week that had been granted at a time when the shortage of labour justified such action, it was decided to abolish these exceptions once and for all. In rural brickworks, however, in view of the fact that the drying of bricks is carried out by natural means in the open air, the hours of actual work may be extended to 10 in the day during the summer half-year and 9 during the winter, provided they do not exceed an average of 8 in the day calculated over each half-year.

Reference was made in the last issue of the *Year-Book*¹ to the introduction of the 40-hour week in the diamond industry. To protect the Antwerp workshops against competition from diamond cutters in Amsterdam, the employers and workers of the Belgian city met representatives of Netherlands diamond cutters, and the result was the establishment of a joint committee to supervise

¹ Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1935-36*, p. 73.

enforcement of the 40-hour week (five 8-hour days) in the diamond industry both in Antwerp and in Amsterdam; this supervision began to operate on 15 June 1936.

Brazil. — An Act of 5 October 1936 regulates hours of work in Federal, State or municipal public utility services carried on directly or by private undertakings; these services had been excluded from the operation of the Decree of 4 May 1932 on hours of work in industry. Generally speaking, hours are limited to 48 in the week distributed over six days, but in certain cases a 10-hour day may be worked. Where the exigencies of the industry are such as to make it necessary to adopt longer hours, the weekly total may be increased to 60 hours, provided that not more than 10 hours are worked on any one day and that overtime is paid for at not less than time and a quarter. Certain classes of persons holding technical or responsible posts may be excluded from the operation of the Act.

Canada. — As was stated in the *Year-Book* for 1935-36¹, the Act passed to give effect to the ratification by the Dominion Government of the Hours of Work (Industry) Convention, 1919, was referred by the Government to the Supreme Court. The constitutional validity of the statute depended on the interpretation of the treaty-making power of the Dominion, as applied in the case of Conventions of the International Labour Conference established by the Peace Treaty. The six members of the Supreme Court of Canada were evenly divided on this point. An appeal on the validity of the Act, along with that of the Minimum Wages Act and the Weekly Rest in Industrial Undertakings Act, was then taken to the Privy Council, in order to determine whether any of the provisions of these Acts, and if so in what particulars or to what extent, were *ultra vires* of the Parliament of Canada. On 28 January 1937 the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council ruled that each of the Acts in question was *ultra vires*. The judgment (delivered by Lord Atkin) concluded by stating that it must not be thought that Canada was incompetent to legislate in performance of treaty obligations; if, in the exercise of new functions derived from its international status, it incurred obligations, they must, so far as legislation was concerned, when they related to provincial classes of subjects, be dealt with by co-operation between the Dominion and the Provinces.

The All-Canadian Congress of Labour, in presenting its programme to the Dominion Government on 17 January 1936, supported a progressive shortening of working hours in industry as a means of reducing unemployment. The Congress proposed that means should be found to ratify the international Convention for the 40-hour week, stating that this step would lead to a limitation of working hours "more consistent with recent developments in the productivity of industry, and universally applicable".

¹ Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1935-36*, p. 75.

The annual deputation of the Trades and Labour Congress of Canada to the Dominion Government, on 15 January 1936, presented a memorandum in favour of a shorter working week. The memorandum stated that modern methods of production made possible and necessary a much shorter working day than was now the custom, that the Congress looked forward hopefully to a maximum working week of 30 hours, and that the Government should give a lead in this regard by establishing the 30-hour week on public works. At a second hearing, on 18 December 1936, the Congress repeated its demands, and added that in the event of any reduction in working time wage levels should remain the same, in order to maintain, if not increase, purchasing power.

The 52nd Annual Convention of the Trades and Labour Congress of Canada (Montreal, 8-12 September 1936) demanded the establishment of a 6-hour day and a 5-day week in all industries, with at least a corresponding increase in rates of pay to counteract any loss of earnings, so that the purchasing power of the masses would be increased through the absorption into industry of additional workpeople.

On 18 December 1936 the Dominion Prime Minister received a delegation from the All-Canadian Congress of Labour, which submitted a programme of social legislation recommended by organised labour throughout the country. The delegation maintained that the regulation of wages and hours of work should be under the direction of a national authority. There was no need to stress the necessity for setting up minimum wages, since living standards must be based thereon. It was also essential that a progressive lessening of hours of labour should be brought about, so as to extend employment among a larger number of workers. The reduction of hours of labour must not, however, involve a decrease in the incomes of the workers.

Federal legislation for maximum hours and minimum wages for men and women in the textile industry, within the framework of a high tariff protection, was suggested to the Royal Commission enquiring into conditions in that industry in Canada. In the course of the hearings before the Commission, representatives of labour called for the creation of collective labour agreements in the industry.

A Federal Commission to fix maximum working hours and minimum wages in all Canadian industries and also to investigate business practices was urged by the Province of Quebec Federation of Chambers of Commerce at its Annual Convention, held at St. John's in September 1936.

Reductions of hours of work were secured during the year under review in a number of Canadian Provinces both by legislation and through collective agreements.

At a special session of the Legislature of the Province of Alberta, held from 25 August to 1 September 1936, legislation was enacted providing for the inauguration of the "Social Credit Policy".

An Hours of Work Act, which came into effect on 1 September 1936, provides for an 8-hour day and a 48-hour week for female workers and a 9-hour day and a 54-hour week for male workers. An exception is allowed in the case of persons holding confidential, supervisory or managerial positions. The Act applies to "any establishment, work, or undertaking in or about any industry, trade or occupation with the exception of farming and domestic service", but it is not to affect the provisions of the Coal Mines Regulation Act. The provisions made for the application of the new Act are similar to those of the British Columbia Hours of Work Act of 14 June 1934¹ and of the Hours of Work (Industry) Convention, 1919.

The "Licensing of Trades and Business Act" was amended to provide that penalties might be imposed on firms convicted of violating the Hours of Work Act.

In the course of the year a number of schedules agreed upon under the provisions of the Industrial Standards Act, referred to in the *Year-Book* for 1935-36², came into effect in the Province. These schedules apply to the following industries: electrical; plumbing, steam-fitting, gas-fitting and pipe-fitting; plastering, bricklaying and cement; general contracting and building; painting, decorating, glazing and paper-hanging; electrical contracting; tile and marble contracting; and brewing. Hours in the schedules vary from 40 to 44 per week, depending on the economic condition of the industry.

Under the Trade and Industry Act, which came into force on 19 October 1934 and was mentioned in the *Year-Book* for 1934-35, a code of fair competition for the commercial printing industry was approved by Order in Council on 9 October 1936. A maximum of 44 hours in the week is laid down "for all mechanical operatives, including proprietors, supervisors, foremen, apprentices, and all others for the time being actually engaged in mechanical work".

The Annual Report of the Bureau of Labour of the Province of Alberta states that during the fiscal year 1935-1936, among the employees of the 2,773 industrial and commercial firms making returns, 20,319 worked 48 hours per week, 2,870 worked 45 hours per week, 7,322 worked 44 hours per week, and 4,365 worked 40 hours per week. There were also 2,507 working 54 hours, 809 working 56 hours, 1,834 working 60 hours, and 182 working 70 hours per week.

The annual report of the Department of Labour of British Columbia for 1935 states that the enforcement of the Hours of Work Act was more effective during 1935 than during the previous year and that the average working hours in the industries which were included in the schedule had been reduced. The average weekly working hours for all employees during 1935 was 47.17, as compared

¹ Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1934-35*, p. 77.

² Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1935-36*, p. 76.

with 47.32 in 1934; 88.78 per cent. of the 81,329 employees whose hours were reported worked 48 hours or less per week, as compared with 85.18 per cent. in this classification as reported in 1934. A tabular summary of the average weekly hours by industries shows an average working week ranging from 42.6 hours in garment making to 52.46 hours in logging railways, while an increase is shown in the granting of overtime permits over 1934.

In Manitoba an Order in Council which came into effect on 2 June 1936 affects hours of work in certain occupations covered by the Minimum Wage Board. A minimum overtime rate of 30 cents an hour must be paid for hours in excess of 48 a week worked by males over 18 in Greater Winnipeg; elsewhere for adult males, and throughout the Province for women and young persons, overtime beyond 48 hours a week or 9 hours a day must be paid at a minimum rate of 30 cents an hour "unless the wages paid equal at least 30 cents per hour for the actual hours worked".

In accordance with the provisions of the Highway Traffic Act, the Municipal and Public Utility Board of Manitoba issued an Order, to take effect in July 1936, regulating the hours of employment and rates of wages of employees of motor carriers engaged in public service. Under the Order no driver may be employed for more than 9 hours on driving a public service vehicle certificated for the transportation of passengers, or for more than 12 hours in any 24 consecutive hours in any capacity, or for more than 6 days in any one week—emergencies due to breakdowns excepted.

In Nova Scotia schedules applied under the Industrial Standards Act of 1935 give a 44-hour week to electrical workers in certain districts as well as to plumbers, steam fitters, carpenters, and bricklayers.

The Government Contracts Hours and Wages Act of Ontario, which came into force on 1 January 1937, is generally similar to the Fair Wages and Hours of Labour Act passed by the Dominion Parliament in 1935 and summarised in the *Year-Book* for 1935-36¹. The Ontario Act provides for fair wages and an 8-hour day or a 44-hour week on construction works undertaken by the Provincial Government by contract and on works to which financial aid or guarantee is granted by the Province.

A number of schedules have been made binding by Orders in Council taken under the Industrial Standards Act of the Province, each having been agreed upon after a conference or series of conferences of employees and employers in the industry and zone concerned. The hours of labour which they prescribe range from 40 in the week for plumbers, steam fitters, electrical workers, and carpenters in certain districts, or 44 in various sections of the clothing industry, plastering, and electrical trades, to 56 for the

¹ Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1935-36*, p. 76.

baking industry in the City of Ottawa. In this way, too, a 40-hour weekly maximum has been established for millinery workers and for the ladies' cloak and suit industry throughout the Province.

In Quebec Orders in Council taken under the Collective Labour Agreements Extension Act of the Province provide a 48-hour week for glove cutters. Hours of work for a granite quarry firm, according to a new agreement which was extended under the Act, provide for an 8-hour day and a 45-hour week for granite-cutters and their apprentices and a 9-hour day and 50-hour week for other employees. Other Orders in Council under the Act limited hours of work in the building industry throughout the Province. Further, as a result of the Act, a weekly maximum of 40 hours was established in certain printing trades in Chicoutimi.

In Saskatchewan an Act respecting minimum wages, hours of employment, and conditions of labour in shops and factories was assented to on 28 February 1936; it provides that a Minimum Wage Board of five persons, appointed by the Lieutenant-Governor in Council, shall ascertain what wages are adequate to furnish the necessary conditions of living to employees, and what are reasonable hours of labour. If circumstances warrant such action, the secretary of the Board may be authorised to extend maximum hours in particular cases, provided the rates fixed by the Board are paid for overtime.

Cuba. — A ruling of the Ministry of Labour, published on 14 August 1936, authorises workshops where tobacco-sorting is carried on (stripping, dipping, bunching, etc.) to distribute hours as required, provided they do not exceed 9 in the day and 48 in the week.

A Decree to bring Cuban legislation on hours of work into conformity with the Hours of Work (Industry) Convention, 1919, is now in course of study.

Czechoslovakia. — According to the National Statistical Office, the total number of hours of overtime authorised in 1935 was 318,320, or 66.8 per cent. less than in 1934. The principal occupational groups in which this overtime occurred were: banking, 53.5 per cent.; engineering, 13.7 per cent.; textiles, 9.1 per cent.; clothing, 6.2 per cent.; metal working, 5 per cent. The mining authorities authorised 9,503 hours of overtime.

Mr. E. Korner, manager of a large ironworks, published a statement in favour of reducing hours of work. The ideal, in his view, should be to secure the maximum return with minimum hours of work; the reduction of hours should act as a brake on the overproduction which results from the tendency towards excessive development of the means of production; mechanisation ought to result in the diminution of effort and of toil; new purchasing power could only be called into being by an international agreement bringing about a general reduction of hours of work.

Egypt. — A Legislative Decree of 5 December 1935 established a maximum of 9 hours' actual work per day for the following operations: underground work in mines and quarries, and all stone extraction work; furnace work for the casting, refining, and annealing of mineral products; plating mirrors (mercury process); manufacture and handling of explosives; melting, reheating and annealing glass; handling, treatment and reduction of slag containing lead, and desilverisation of lead; manufacture of solder and alloys containing over 10 per cent. of lead; manufacture of litharge, lead ochre, red lead, white lead, orange lead, and lead sulphate, chromate and silicate (roasting process); mixing and pasting in the manufacture or repair of electrical accumulators; manufacture of asphalt; tanning; work in depots of fertilisers, extracts of dung, compost, bone or blood; and knacking. A Decree of 23 March 1936 added the stowing of cotton seed in the holds of vessels.

The working day must be interrupted by one or more rest periods of at least an hour each, and no worker may work for more than 5 hours at a stretch without rest. Temporary exemptions may be authorised by way of exception in case of accident or threatened accident, or with the object of avoiding the otherwise certain loss of perishable goods, on the following conditions: not more than 11 hours may be worked on any one day; no worker may work for more than 6 consecutive hours; the Labour Office must be informed within 24 hours of the position which has arisen and of the period required to complete the work; and overtime must be paid at the rate of time and a quarter.

The employer is required to post up at the workplace a timetable showing hours of work and rest periods. Under an Order of 6 February 1936 this time-table must be in Arabic; and if the establishment employs foreign workers, it must also be in a European language.

Finland. — As was stated in the *Year-Book* for 1935-36¹, Parliament adopted in October 1935 a proposal submitted by its Committee on Labour Questions which invited the Government to give thorough consideration to the question of a general reduction of hours of work and, if it thought fit, to prepare a Bill on the subject. To give effect to this decision, the Government appointed a committee, composed of representatives of the State, employers, and workers, to examine the provisions in force governing hours of work in industry and to draft an amending Bill.

The exceptions granted to railways under the Hours of Work Act were reduced in 1936. Parliament having voted funds for the purpose, the Act was made operative for the majority of railway workers on 1 April; only a small group, whose work is such that it was not considered desirable to apply the Act to them, remain outside. The question of revising hours in other State employment is still under examination.

¹ Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1935-36*, p. 82.

France. — The principal event of the year was the introduction of the statutory 40-hour week. As soon as the new Government came into power, following the parliamentary elections of April and May 1936, it introduced a 40-Hour Week Bill in the Chamber of Deputies. Rapid adoption by the Chamber and the Senate followed and the Bill became law on 21 June 1936.

The new Act takes its place in the Labour Code, the appropriate chapter of which is correspondingly amended. It provides that Decrees, issued by the Council of Ministers after consultation with the competent trade section or sections of the National Economic Council, shall determine the conditions under which the provisions of the Act are to be applied to particular occupations, industries or classes of occupation, for the whole of France or for a single district. The Act itself simply lays down the principle that hours of work shall be limited to 40 in the week in industrial and commercial establishments, fixes working time in underground coal mines at 38 hours 40 minutes a week, and provides that a reduction in hours may in no case cause a fall in earnings. The Decrees in question may be issued either on official initiative or at the request of one or more organisations of employers or workers. In either case the employers' and workers' organisations concerned must be consulted, and they are required to give their opinion within a month. Revision of the Decrees may be carried out in the same manner.

In conformity with these provisions, the Minister of Labour (acting jointly with the Minister of Public Works in the case of the mines) began preparation of a series of Decrees. The Act had stated clearly that these should take account as far as possible of agreements between employers' and workers' organisations; the Minister therefore thought it best, with the object of securing the largest measure of mutual consent, to establish joint committees composed of representatives of the occupational groups concerned and to prepare draft Decrees with their aid, a procedure that had been successfully adopted in applying the 8-hour day Act. The drafts resulting from the work of these committees were then submitted to the competent trade sections of the National Economic Council. By 15 March 1937, Decrees concerning the following industries had been issued: coal mines (underground and surface work); underground potash mines; metal mines (underground and surface work); bituminous shale mines (underground and surface work); slate quarries (underground and surface work); slaughterhouses, preparation of cooked meat, preserved meats and edible fats; bakeries in the Paris and Bordeaux regions (Departments of Seine, Seine-et-Oise, Seine-et-Marne, and Gironde); building and the manufacture of building materials; the metal industry; the textile industry; the clothing industry; laundries and dyeing and cleaning; the chemical industry; glass works; the hides and leather industry; the printing and publishing industry; the principal railway systems; and the docks.

As regards underground coal mines, for which there is a special

international Convention, the relevant Decree provides as follows: the time spent in the mine from bank to bank may not exceed 38 hours 40 minutes in the week and 7 hours 45 minutes in the day. These hours include a rest period of 25 minutes, which must be taken collectively in each department of the mine and by each group of workers, and may not be divided without special authorisation. The time spent in the mine must be distributed over five days a week so as to secure not only the Sunday rest but a second rest day, which must be either Saturday or Monday. In case of national emergency, work may be extended beyond the normal limits for not more than 60 hours a year. All extensions must be paid for at not less than time and a quarter. The same applies to work on Saturday or Monday on maintenance or safety work when in exceptional cases a compensating rest period cannot be granted to the staff.

As regards the glass industry, for which there are international Conventions (concerning automatic sheet-glass works and glass-bottle works), the provisions relating to continuous operations in the relevant Decree conform with those of the international regulations; they lay down that the average working week, calculated over a four-week period, may not exceed 42 hours.

In most cases, the Decrees provide for three methods of arranging the 40 hours over the week, and leave the choice between them free. The possibilities are: (1) five 8-hour days with no work on the sixth day (Saturday or Monday); (2) six working days of 6 hours 40 minutes each; (3) six working days of unequal length, with an 8-hour daily maximum. In some cases, e.g. in the chemical industry, it is still possible to average hours over the fortnight, subject to an 8-hour daily maximum.

For continuous operations which, by reason of their nature, must be carried on without a break in the day, night or week, average hours may be 42 in the week. Apart from this, special hours schemes may naturally be required by the character of the industry in question.

In many cases the Decrees provide for the possibility of making up hours lost owing to accidents, *force majeure*, bad weather or a statutory or local holiday. Except in the case of public holidays, a time-limit is fixed within which the lost time must be made up; this varies from one industry to another but usually lies between 4 weeks and 50 days. Time lost on account of public holidays must be made up during the week preceding or following the day in question and then only if the undertaking's hours scheme provides for a 5 or 5½-day week. Lastly, industries normally subject to slack periods at certain seasons of the year may make up time lost for this reason, to a maximum of 100 hours a year, provided this does not involve extending the working day by more than one hour.

Exceptions are permitted for certain types of work, in particular preparatory and complementary work, intermittent work, and operations which, for technical reasons, cannot be interrupted and

must be finished within a certain period. Further, temporary exceptions may be granted to enable undertakings to cope with accidents, actual or threatened, the needs of national safety and defence, or exceptional pressure of work. Exceptions for this last reason take the form of an overtime allowance, fixed at 50, 60 or 75 hours a year according to the undertaking; it may be used at the rate of one hour a day but may at any time be suspended in case of exceptional prolonged unemployment; such overtime must be paid for at a rate of not less than time and one-quarter.

Some of the Decrees (metal industry, building and public works, textiles, metal mining—underground and surface—and glassworks) provide that the 48-hour week may be maintained for three or six months at a time during a period which may not exceed two years in all, if the industry or branch of industry in question shows that it cannot at once apply the relevant Decree in one or more particulars.

The Decree to introduce the 40-hour week on the railways (main railway systems) contains provisions which necessarily differ from those of the other Decrees owing to the special nature of railway employment. It distinguishes between three categories of staff: train staff; staff employed in workshops, stores, stations, permanent-way services, etc.; and staff employed in management, inspection and supervisory services for which no time-tables can be established.

For train staff, the Decree provides, first of all, for “working periods”, i.e. periods of service falling between two long periodical rests and roughly corresponding to a week. Hours of actual work, calculated over two consecutive working periods, may not exceed an average of 6 hours 40 minutes per day; the maximum limits are 8 hours on any one day (or occasionally $8\frac{1}{2}$) and 50 in any one working period. Besides defining hours of actual work, the Decree fixes the following periods: the daily spreadover (period over which daily hours of actual work may be spread); standing by (period during which workers are required to be on duty at the depot without being actively employed); depot or station duty (during which they may be employed at depot or station work); and standing by at home (during which employees may not leave their homes). The daily spreadover may not exceed 10 hours (or occasionally $10\frac{1}{2}$); one-half of the time spent standing by is treated as hours of actual work, while the whole is included in reckoning the length of the daily spreadover; all time spent in depot or station duty is treated as hours of actual work; and one-quarter of the time spent standing by at home is included in reckoning the length of the working period. On an average, train staff must receive one rest of 40 hours at home every seven days. Further, in addition to the 48 periodical rests thus authorised per annum, an extra periodical rest must be granted every three months. The Decree contains special provisions concerning the distribution of working hours, the daily spreadover, and periodical rests for the following: workers employed in the reserve locomotive service, in shuttle services, and

in shunting or depot work; train superintendents, travelling ticket inspectors, and carriage attendants; and employees changing from one working time-table to another. Special provisions deal with the modifications allowed in the working time-table in case of accident or urgency. Apart from this, exceptions are permitted to meet the needs of the service (e.g. in order to introduce rotation schemes) or the personal convenience of the workers concerned.

As regards staff other than train staff and except managerial, inspectorial and supervisory staff, the Decree provides for a choice between five weekly time-tables, daily hours lying between 6 hours 40 minutes and 8 hours. Here, too, there are special provisions concerning the making-up of lost time, temporary exceptions, long periodical rests, and standing by at home. Workers required to stand by at home during their long periodical rests are entitled to a compensatory rest. Special provisions concern workers employed on the maintenance of the permanent way, level-crossing keepers, and certain classes of workers in the traffic service, rolling stock and traction services; permanent-way service, and central and district services. Provision is also made for permanent exceptions, which may apply to the running of local lines where either the arrangement of plant or the small amount of traffic prevents a reasonable average amount of work, and to the organisation of rush services for passengers or goods.

As regards staff employed in management, inspection and supervisory services for which no time-table can be established, the Decree merely provides that the weekly hours, calculated over a period of four consecutive weeks, shall not exceed 40; the periodical rests are the same as for train staff.

To ensure effective application of the provisions relating to the first two categories of staff, the Decree establishes central and regional labour committees; these, in collaboration with the responsible officials and in accordance with a specified procedure, will examine rotation schemes, exceptions, and any difficulties which may arise, whether local, regional or general.

Decrees are in course of preparation for the following industries or branches of industries: salt works; petroleum undertakings; bakeries in certain departments; the food industry; production of gas and electricity; manufacture of paper and of articles from paper; wood industry; manufacture of china and earthenware; clothing and hat industry; basket making and esparto work; hair and feather industry; tobacco industry; transport undertakings; minor and local railways; private undertakings handling goods for the main railway systems and customs and transit agents.

Whereas the workers' organisations have constantly demanded rapid application of the principles of the Act, the employers' associations have repeatedly expressed their misgivings and criticisms concerning the new legislation. There has been much concern in employers' circles at the increase in production costs which may result from enforcement of the 40-Hour Week Act and

at the position of French industry from the point of view of foreign competition. Employers' associations have on several occasions expressed the view that hours should not be reduced in France until the question has been settled internationally and until France's competitors have undertaken to apply similar measures.

Moreover, the enforcement of the 40-hour week in the coal mines has raised serious questions of an economic sort. In view of the danger of a grave shortage of coal, the Prime Minister appealed for the aid of the employers' and workers' organisations to prevent the reduction in hours from causing a fall in production which would have amounted to about 680,000 tons. The miners agreed to work four extra days in February and March, pending the results of the new engagements already in progress. The coalowners on their side agreed to take on all the unemployed in the occupation who could be used, whether they were put forward by the collieries' own services or by the Ministry of Labour or by the unions. Simultaneously wages were increased by 5 per cent. and family allowances in a proportion ranging from 20 to 250 per cent., according to the size of families.

The Government has also paid attention to the problems raised by the recruiting of the additional labour which enforcement of the 40-Hour Week Act has rendered indispensable. Prefects and divisional labour inspectors have been instructed to organise a search throughout France for workers previously employed in industry whose physique and occupational skill permit their re-engagement. In particular, the reduction of hours on the railways has necessitated the employment of a very large number of additional workers; therefore, in order to check any tendency towards an exodus from the rural districts, and to prevent recruiting for the railways from depriving other industries of labour, special steps were taken to facilitate the engagement of railwaymen. The upper age limit for new staff, formerly 29 years, was raised to 34 (or even 40 in case of the engagement, by the main lines, of employees of the minor and local companies dismissed owing to the abandonment of old lines or the reorganisation of those maintained). Companies operating minor and local systems were requested to make an immediate investigation of the services and plant which might have to be eliminated in 1937, to inform the employees concerned without delay, and facilitate by all the means in their power the engagement of such persons by the main lines.

Of the many problems raised by the application of the 40-hour week, one other was given close Government attention: the movement of labour from place to place. It was decided that workers obliged to leave their homes to take up work elsewhere should be allowed to travel free of charge; moreover, such workers will receive special grants in addition to wages, and their wives and children will receive the maximum unemployment allowance from the State for three months; subsequently, if the worker finds steady employment in the new locality, the Government will provide free transport for his wife, children and belongings.

The Act having laid down the principle that the workers' standard of living must be maintained, a large number of agreements have been concluded with a view to adjusting wages in the different industries. Hourly rates were thus immediately raised by at least 20 per cent. when the relevant Decrees came into force.

An Act of 13 March 1937 governs the hours of tax-drivers, and provides that time-tables must be drawn up in accordance with the Labour Code on the basis either of agreements between the drivers' unions and the associations of public-vehicle hirers whose business is subject to the transport rates fixed by the authorities, or of local or ministerial Orders. In application of this Act the Minister of Labour issued an Order of 25 March 1937 to regulate the employment of taxi-drivers in Paris, which fixes the length of the normal working day at 10 hours.

A Bill was introduced in Parliament to give workers in underground slate quarries the benefit of the working week (38 hours 40 minutes) applied in underground mines.

Other Bills aim at regulating hours of work in occupations not covered by the existing legislation. For instance, the Government introduced in the Chamber a Bill to permit the Minister of Labour to regulate hours of work in family workshops. It provides that, when the 40-Hour Week Act is applied by Decree to a certain industry, the Government, after consulting the employers' and workers' organisations concerned and taking the opinion of the competent section of the National Economic Council, may issue an additional Decree extending the limitation of hours to establishments in the industry in which only members of one family are engaged, providing the work is carried on with the aid of steam boilers or mechanical power.

Germany. — In 1936, as in the preceding year, numerous collective rules for various occupations and branches of industry were issued by the competent labour trustees.

These rules provide in most cases for an 8-hour day or 48-hour week or 96-hour fortnight. As a rule work ceases at 1 or 2 p.m. on Saturdays and at noon on the eves of public holidays. Time required for washing and dressing is not counted in hours of work, but there is special provision for operations apt to make the workers exceptionally dirty. Hours lost because a public holiday falls on a weekday, or owing to bad weather in case of work in the open air, may be made up, usually without overtime pay; the period allowed for such recovery varies from one industry to another—in some cases it is a week, in some a fortnight, and in others 4, 8 or even 12 weeks during the winter (e.g. for the construction of national motor roads and defence works). When work is organised in shifts a break of 15-20 minutes may be introduced; and some industries pay 10 per cent. higher wages to shifts working at night.

The collective rules often make no clear distinction between "additional work" (the prolongation of normal daily hours for a specified period) and "overtime" (extra hours done in exceptional circumstances). Some place a maximum of 1-2 hours a day on

additional work, and limit the number of days on which it may be done; others fix a weekly maximum for such work (6-12 hours), and others again a fortnightly maximum. Additional work bringing weekly working time up to not more than 54 hours is paid at rates between 10 and 15 per cent. above the normal. Time and a half is paid for overtime worked on Sunday, double time for work on the principal public holidays, and time and a half for overtime worked during the night—i.e. between 8 (or 10) p.m. and 5 (or 6) a.m.

Some of the rules apply to the whole of German territory; this is true in particular of those for road transport (goods), building and civil engineering, the construction of the national motor roads (winter 1936-1937) and the manufacture of glass table-ware (hollow-glass). The maximum hours of motor-lorry drivers and assistants employed in the long-distance transport of goods by road was fixed at 132 a fortnight or 72 a week; an Order of 9 November 1936 extended these provisions to persons working on their own account and workers engaged in transport undertakings where there are no contracts of employment. In building and civil engineering lost time may be made up within eight weeks; the maximum hours of work, including time during which the employed person is not actually working but is at the employer's disposal, were increased to 72 a week for watchmen and 60 for lorry drivers, carters and their assistants. For the construction of the national motor roads during the winter of 1936-1937, the weekly maximum was fixed at 60 hours, provided the weekly average did not exceed 48 hours. In the glass-ware industry, a 48-hour week was fixed as the maximum; but workers not covered by the Order of 9 February 1927 relating to hours of work in glass-works and glass-cutting establishments (limitation of hours in unhealthy and dangerous processes) are authorised to work an additional hour a day, provided the trust council of the undertaking approves.

The former collective agreements (which have been converted into collective rules) contained provisions under which the head of an undertaking could require overtime to be worked after consultation of the works council. As these councils were abolished by the National Labour Regulation Act of 20 January 1934, the Minister of Labour issued a Decree to invalidate these provisions. Overtime may now be worked only after authorisation by the labour inspector in accordance with the provisions of the Hours of Work Order or by decision of the Labour Trustee.

A new Act concerning hours of work in bakeries and pastrycooks' shops was promulgated on 29 June 1936. Hours of work remain at 8 in the day, not including breaks, but may be increased to 10 by collective rules. In the absence of such rules the regulations for the administration of the Act will be issued by the Labour Inspectorate, or a higher administration, or the Minister of Labour, according to circumstances.

Enquiries into wages and average hours of work in a number of industries, including the chemical industry, metal-working, cabinetmaking and carpentry, were undertaken by the National

Statistical Office in August 1935. In the chemical industry the enquiry covered 319 undertakings employing 123,249 workers, or more than half the total number of workers in the industry; it was found that average weekly hours of work were 45.5 for skilled workers, 45 for semi-skilled and unskilled workers, and 42.6 for women workers. In the metal-working industry the enquiry covered 10 branches and 1,295 undertakings employing 542,798 workers, or more than a third of all workers in the industry; the average weekly hours of work were 48.8 for skilled workers, 48.4 for semi-skilled workers, 48.7 for assistants, and 46.2 for women workers. In cabinetmaking and carpentry the enquiry covered 3,109 undertakings employing 66,190 workers, or 45 per cent. of all persons employed in these two branches of the wood industry; the average weekly hours of work were 47.4 for skilled workers and 47.2 for semi-skilled workers and assistants.

Further, according to the results of 16,573 inspections of undertakings by Labour Front officials acting as factory inspectors, 2 per cent. of the undertakings visited worked less than 40 hours a week on the average, 12 per cent. between 40 and 47 hours, 59 per cent. 48 hours, and 27 per cent. more than 48 hours. In the food and drink industry average hours of work exceeded 48 a week in 40 per cent. of the undertakings. In the dry-cleaning and clothing industries average hours exceeded 48 a week in 44 per cent. of the undertakings and were less than 48 in 11 per cent.

In the Saar the provisions of the Act for the regulation of labour in public departments and undertakings and certain sections of the Act relating to home work were originally to have come into force on 1 August 1935. However by an Order of 9 July of that year, relating to the introduction of the Labour Front in the Saar, their enforcement was postponed until a date to be determined by the Ministers of Labour and of the Interior. This date was subsequently fixed at 1 May 1936.

Great Britain. — According to the Annual Report of the Chief Inspector of Factories for 1935, improvement in industrial activity resulted in a tendency to increase the hours of work in a wide variety of industries. In general, a working week of 47 or 48 hours continued to be regarded as normal, but some employers tried to meet the pressure by reducing the working week to 42 or 43 hours in order to attract skilled workers, while others persisted in working their staffs to the full legal limits (for women and young persons under the Factory and Workshop Act of 1901), making a working week of 55 to 57½ hours. Trades in which workers are well organised worked 47 or 48 hours a week, though an average of up to 6 hours' overtime might be worked each week throughout the year. In the Midlands well-organised industries employed thousands of workers for 43 or 44 hours a week in rubber, chocolate, and electrical engineering factories. In the motor-car, motor-cycle and bicycle industries, where there is seasonal pressure and intense competition to secure orders for the numerous parts and accessories, most firms

worked 55 hours for six months and 48 hours for the rest of the year. In the polishing, plating and light metal trades a 55-hour week was usual. The full legal period was worked in the bakelite moulding industry.

The total number of workers whose normal hours of labour were reported to the British Ministry of Labour as having been reduced in 1936 by nearly five hours a week on an average was over 160,000. The principal classes of workers whose hours were reduced were boot and shoe operatives, workers on morning and evening newspapers in the provinces, and seamen.

The Hours of Employment (Conventions) Act, which received the Royal assent on 14 July 1936, permitted Great Britain to ratify the Sheet-Glass Works Convention, 1934. The Act provides for a four-shift system for persons who work in successive shifts in necessarily continuous operations in sheet-glass works. The hours of work of any individual worker may not exceed 168 hours in any continuous period of four weeks; and the length of a spell of work may not exceed 8 hours; the interval between successive spells may not be less than 16 hours, except at the periodical change-over of shifts. Provision is made, however, for cases of accident, *force majeure*, etc., and for the unforeseen absence of one or more members of a shift.

There were three important debates on the reduction of hours in the House of Commons in 1936. Various members emphasised the need for such a reduction in order to absorb the unemployed, and called on the Government to introduce legislation in accordance with the Forty-Hour Week Convention, 1935. Replying, Government speakers said that there was no doubt that, generally stated, the principle of the shortening of hours of labour commanded very wide sympathy. But considerations affecting its practical application must be borne in mind. In some cases the shortening of hours would produce effects directly contrary to what was desired. The three principles actuating Government policy were the determination to preserve the earnings of British workers, to maintain as far as possible the machinery of voluntary collective agreements, and to commit itself to a binding international Convention only on a solid basis of data, facts and figures, taking into account in their widest form all the conditions of a particular industry.

In view of the Government's promise to introduce a Factories Bill early in the 1937 Session of Parliament, a Factories Bill Campaign Committee was formed. This Committee declared itself in favour of the introduction of the 48-hour week in the near future, for men and women, and subsequently of the 40-hour week. For the moment, it demanded simply the 48-hour week for men and the 40-hour week for young persons under 18 years of age.

The Bill in question was introduced by the Government early in February 1937. Apart from measures relating to the health and safety of workers, it lays down a maximum working week of 48 hours for women and young persons. The Bill was read a

second time on 15 February 1937, and referred to a Standing Committee.

The movement for a 5-day week, in some cases with a reduction in total hours, made further progress in 1936. In every case the level of earnings was maintained. Messrs. Lever Bros. and associated companies, and Joseph Watson & Sons Ltd., a Leeds soap manufacturing firm, decided to introduce the 5-day week for their staffs without reduction of earnings. The 5-day week was also introduced by Messrs. Brintons Ltd., carpet manufacturers; there is a reduction in hours worked, but wages remain unchanged, the firm having agreed to an all-round advance of $1\frac{1}{4}$ d. an hour.

Under a new national agreement in the boot trade, the ordinary working week was reduced by 2 hours to 46. Overtime rates, however, apply only to hours worked in excess of 48 in the week. Under an agreement concluded with Messrs. J. Lyons & Co. Ltd., caterers, the electrical workers employed in the factories, shops and hotels under this firm's control are placed on a 46-hour week, instead of the 48 hours previously operated, with a minimum rate of £5 5s. a week.

An agreement reached between the National Council of Associated Ironmasters and the National Union of Blastfurnacemen provided that men who had hitherto worked an 8-hour shift for 7 days should in future work 8 hours a day for 6 days; this meant that an extra shift would have to be employed. The agreement affects 17,000 workers and is estimated to secure employment for about 2,000 additional men.

The movement in favour of a shorter working week was supported by a number of employers. In an address at a luncheon of the Industrial Co-Partnership Association, on 2 April 1936, Colonel A. C. Davis, Chairman of the Council of the London Chamber of Commerce and works managing director of Associated Portland Cement Manufacturers, Ltd., advocated higher wages and a shorter working week. "Higher wages", he said, "increase the buying power of the people, and if increased output in shorter working hours is also secured, then every class of the community shares in the resulting prosperity". At the annual meeting of the Bradford Central Division Conservative Association, on 24 April 1936, Sir Benjamin Dawson, senior partner of a large Bradford textile firm and Chairman of the Association, said that the cure for unemployment was to reduce working hours; to keep up the standard of living, there must be no reduction of wages. Sir Charles A. Mander, speaking to the members of the Rotary Club, Manchester, on 5 November 1936, discussed the question whether the number of working hours could be reduced without incurring loss, and went on to describe how the introduction of a timing system, coupled with bonus awards and some reorganisation of method, had made it possible for his own firm to institute a 40-hour week without reducing wages or the number of employees. The firm had been able to pension its oldest employees a little earlier, and had been able to produce a little more cheaply and thereby

increase its sales. Sir William Firth, chairman of Richard Thomas & Co. Ltd., steel and tinplate manufacturers in South Wales, proposed measures to absorb more workers in industry in the special areas, including a reduction of the permissible hours in all grades of employment, especially for children under 16 years of age.

The workers' organisations also continued their efforts for a reduction of hours during 1936. Resolutions in favour of such a reduction, without loss of earnings, were adopted at many congresses and meetings, e.g. by the Trades Union Congress, the Scottish Trades Union Congress, the Government Workers' Section (delegates from Government factories, workshops and dockyards) of the Transport and General Workers' Union, the Amalgamated Union of Building Trade Workers, the Amalgamated Engineering Union, the National Union of Boot and Shoe Operatives, the Mineworkers' Federation, the National Union of Railwaymen, the Transport and General Workers' Union, the Iron and Steel Trades Confederation, the Printing and Kindred Trades Federation, etc.

Greece. — A number of Decrees issued in 1936 under the Decree of 27 June 1932 concerning the 8-hour day, extended its provisions to different industries and branches not already covered; all industries except the textile industry are now subject to the 8-hour day.

Guatemala. — During 1936 the Central Federation of Motor Drivers instructed a committee to urge the municipal authorities to introduce a compulsory two-shift system and to limit the hours of motor-omnibus drivers to 8 in the day. Several transport undertakings have already adopted this system, and the Federation considers that its general adoption would not only improve the conditions of work of drivers but also raise the level of safety on the roads.

Hungary. — The movement, which began to make itself felt in 1935, for the extension of the 48-hour week to sundry branches of industry gathered strength in 1936. In virtue of the powers conferred on him by the Order of 26 June 1935 (under which the competent authority may fix maximum hours and minimum wages in certain industries) the Minister of Industry fixed hours at 8 in the day and 48 in the week for upholstery, the multigraph industry, the boot and shoe industry, and the textile industry (Orders of 2 March, 16 May, 31 July 1936, and 9 January 1937 respectively). In the boot and shoe and textile industries, hours lost on one day in the week may be made up on the following working days at the rate of 1 hour a day, or 2 hours if an entire working day has been lost during the week; but in no case may total weekly hours exceed 48. In the event of exceptional pressure of work hours of work may be increased to 10 in the day during not more than sixty days in the year in the boot and shoe industry, and eighty days in the textile industry. Overtime must be paid at not less than time and a quarter.

The introduction of the 48-hour week in the milling industry is contemplated; owing to technical progress and the fall in output, over 12,000 workers have lost their employment in this industry, and the reform would permit 7,000 to be re-engaged.

The Association of Hungarian Municipalities passed a resolution in favour of the 40-hour week; and the Municipality of Budapest, which had already introduced the system in the municipal provision and horse-meat shops, stated its readiness to submit the resolution to the Government together with a request for the general application of the 48-hour week.

India. — Under an amendment, dated 26 April 1936, to the Factories Act of 1934, local governments are empowered to classify as factories, whenever necessary, industrial undertakings which carry on their work partly or entirely in the open air.

The Government of the State of Hyderabad declared all rice mills in which not less than 10 persons are employed on any one day in the year to be covered by the Factories Act of 1928. This action was deemed necessary owing to the nature of the machinery used, the long hours of employment of women during the busy season, and the unsatisfactory conditions as regards sanitation and ventilation prevailing in a number of the smaller mills. The Factories Act will in future also apply to all bidi (cigarette) factories employing not less than 20 persons simultaneously on any one day in the year.

The report of the Department of Industry and Commerce of the State of Mysore for the year ending 30 June 1935 states that the provisions of the Factories Regulation as regards daily and weekly hours of work and rest intervals were generally being carried out.

The report on the administration of the Factories Act in Bengal points out that the Act of 1934, which came into force on 1 January 1935, reduced the legal limits of working hours in perennial factories from 11 to 10 per day and from 60 to 54 per week; consequently in those industries which had all along been working the maximum permissible, the working week was reduced to 54 hours. Otherwise, there was no material change. The jute mills, with one or two exceptions, continued to work the 40-hour week. As far as can be ascertained, wage rates generally remained steady in the principal industries, but in some few cases the total earnings were slightly affected by the reduction of the legal limit of weekly hours from 60 to 54.

In the Madras Presidency, in 1935, the provisions of the Factories Act in respect of the rest interval, the weekly holiday, and hours of employment were in general well observed. A certain amount of latitude had to be allowed to managements of seasonal factories in respect of the new provisions of the Act and the working of the shift system.

The report on the administration of the Factories Act in Burma in 1935 states that work in rice mills continued to be organised in 12-hour shifts for 6 days a week, with night shifts in the busy

season. As the Act provides for a maximum of 56 hours a week for continuous work, each worker must now receive a rest interval of at least 3 hours during the 12-hour day. In view of the difficulties encountered by the Inspectorate in checking these rest intervals, particularly in the small mills, the Factories Regulation of 1935, issued under the new Act, requires that the times of rest intervals be entered in a register.

Iraq. — On 25 April 1936 Parliament passed a Labour Bill introduced by the Minister of the Interior. The new law contains a number of provisions relating to hours of work. Hours in industrial establishments are to be fixed by the Council of Ministers, which will consider them from time to time. Subject to the provisions concerning rest periods, workers may for extra pay work at other than the fixed hours of labour. Each worker is to have a rest period of one hour halfway through the day's work, a nightly rest of at least 11 consecutive hours, including the period between 10 p.m. and 5 a.m., and a weekly rest of at least 24 consecutive hours after each period of 6 working days. Special rules are to be issued by the Minister of the Interior fixing hours of rest during the summer months. If the night rest is curtailed, compensatory time off must be allowed during the day.

Irish Free State. — The Act to regulate conditions of employment in industry, the passing of which was mentioned in the *Year-Book* for 1935-36¹, came into force on 29 May 1936. During the year, in conformity with the Act, certain groups of workers—e.g. those employed in gas and electricity undertakings, the railways and public service vehicles, and the maintenance of machinery and plant—were excluded by Order from the operation of the provisions relating to the limits within which the daily period of work must fall, and to rest on Sundays and public holidays; but the 9-hour day and 48-hour week are maintained. In the turf-cutting industry, normal hours of work may be exceeded by adult workers of either sex and by young persons, subject to a maximum of 10 hours in any day and 48 hours in any week; women and young persons may continue to work until 10 p.m., provided they have 11 hours' rest between the end of one working day and the beginning of the next.

In August 1936 hours of work in the boot and shoe industry were reduced by Order from 48 to 44 in the week; such reduction might not involve a fall in the average weekly earnings of the workers concerned.

An Order of December 1936 introduced the 42-hour week for workers employed in glass-bottle works where bottles or similar glass articles produced by the same process as glass bottles are produced by automatic machinery, and who work in successive shifts and are employed in connection with generators, tank furnaces,

¹ Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1935-36*, p. 88.

automatic machinery, annealing furnaces and operations accessory to the working of the above. The Order stipulates (a) that these workers must be employed under a system providing for at least four shifts; (b) that the hours of work of each worker shall not exceed an average of 42 per week, such average being calculated over a period not exceeding four weeks; (c) that the length of the spell of work shall not exceed 8 hours; and (d) that the interval between two spells of work shall not be less than 16 hours, provided that this interval may, where necessary, be reduced on the occasion of the periodical change-over of shifts.

At the Forty-second annual session of the Irish Trade Union Congress (August 1936) a resolution was adopted calling for the introduction of the 40-hour week without reduction of wages.

Italy. — On 1 February 1936 the Fascist National Federation of Bakers and the Fascist National Federation of Workers in the Provision Trades signed two national agreements intended to reduce unemployment among workers engaged in the manufacture of bread and paste products. The first agreement, covering all employed persons in the trade, prohibits overtime except when necessary to meet emergencies; hours of work are reduced from 48 to 40 in the week, and must be distributed over 5 days for each worker, the sixth day being used to provide work for the unemployed; the number of days' work to be given up by each worker every month may be reduced to 3, 2 or 1, according to the extent of unemployment, on condition that unemployed persons must be enabled to work at least 4 days a week on the average. The second agreement covers employers working themselves with their employees in undertakings where more than 70 kg. of flour is handled daily; it provides that employers and members of their families taking a direct part in the work shall give up one or more days' work a month for the benefit of the unemployed. The two national agreements will be carried out by means of provincial agreements. During the year the Federations concerned sent to their members several circulars concerning strict enforcement of the agreements in question.

A Legislative Decree of 26 March 1936, which came into force on 6 May, modified the average daily hours of actual work of the staff of public transport services operating under concession, including railways, tramways, and inland navigation. The average is increased from 8 hours to 8 hours 40 minutes (10 or 12 hours for certain grades of railway station staff whose work is intermittent and not exhausting). The maximum weekly hours of actual work remain fixed at 52 (65 or 78 in the case of the station staff referred to above).

In order to meet the need for certain war materials, temporary extensions of hours up to 60 in the week may be authorised by the Ministry of Corporations if good reason is given.

Important progress towards shorter hours was made at the end of 1936. On 12 December the Council of Ministers approved a

Legislative Decree for the introduction of the 40-hour week. The new Decree confirms and consolidates the measures introduced in recent years by numerous collective agreements, which have reduced weekly hours for workers in industrial undertakings and for salaried employees in certain classes of undertakings. It provides for a normal maximum working week of 40 hours for work of an industrial nature (or 42 for operations which are necessarily continuous); for all other classes of work, the 40-hour week may be introduced by Order, provided that the requirements of the undertakings and the supply of labour make such arrangements possible. Certain classes of persons are exempted: relatives of the employer up to the third degree of consanguinity, persons employed in domestic work, home workers, persons employed on board ship, workers who are merely required to be in attendance or to watch over premises, and workers employed in industrial work accessory to agricultural undertakings. Exceptions from the 40-hour week may be authorised when special conditions make its application impracticable. Overtime may be required only if the employer cannot meet his obligations by the engagement of extra staff; it may not exceed 12 hours per week on an average and must be paid for at the rates laid down by collective agreements. Up to the present time the Decree has not yet been finally drafted for publication.

Japan. — The Bureau of Social Affairs has been working for a reduction of hours in small industrial undertakings not covered by the Factory Act, and has persuaded certain of the employers' organisations concerned to conclude agreements regulating conditions of work. As a result, the Osaka Master Spinners' Guild, with a membership of 954 small undertakings employing over 22,000 persons in all, concluded an agreement providing for the application of the hours provisions of the Act to those undertakings which are not automatically covered; work is to be carried out between 7 a.m. and 6 p.m. with one hour's interval. Also in consequence of the Bureau's activity, 4,132 small textile factories in Nagoya district gave the prefectural authorities an undertaking to limit hours to 11 in the day, including an hour's rest. Further, the Bureau negotiated with the Ministry of Commerce and Industry in order to improve the conditions of workers employed in small factories, and proposed that the Act relating to industrial associations (which aims at protecting small manufacturers) should be amended so as to require the rules of every association to provide for a maximum 10-hour day. Lastly, the Bureau instructed factory inspectors to take strict action against infringements of the Factory Act.

In the Kuré Arsenal, the largest in Japan, which employs over 20,000 workers, overtime and Sunday work were abolished from 1 May 1936. The naval authorities considered, in view of the notable increase in morbidity and mortality rates for occupational and other diseases, that the time had come to reduce hours of work.

Mexico. — The President issued a Decree giving binding force throughout the Republic to a collective agreement which establishes a maximum working week of 48 hours for persons employed in sugar-cane plantations, sugar factories (including by-products), and all similar undertakings.

The Factory Inspection Service was instructed by the Federal authorities to make arrangements to secure regular and effective supervision of working hours and to prevent infringements of the 8-hour day. The co-ordination of Federal and State measures with regard to hours of work will be effected by the Labour Department. This authority also intends to carry out enquiries into the working of the 8-hour day in the various industries and its effects on the workers' health and output, with a view to deciding whether it should be maintained or reduced for industry as a whole or for certain branches.

Netherlands. — A Royal Decree to consolidate and amend previous legislation, and in particular the Decrees of 1923 relating to hours of work and to hours of rest and working time-tables respectively, was promulgated on 8 September 1936. Most of the existing provisions are retained, subject to changes with regard to rest periods, shift work, and other subjects.

An Act to protect motor drivers against undue fatigue was promulgated on 9 November 1936¹. Under its provisions, public administrative regulations are to fix the hours of work of motor drivers in such a way that they do not exceed 10 per day and 55 per week, except as otherwise determined in the regulations. Penalties of imprisonment or fine are imposed for all infringements not already covered by the Penal Code.

As stated above in connection with Belgium, an arrangement was made between Netherlands diamond cutters and those of Antwerp, where hours of work in the diamond industry had been reduced to 40 a week. To avoid competition it was agreed to establish a joint committee which would supervise enforcement of the 40-hour week (five 8-hour days) for diamond cutters both in Amsterdam and in Antwerp. The scheme began to operate on 15 June 1936.

Information collected by the Ministry of Social Affairs regarding hours of work in the different industries in the principal cities of the country during the second half of 1935 shows that weekly hours of work in Amsterdam and Rotterdam averaged 45 for unskilled workers and 46½-47½ for skilled workers. In other cities for which information was collected, average weekly hours showed considerable differences, but rarely exceeded 48 and were frequently less than this figure.

According to information published by the Standardisation Office for the Metal Industry, covering 24,099 workers employed by 89 members of the employers' organisations in that industry, the

¹ Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1935-36*, p. 90.

ordinary weekly hours of work on 1 July 1936 were as follows: 48, 47 or 46 for 18,132 workers (75 per cent.), 33-45 for 4,628 workers (19 per cent.), 30-32 for 238 workers (1 per cent.), and less than 30 hours for 505 workers (2 per cent.). In the case of the 596 other workers (3 per cent.) employment was so intermittent that no information concerning their hours could be given.

Early in 1936 the Municipal Council of Enschede, one of the principal Netherlands cotton centres, discussed the 40-hour week in the textile industry, and passed a resolution by 19 votes to 17 urging the earliest possible introduction of the 40-hour week for all workers in that industry.

At a general meeting of the Plasterers' Federation in October 1936, the general council was authorised to initiate negotiations for the introduction of a 40-hour working week with partial wage compensation. The secretary explained that some months ago the Minister of Social Affairs had stated that he was prepared to consider the introduction of the 40-hour week in the building industry; all members of the industry would be bound by a legal provision to this effect. The 40-hour week, the secretary continued, was the only means of dealing with the permanent unemployment due to rationalisation, and, in their particular trade, to the tendency to simplify plastering work.

New Zealand. — The Government introduced the shorter working week throughout the country by legislation enacted during 1936; the hours provisions came into operation on 1 September.

The Factories Amendment Act of 8 June 1936 restricts hours of work in factories to 40 in the week and 8 in the day; not more than 4½ hours may be worked without an interval of at least three-quarters of an hour for a meal. The Court of Arbitration may fix longer hours than those prescribed by the Act in the case of any factory if, in the opinion of the Court, the work of the factory could not otherwise be carried on efficiently; but in no case may normal hours exceed 44 a week. Special arrangements have been made in regard to laundries, dairy factories or creameries, flax mills and saw mills, and overtime rates are provided for. Wages may not be reduced, nor may any person be dismissed by reason of any reduction or alteration of working hours in pursuance of the provisions of the Act.

The Industrial Conciliation and Arbitration Amendment Act of 8 June 1936 restored the compulsory powers of the Court of Arbitration by providing that disputes not settled by conciliation councils must be automatically referred to it for settlement. It requires the Court to fix basic wage rates for men and women workers in industries subject to its awards or to registered industrial agreements, and to make mandatory the 40-hour week for all such industries except where the Court is satisfied that it would be impracticable to carry on an industry efficiently with a 40-hour week. If in any future award the hours fixed exceed 40, the Court must indicate in the award the grounds which made it impracticable to limit the hours in accordance with the requirements of legis-

lation. If in regard to any existing awards or industrial agreements the Court finds that it is impracticable to apply the 40-hour week, it may reduce the present weekly maximum and provide for a maximum between this and 40 hours. Where the hours fixed by the existing award or industrial agreement are reduced by the Court, the hourly or other rates of pay are to be increased so that the ordinary weekly rate is not affected. Saturday work is to be eliminated by the Court where practicable. Where an award is binding on a majority of the employers in the district to which it relates, it can be extended by the Court by means of a general Order to cover other employers in the industry.

Since these Acts came into force, the Court of Arbitration has been dealing with applications for the variation of the hours previously fixed by statute, award or agreement. In determining the weekly hours, the Court concentrates mainly on the question of the ability of the industry concerned to carry on efficiently. It also takes into consideration the question of the public convenience, and in respect of some of its Orders permits Saturday work. Where industries were able to show that their work was largely seasonal, the Court varied the hours according to the period of the year, sometimes averaging them at 40 a week. In some instances it fixed different weekly hours for different categories of workers.

The question of the application of the 40-hour week to the railways and other public departments was the subject of definite statements by Government speakers. In reply to a question in the House of Representatives on 11 August 1936 whether the Government intended to introduce the 40-hour week in such departments as the railways, post office, police, jails, and mental hospitals, and if so, whether steps were being taken to train the additional men and women who would be required to effect the change, the Prime Minister said: "The policy of the Government is to reduce hours of labour in all services, public and private, and the necessary steps are being taken to carry it into effect at the earliest possible moment." On 23 September a question was asked whether members of the clerical staff of the railways were to receive the same treatment as other members of the railway staff during the introduction of the 40-hour week, and whether such officials were being granted conditions equal to those in other sections of the railway service pending trained staff being available to allow the 40-hour week to be fully operative; the Minister of Railways replied that of approximately 3,000 officers employed in the first division of the department, at least two-thirds were actually enjoying the 40-hour week or less, and that the same conditions would apply to the balance of the clerical staff as soon as circumstances permitted.

The Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants was especially active in seeking to have the principle of the shorter working week definitely applied to railwaymen at the same time as to the members of outside unions. Negotiations carried on during August 1936 resulted in an agreement being arrived at between

the Society and the Government, according to which the principle of the 40-hour week was established in the railway service as from 1 September. It was agreed to waive the adjustment of anomalies for a specified period, and to accept payment for overtime in accordance with the present regulations, also for a specified period. An arrangement was made whereby employees required to work ordinary time in excess of 48 hours a week should have their present hours (56 or 60 per week, as the case may be) reduced by one-sixth. It was further agreed that these matters should be reviewed on the basis of the present schedule of wages as soon as practicable after 1 April 1937, but not later than 1 September 1937.

The Prevention of Profiteering Act, assented to on 12 August 1936, states that the magistrate, in determining whether any particular increase in the price of any goods or services was reasonable or unreasonable, must take into account the extent by which the expenses of the defendant have been directly or indirectly increased since 1 June 1936 by the operation of any amendment of the legislation concerning hours of work or the basic wage.

Nicaragua. — The Bill to establish an 8-hour day for persons employed in industry, agriculture and other undertakings was referred by Congress to the competent committee. It provides that workers employed for more than 8 hours a day shall be entitled to double wages.

Norway. — The Workers' Protection Act, which was issued on 19 June 1936 and came into operation on 1 January 1937, provides for an 8-hour day and 48-hour week in industry and mines. Overtime may not as a rule exceed 10 hours a week, but the competent authority may raise the limit to 15 hours during six months in the year for certain classes of workers, subject to a maximum for any one worker of 30 hours' overtime in any four consecutive weeks. Apart from this, overtime is allowed in the following cases only: (a) unforeseen circumstances, when the absence of certain workers would interfere with the normal conduct of the establishment; (b) to prevent damage to buildings, machinery, raw materials, or manufactured products; (c) in case of extraordinary or unforeseen pressure of work; (d) when it is required in the public or general interest or for other good reason; (e) in the case of transport undertakings administered by the State, when the competent authority so instructs. Overtime must be paid at the rate of time and a quarter. Apart from overtime proper, hours of work may be extended to 10 in the day if the normal conduct of the undertaking requires that certain persons remain on duty until replaced by others, or if the work of the person in question is intermittent.

Peru. — With a view to ensuring strict enforcement of the 8-hour day for manual and non-manual workers, a Presidential decision requires every employer to post up the working time-table in a conspicuous manner in the undertaking. If work is organised

in shifts, he must also submit the time-table to the competent authority.

An Act of 13 November 1936 brings drivers of private motor vehicles under all social legislation applying to workers in general.

A Bill introduced in the House of Representatives on 14 April 1936 proposes to establish hours regulations adapted to seasonal conditions. During the months of January, February, and March, Government departments, banks, commercial establishments, factories, and other undertakings would work from 7 a.m. to 1 p.m., and during the rest of the year from 9 a.m. to noon and from 3 to 6 p.m. Exceptions would be permitted in the case of banks, factories and commercial establishments, provided the parties agreed and that overtime pay was 10 per cent. above the normal rate.

Poland. — Reference was made in the *Year-Book* for 1935-36¹ to the campaign started by the miners' unions to secure a 6-hour day in the coal mines. This campaign was continued in 1936, and at its Congress in December the National Miners' Union voted a further resolution calling for the speedy introduction of the 6-hour day. In addition, miners' delegates repeatedly urged this course on the Prime Minister.

In September the Miners' Trade Union Joint Committee gave notice to terminate the hours clauses of the collective agreement, which was due to expire on 31 December 1936 but could be tacitly prolonged. The Secretary of the National Miners' Union demanded that a shorter working week should come into operation by 1 January 1937. After negotiations between the parties and between representatives of the trade unions and the Chief Factory Inspector had failed, the miners' representatives requested the Government to settle the matter. The Prime Minister then received a deputation of miners and heard their demands, after which the Minister of Social Welfare drafted a Bill for a reduction of hours of work, and this was submitted to Parliament after approval by the Cabinet. It provides that in case of national or economic necessity the Government, after consulting the Chamber of Commerce and Industry and the employers' and workers' organisations, may issue Orders, on the proposal of the Minister of Social Welfare, providing for a reduction of the working day or week in coal mines; these Orders may be issued for a specified period of not more than a year; they may cover all or part of the workers, throughout the country or in certain administrative areas².

In the printing industry, after a strike, two collective agreements were concluded in February 1936 relating to newspaper printing and job printing respectively. The former maintained existing hours of work, which had in practice remained at 36 in the week

¹ Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1935-36*, p. 110.

² After being amended by the Labour Committee of the Diet, the Bill was voted by the Parliament on 14 April 1937 with several further amendments.

since the beginning of 1932. The latter provided for a 40-hour week for machine compositors and a 42-hour week for other workers. Printing works owned by the State, local authorities and social welfare institutions were not affected by the strike; it was announced at the outset that the conditions to be fixed by collective agreement would be accepted in these undertakings.

Portugal.— A Legislative Decree of 24 August 1936 amended the Legislative Decree of 24 August 1934, which provided for an 8-hour day in industrial and commercial undertakings. These amendments, which did not alter the basic principles of the regulations, refer particularly to the system of penalties for contraventions of the provisions relating to the distribution of hours of work. Various collective agreements were concluded in 1936 within the framework of the Legislative Decree of 24 August 1934, which governs hours of work in industrial and commercial undertakings.

A collective agreement was concluded in the autumn of 1936 between the Association of Lisbon Master Bakers and the Union of Journeymen Bakers and Bakery Employees of that city. In conformity with the legislation governing conditions of work in bakeries mentioned in the *Year-Book* for 1935-36¹, provision is made for the hours of the various categories of bakery workers to vary according to the day of the week subject to a maximum of 8 hours a day.

Spain.— In conformity with the general legislation on hours of work (which provides that more favourable conditions for the workers may be instituted by official decision or by agreement between employers and workers), hours of work in coal mines were reduced by a Decree of 18 June 1936. The hours of persons employed underground, which were previously 7 per day and 42 per week, were reduced to 40 per week; and those of surface workers from 48 to 44 per week. The new provisions may not involve any reduction in wages.

In Catalonia an Order of 4 June 1936 introduced the 44-hour week in the cement industry. A Decree of 24 July 1936 established the 40-hour week for all industrial and commercial work throughout the territory of Generality.

Switzerland.— On 9 October 1936 the Federal Council issued an Order regulating outside work in the watch industry. The Order applies to watch-making establishments not covered by the Federal Factory Act—that is, to home work, family undertakings and other small establishments. Hours of work are limited in general to 48 in the week. The work required of a home worker in a week may not exceed the average amount which a worker employed in a workshop or factory can finish in the number of hours fixed for the working week of the establishment, all other conditions as to the nature and quality of the work being equal.

¹ Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1935-36*, p. 94.

The workers' organisations in the watch industry, as also those in the textile industry, demanded a reduction of hours to 40 in the week. The Federation of Trade Unions took a similar attitude at its triennial Congress, held in October 1936, and adopted a resolution insisting on the introduction of the 40-hour week in public departments and undertakings and for workers and salaried employees in factories covered by the Federal Factory Act, without any reduction in the standard of living.

Turkey. — Chapter II of the Labour Code, which was adopted on 8 June 1936, includes provisions relating to hours of work.

According to its general provisions, the Code applies to workers in undertakings where the nature of the work usually involves the daily employment of at least 10 wage earners. The Code does not apply to agriculture, shipping or air transport, or to work carried out by members of the family and near relatives without the help of other persons.

As a general rule, hours of work are fixed at 48 in the week. This total must be distributed over the working days of the week, a daily maximum of 9 hours being allowed in undertakings required to close at 1 p.m. on Saturday, and of 8 hours in undertakings authorised to remain open on Saturday afternoons. Special Orders will determine the undertakings to which each of the above schemes shall apply. The application of these provisions to the various branches of employment must be completed within three years. For reasons of health, Orders may be issued fixing hours for certain work at 8 in the day or less.

Within a year, an Order must be issued specifying the operations in which daily working hours may be increased beyond the statutory limits for specified periods in view of national economic requirements or the nature of the work or the need to increase production beyond the normal figure; but certain conditions—relating in particular to the amount of overtime, overtime rates, and the consent of the workers—must be fulfilled. Provision is also made for exceptions in case of accident, actual or imminent, urgent work on machinery or material, and *force majeure*, and to meet the requirements of national defence.

In mines and quarries the statutory working day includes both winding times. In all work requiring the collective transport of workers to and from a workplace situated at some distance from their homes (such as the construction, maintenance, repair and reconstruction of railways, roads and bridges), travelling time is included in hours of work.

Other provisions concern rest intervals, the duration of night work, and the organisation of shifts for continuous operations. Subsequent orders will define the conditions and methods of granting exceptions to be observed for preparatory or complementary work, cleaning, and work of an intermittent character. Other Orders will govern the distribution of hours of work over a period longer than a week, and will regulate hours of work, the weekly

rest, night work, and compulsory breaks in the case of necessarily continuous work. The Code also provides for the supervision of conditions of work. Finally, it lays down that no reduction of hours which may result from the enforcement of its provisions may be taken as an excuse for reducing wages.

Union of South Africa. — In the report of the Department of Labour for 1934, the Chief Inspector of Factories states that the industrial activity which marked the close of 1933 continued throughout 1934 and that a special feature of the year was the remarkable expansion of existing industries, particularly in the Transvaal. As regards hours of work, reports from all centres showed the general resumption of normal working hours during the year, and in many establishments overtime was necessary to meet the demands. This applied especially to the engineering and building industries, many of which were working long hours towards the end of the year owing to a shortage of skilled workers. Nevertheless, as compared with the preceding year, there was a reduction of 50 in the number of applications granted for exemptions relating to working hours. The provisions of the Factories Act governing hours of work were well observed on the whole. Proceedings were taken against several employers for disregard of regulations concerning Sunday work and for non-payment of overtime; convictions were obtained in the majority of cases. There was an increase in the number of factories which had adopted the principle of a 5-day working week.

A number of collective agreements were concluded or renewed during 1936. They relate to various parts of the Union and to the following industries among others: building, brewing, furniture, stevedoring, clothing and tailoring, and general, metal and motor engineering. Most of these agreements provide for a maximum working week of 48 hours but some fix lower figures. In the building industry, for instance, 44 or 46 hours a week are now being worked. In stevedoring the week is 46 hours 40 minutes. In the metal industry certain classes of workers have a 44-hour week and those employed on night shifts work $43\frac{3}{4}$ or 40 hours. A 47-hour week is provided for women workers in the bespoke tailoring industry in specified districts of the Witwatersrand. Further, a collective agreement for the printing and newspaper industry throughout the Union was declared binding until 31 December 1938; weekly working time for typesetting machine operators is fixed at 43 hours (day work) or 40 hours (night work), and for all other employees at 46 or 40 hours respectively; the agreement also contains a detailed regulation of overtime, the rates of payment for which vary from time and one-third to double time according as it is done on a working day, the house half-holiday or Sunday and according to its duration.

United States. — During 1936 the movement for reduction of hours was directed primarily towards maintaining, after the abolition of the National Industrial Recovery Act (N.I.R.A.), the

gains that had been won through the codes of fair competition and preventing a return to the working conditions of the past.

The outstanding measure dealing with hours of labour enacted by Congress during 1936 was the Act to provide conditions for the purchase of supplies and the making of contracts by the United States (the Walsh-Healey Public Contracts Act), which was approved on 30 June 1936 and became effective on 28 September 1936.

The Act provides that every proposal or bid for public purchases or contracts exceeding 10,000 dollars shall contain an agreement that all employees of the principal contractor shall be paid not less than minimum rates prescribed by the Secretary of Labour. No person employed by the contractor shall be permitted to work in excess of 8 hours in any one day or of 40 hours in any week. In determining the standards to be contained in the contract, certain factors, such as the prevailing minimum wages on similar work in the locality, are taken into consideration. Provision is made for penalties in case of violation, and the Secretary of Labor is authorised to allow exemptions regarding minimum wages and maximum hours when justice or the public interest would be served thereby. Whenever an increase in the maximum hours of labour stipulated in the contract is permitted by the Secretary of Labor, any such overtime must be paid for at not less than one and one-half times the basic hourly rate.

A special administrative unit, known as the Public Contracts Division, was set up in the Department of Labor in order to administer the Act temporarily until an appropriation is made by Congress for permanent administration. A temporary Board of three members was also appointed to interpret questions arising under the Act and to conduct public hearings, as provided in the Act. A panel of consultants for the principal industries, for which wage and overtime regulations are to be made, will be appointed by the Secretary of Labor from manufacturing and labour representatives familiar with those industries.

The Secretary of Labor in putting the Act into effect issued regulations which prescribe the stipulations to be included in every contract for the purchase of Government equipment, materials or supplies. These regulations eliminate any possibility of avoiding the labour provisions through sub-contracting, and make arrangements for supervision.

Another measure concerning hours of work in industry passed by Congress, and approved on 26 June 1936, places employees in the Bureau of Engraving and Printing on a 40-hour week. This Act covers the group of employees excluded by the ruling of the Controller-General from the Act of 1935, which placed all Government mechanical employees on a 40-hour basis.

Reference was made in the *Year-Book* for 1935-36¹ to the decision of the Supreme Court in regard to the National Industrial

¹ Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1935-36*, p. 98.

Recovery Act, and to the various attempts made after this decision to secure the regulation of hours of work by other means. Thus the Bituminous Coal Conservation Act, which was signed by the President on 30 August 1935, aimed at applying the principles contained in the former N.I.R.A. to the coal industry. On 18 May 1936 the Supreme Court declared that this Act was unconstitutional. The majority decision held that Congress had no power to regulate wages, hours of labour and working conditions in an industry not directly engaged in inter-State commerce and that the production of coal did not directly affect such commerce. Following this decision, a new measure was introduced in Congress in which the price-fixing provisions were maintained, but the labour provisions removed. However, this new Bill was left on the calendar of unfinished business when the Senate adjourned.

Nevertheless, as stated in the *Year-Book* for 1935-36¹, the question of hours in the bituminous coal industry had been provisionally settled in 1935 by the conclusion of an agreement maintaining the 35-hour week. A similar settlement was made in the anthracite industry in 1936. According to an agreement between the parties concerned, which was reached on 7 May, hours will be reduced for more than 105,000 miners. The new scheme comes into force on 1 May 1937, and expires on 30 April 1938. A 7-hour day and a 5-day week are established for all but certain exempted workers, subject to the provision that mines may be operated 6 days per week during any 12 weeks in the year, or more than 6 days in case of emergency if approved by a bipartite board appointed for the purpose.

As the decision of the Court in regard to the Bituminous Coal Act confirmed the earlier decision reached in regard to the N.I.R.A., no further attempts were made by Congress along these lines. The Textile Stabilisation Bill (known as the Ellenbogen Bill), which had been introduced in the first Session of the Seventy-Fourth Congress in 1935, was re-introduced in the second Session on 12 March 1936, but no action was taken before Congress adjourned. The measure, which was sponsored by the United Textile Workers and opposed by the National Association of Manufacturers, would establish a National Textile Commission of seven members, with authority to regulate commerce in textile products among the States and with foreign countries and to deal with wages, hours, working conditions, the volume of production, hours of machine operation, and trade practices. Employment in any branch of the textile industry would be prohibited for more than 35 hours and 5 days a week in the case of unskilled labour and for more than 40 hours and 5 days a week for office and clerical employees. Time and a half would be paid for overtime, and double time for work on Sundays and holidays. The operation of productive machinery would be prohibited for more than two shifts of 35 hours each in any one week where a third shift would adversely affect commerce.

¹ *Ibid.*, p. 111.

Unfair methods of competition would also be prohibited. The Commission would be authorised to issue stamps and labels to textile manufacturers complying with the provisions of the measure. As a means of enforcement, Government departments would be forbidden to purchase unlabelled goods or to extend loans to persons violating the Act. The Commission would be given authority to make investigations into the textile industry, to require reports, and to publish information.

An agreement concluded in December 1936 between the Aluminum Company of America and the Aluminum Workers' Union of the American Federation of Labor provides for a 40-hour week with time-and-a-half rates for all overtime on Sunday and holidays.

Following an agreement, the principal American steel companies, employing some 130,000 workers in all—the U.S. Steel Corporation, the Bethlehem Steel Corporation, the Republic Steel Corporation, the Youngstown Sheet and Tube Company, and the National Steel Corporation—introduced the 40-hour week on 16 March 1937; time-and-a-half rates must be paid for overtime. A number of smaller undertakings at once followed this lead, and it is expected that the whole industry will soon have adopted the scheme. It is estimated that the increase in total annual earnings resulting from the reduction in hours will be about 100 million dollars. The agreement is in conformity with the Walsh-Healey Public Contracts Act.

The series of Bills, referred to in the last issue of the *Year-Book*, which attempt to provide for a 5-day week for Federal employees, for a 30-hour week in general, and for a reduction of hours of work and increase in pay through a system of Federal licensing, were re-introduced during the second Session of Congress in 1936, but were not passed.

A certain number of measures for reducing hours of work were passed during 1936 in various States.

Wisconsin maintained the provisions of the National Industrial Recovery Act by establishing State codes of fair competition which closely resemble the former national codes. The Supreme Court of the State found the Wisconsin recovery law to be constitutional, and, following this decision, codes for eleven service trades and industries became effective throughout the State.

South Carolina enacted a law—to be effective only after the passage of similar laws in Georgia and North Carolina—restricting the hours of all employees in textile mills to 8 a day and 40 a week, distributed over not more than 5 working days.

Other States broadened the scope of their hours legislation to give the benefits of the existing daily and weekly limitations to new groups of workers.

The Governor of Pennsylvania announced the introduction of a 40-hour week for all State employees. The new regulations will include compensatory time off for hours worked in excess of 40 a week.

After a referendum, the "three-platoon" system (three 8-hour shifts) and a 6-day week were introduced for firemen in the City of New York. It is believed that as a result of this measure, which came into force on 1 January 1937, there will be an increase of 25 per cent. in the number of firemen employed.

Although less interest was shown during 1936 in the movement for improving labour conditions by means of inter-State compacts, a certain recognition was given to the movement by the inclusion in the Republican Party platform of support of the use of inter-State compacts for abolishing sweat shops and child labour and for establishing maximum hours, minimum wages and adequate working conditions for women and children. Similarly the Chamber of Commerce, at its meeting in June 1936, recommended the use of inter-State compacts for dealing with conditions of work for employees in production in order to secure unanimity among competing States. A regional inter-State Labour Conference of the Mid-Western States was held in Chicago on 18 June, and it was agreed to attempt to secure the appointment of inter-State compact commissions, composed of representatives of labour, industry and the public, in the various mid-western States.

Other attempts to raise labour standards and secure shorter hours of work were made by various regional and national conferences during 1936.

A Southern Regional Conference on Labour Standards, attended by representatives of eight southern States, met at Columbia, South Carolina, on 20 and 21 January 1936. It adopted a resolution recommending "a practical programme for the progressive and rapid reduction of daily and weekly hours for workers, with consideration given to the best hours laws now in effect in the most legislatively advanced industrial States within the competitive area of the southern section of the United States; and the inclusion wherever practical of both men and women within the scope of such laws".

The Third National Conference on Labour Legislation, held at Washington, D.C., on 10 to 14 November 1936, was attended by delegates from 39 States. It recommended the appointment of a committee by the Secretary of Labor "to undertake a study of the ideal principles which should form the basis of a model law under a possible constitutional amendment to permit minimum wages and other legislation". In concluding its work, the Conference accepted a report explaining its belief that the adoption of a schedule of not more than 40 hours a week by State law in all States would promote the welfare of the nation, and urging the Senate to ratify all 40-hour Conventions submitted by the International Labour Conference.

The Council for Industrial Progress, which was established late in 1935 after a conference of representatives of labour and industry called by the Co-ordinator for Industrial Co-operation, made a report to the President of the United States in March 1936. It pointed out that the tendency towards lengthening hours and

reducing wages led to unemployment, unfair competition, and low consuming power. The Council also adopted recommendations requesting Congress to enact legislation for creating a Federal commission to determine minimum wages and maximum hours and regulate child labour in each of several industries. The Council's Committee on the maximum working week, wages and child labour, reported: "In any instance where the hour week shall have been greater than the hour week established by the commission for that industry, an adjustment in the wage rates shall be made so that there shall be no reduction in the earnings of the worker." Meeting on 10, 11 and 12 December 1936, the Council recommended that Congress should enact a law prohibiting unfair competition; a Federal commission should supervise enforcement, and over-long hours and the employment of child labour should be considered as unfair competition.

A report submitted to the President by the American Federation of Labor, based on a survey covering the period from June 1935 to March 1936, stated that 4,073,901 workers suffered from the lengthening of hours of employment. The longer hours were estimated to represent an annual full-time work load of 1,762,373,650 man-hours above those worked at the beginning of the period. As the direct result of this lengthening of hours, 839,123 wage earners had been deprived of possible re-employment in the current recovery.

A study published under the auspices of the National Industrial Conference Board stated that in June 1936 workers in 25 manufacturing industries as a whole had more than recovered the wage reductions of the depression. While acknowledging that working hours had advanced since 1935, it claimed that this was partly due to a return from part-time work to normal employment. Average hours worked per week by wage earners in manufacturing industries advanced from 34.6 in August 1935 to 39.4 in August 1936. However, a more recent report published by the Board stated that for the first nine months of 1936 the working week averaged 38.6 hours.

According to a statement published by the Southern States Industrial Council, average weekly hours increased from 36.2 in February 1935 to 38.3 in February 1936. A study of the average figures presented for 37 industries shows that although average weekly working hours in February 1936 remained below 40 for industry as a whole, they reached or exceeded that figure in 14 industries, and even mounted in one case to 45.7 hours a week.

The opinion of the United States Government as regards the reduction of hours of work has not varied; it found expression in many interviews and messages throughout 1936. For instance, at a press conference on 29 December the President of the United States expressed his concern at the constant and increasing breakdown of labour standards in industry since the end of the National Recovery Administration. He said that he was studying many plans for re-establishing the labour standards of the National Industrial

Recovery Act, including the prohibition of child labour. The methods under study included:

- (1) Federal licensing of corporations doing an inter-State business;
- (2) Classification of lower than minimum wages and higher than maximum hours as unfair competition subject to prosecution under anti-trust laws;
- (3) Tightening of the Public Contracts Act to use the spending power of the Government to induce industry to meet higher standards in order to get Government business;
- (4) Enactment of Federal statutes that would aid individual States to prevent the entry of goods from other States that fail to maintain minimum labour standards;
- (5) Amendment of the Federal Constitution to give the National Government powers that the Supreme Court says it does not possess under the Constitution as now written;
- (6) Use of the Works Progress Administration as an agency for maintaining minimum wages and for supporting organised labour in its campaigns for higher wages and shorter hours.

The workers' point of view was expressed at the annual Convention of the American Federation of Labor, meeting at Tampa (Florida) in November 1936. The Convention adopted a resolution calling for a Federal law to provide a 30-hour week as the only means of mastering unemployment, and instructed its Executive Council "to take all necessary steps to have a 6-hour day and 5-day week Bill introduced and enacted into law at the coming session of Congress".

Leaders in the Railroad Union are planning to introduce a 30-hour week Bill in the next Session of Congress as the only solution of the problem of unemployment among railroad workers.

The employers' point of view was expressed in a declaration of principles adopted at the 41st annual meeting of the National Association of Manufacturers (New York, 10 December 1936).

"Under our industrial system wages have been raised, working hours lowered, and living standards at the same time have greatly advanced. This has been made possible by improved methods in manufacturing, in agriculture, and in the service industries. We believe this improvement will continue under the American system of free enterprise and that wage and hour changes will be made as the improved production methods make them possible. Should arbitrary reduction of working hours limit necessary production, the unavoidable increasing cost will reduce the consumer purchasing power we desire to enlarge.

"We dedicate ourselves to improve methods to the end that the advance may continue, both in working conditions and in living standards.

"No equitable yardstick has yet been developed by which to fix nationally industrial hours and wages, since economic factors vary in different parts of the country."

Moreover, during the year several employers (including Mr. E. A. Filene, President of the William Filene's Sons Company,

Boston; Mr. William J. Cameron, of the Ford Motor Company; Mr. C. W. Young, President of the Young Management Corporation; and Mr. Malcolm Muir, President of the McGraw Hill Publishing Company and director of the National Association of Manufacturers) expressed themselves in favour of a reduction in hours of work.

U.S.S.R. — The principle of the 7-hour day received fresh confirmation in the Soviet Constitution of 5 December 1936, which states that "citizens of the U.S.S.R. have the right to rest", which is secured among other things "by the reduction of the working day to 7 hours for the overwhelming majority of the workers".

Venezuela. — In the new Labour Act promulgated on 16 July 1936, hours of work are fixed at 8 in the day and 48 in the week for manual workers and 44 in the week for commercial and office employees. A weekly half-holiday may be instituted by agreement between the employer and the staff of an undertaking; in this case, working time may be increased by not more than an hour on each of the other days of the week, provided the weekly total of 48 hours is not exceeded. Only adult males may work at night, i.e. between 9 p.m. and 6 a.m.; exception to this rule may be made by the Federal Government. In case of continuous processes, no person may be employed on shift work for more than 8 hours daily and shifts must change over periodically.

The International Movement

The campaign which has been carried on for several years in favour of reducing hours of work was reinforced in 1936 by measures taken in several countries to institute a 40-hour week.

In July 1936 the Inter-Parliamentary Conference, pursuing its efforts in this field, adopted a resolution emphasising the fact that the growth of technical progress, which is becoming more and more rapid, makes it imperative to readjust hours of work. The Conference expressed the opinion that it would be necessary to co-ordinate the individual measures taken internationally in regard to the various industries, so as to incorporate those measures in general regulations. In July 1936 the International Trade Union Congress took up a somewhat similar position. It resolved that the method introduced in 1935 of adopting separate international regulations concerning hours of work for each industry should be abandoned and that efforts should be resumed for the adoption of a general Draft Convention establishing a 40-hour week for all workers without distinction.

The international organisations of workers who are directly interested in the Draft Conventions submitted to the International Labour Conference in regard to the reduction of hours of work in various industries (building and wood working, iron and steel, coal mines, printing) steadily continued to press for the adoption of such regulations. Further, the Miners' International Federation

renewed its claim for a reduction of hours of work in coal mines to 6 in the day and 36 in the week. The International Boot and Shoe and Leather Workers' Federation called on its members to press for a reduction of working hours. The road transport workers' unions likewise urged that a 40-hour week should be adopted as a basis for international regulations concerning hours of work and rest periods for motor drivers, on the ground that such regulations were necessary in view of the existing conditions of employment for these workers and were justified by considerations of safety.

Most of the employers' organisations continued to oppose the movement for a more general application of the 40-hour week. Their opposition made itself felt nationally rather than internationally. Nevertheless, at a meeting held in London in September 1936 the International Cotton Committee opposed the introduction of the 40-hour week in the textile industry.

International Regulation

Hours of work in industry are at present regulated internationally by the Washington (1919) Convention concerning the 8-hour day and 40-hour week, the international Convention relating to hours of work in coal mines (1931, revised in 1935), the Convention concerning hours of work in automatic sheet-glass works (1934), and by a body of Conventions for the reduction of hours of work, which includes the general Convention of 1935 laying down the principle of the 40-hour week and the special Conventions applying that principle to the reduction of hours in glass-bottle works (1935) and public works (1936).

This last Convention was adopted at the Twentieth Session of the International Labour Conference (1936), which also dealt with special Draft Conventions concerning the reduction of hours in building and civil engineering, iron and steel works, coal mines, and the textile industry. The 1937 Session of the Conference will discuss the reduction of working hours in the textile industry, printing and kindred trades, and the chemical industry.

Further, the Governing Body of the International Labour Office, at its session in February 1937, decided to place on the Agenda of the 1938 Session of the Conference the regulation of hours of work and rest period in road transport. The Governing Body also decided that when fixing the Agenda for the 1939 Session of the Conference it would consider the reduction of working hours in glass works which are not yet covered by the existing international regulations.

Public Works.— The reduction of working hours on public works came up for a second discussion at the Twentieth Session of the Conference, a proposed Draft Convention having been prepared by the Office in the light of the Governments' replies to a questionnaire. The Conference Committee appointed to consider this matter adopted the proposed draft with a single amendment deleting the provision

that persons occupying positions of supervision or engaged in technical control of operations might in certain circumstances be exempted.

The new regulations apply to persons directly employed on building or civil engineering works financed or subsidised by central Governments. Exemption is allowed in the case of persons employed in undertakings in which only members of the employers' family are employed and of persons occupying positions of management who do not ordinarily perform manual work. Hours of work may not exceed an average of 40 in the week (42 in the case of continuous processes). These limits may be exceeded, under specified conditions and in accordance with the specified procedure, for certain categories of work or of persons and in certain cases. Provision is made for an allowance of 100 hours of overtime a year, to be paid for at not less than one-and-a-quarter times the normal rate, for exceptional pressure of work.

Building and Civil Engineering — Iron and Steel — Coal Mines.— The reduction of hours of work in each of these three industries had been placed on the Agenda of the Twentieth Session of the Conference as separate items on the same grounds and in the same circumstances as the reduction of hours on public works.

The Committees appointed by the Conference for this purpose considered and, after more or less amendment, adopted the proposed Draft Conventions prepared by the International Labour Office. The final voting on these three Draft Conventions at the plenary sitting of the Conference was as follows: building and civil engineering, 61 votes to 42; iron and steel, 67 to 40; coal mines, 66 to 37.

The two-thirds majority not having been attained, the Draft Conventions were not adopted. The Conference then passed, with regard to each of the three industries, a resolution requesting the Governing Body of the International Labour Office to consider the convening of tripartite conferences of Governments and of employers' and workpeople's representatives; in the case of building and civil engineering and coal mines the purpose of the Conference would be to reach an understanding as to hours of work in the industry, account being taken of the reports of the Committees on hours of work at the Twentieth Session of the Conference; and in case of the iron and steel industry, it would be to reach an understanding as to equitable standards based on adequate information concerning wages, hours, and working conditions in the industry throughout the world.

At its Session in November 1936 the Governing Body authorised the Office to get into touch with the Governments and the circles concerned with a view to the preparation of these conferences. Meanwhile, in September 1936, the Congress of the International Federation of Christian Miners urged that the coal mines conference should be convened without delay. In January 1937 the Executive Committee of the Miners' International Federation made the same request. Finally, at the Session in February 1937 the Governing

Body instructed the Office to inform the Governments of the seven countries mentioned in the Convention concerning hours of work in coal mines, together with the Governments of Japan, the United States, and the U.S.S.R., that the Governing Body proposed to convene a tripartite meeting on hours of work in coal mines in October 1937 and to request those Governments to furnish their observations. The replies received by the Office were to be considered by the Governing Body at its Session in May 1937.

The Governing Body also dealt with the coal-mining industry from a somewhat different angle and at its Session in November 1936 adopted, on the proposal of the workers' group, a resolution pointing out that it would be highly expedient to resume the work which was started in co-operation with the Economic Committee of the League of Nations and again to consider the possibility of securing between the coal-mining countries an international agreement which, while protecting the interests of the miners and of the consumers, would organise production and both European and world markets. The Governing Body therefore expressed the hope that the Economic Committee of the League of Nations would resume the joint work with a view to preparing an international conference of the coal-producing countries.

The Textile Industry. — As requested by the International Labour Conference at its 1935 Session, the Governing Body placed the reduction of hours of work in the textile industry on the Agenda of the 1936 Session of the Conference. The Governing Body decided that the question would form a single item on the Agenda and that the term "textile industry" should be taken to include every branch of the industry (wool, cotton, silk, rayon, linen, hemp, jute, etc.). As decided by the Governing Body, this question came before the Conference either for a first discussion in accordance with the usual procedure of double discussion, or for a single and final discussion, as the Conference itself might decide. When preparing the report which was to allow for either of these two courses, the Office had unofficially consulted experts representing the Governments, employers and workers.

After a lengthy general discussion, the Conference referred the Office report to a special Committee for consideration, together with a proposal that the double-discussion procedure should be suspended. The Committee, having to begin by deciding the question as to procedure, submitted a first report in favour of a single discussion. The Conference took the opposite view and decided to maintain the usual double-discussion procedure. Before the Conference took this decision, however, the Committee, in order to save time, considered in detail the proposed Draft Convention prepared by the Office and accordingly submitted a second report containing the full text of a proposed Draft Convention. After the Conference had decided the question as to procedure, the Committee recommended that the reduction of hours of work in the textile industry should be placed on the Agenda of the 1937 Conference and that the Office should be directed to frame

a questionnaire for Governments on the basis of the proposed Draft Convention submitted by the Committee and in the light of discussions which had taken place in the Committee. These recommendations were approved by the Conference, which further adopted a resolution submitted by the Government delegate of the United States requesting the Governing Body to convene a tripartite conference including the necessary technical and expert assistance from textile-producing countries. The purpose of this conference would be to consider how the work already undertaken by the International Labour Organisation in connection with the improvement of conditions in the textile industry could best be advanced and to take into account all those aspects of the textile industry which, directly or indirectly, might have a bearing on the improvement of social conditions in that industry.

When in November 1936 the Governing Body considered the effect to be given to that resolution, the representative of the United States Government extended an invitation to the International Labour Organisation to convene the proposed conference in Washington. The Governing Body accepted this offer and decided to invite the Governments of all countries in which textile production formed an important part of the national economy to send delegates and technical advisers to a tripartite conference, which was to meet early in April 1937.

Printing and Kindred Trades — Chemical Industry. — At its 1935 Session the Conference had adopted two resolutions, requesting the Governing Body to place the reduction of hours of work in printing and kindred trades and in the chemical industry respectively on the Agenda of the 1936 Conference. The Governing Body did not feel that this could be done, but placed the questions on the Agenda of the 1937 Conference. It also provided that the reports to be submitted by the Office should enable the Conference either to open a first discussion in accordance with the usual double-discussion procedure or, if this were found expedient, to take a final decision forthwith with regard to the proposed Draft Conventions. The Governing Body also authorised the Office to convene preparatory technical meetings, to be attended by tripartite delegations from those countries where the industries in question played an important part in the economic system. These meetings, which were purely advisory, were held in Geneva in November and December 1936. They engaged in an extensive discussion of the technical, economic and social problems affecting the two industries. A great many arguments were advanced for and against the reduction of hours, and several delegates laid stress on the importance of contractual regulation in regard to hours of work. The meetings also discussed the delimitation of the industries and supplied useful information in this respect. Reports on the two meetings were considered by the Governing Body at its session in February 1937 and will be published in the documents concerning the industries which are to be submitted to the Conference at its 1937 Session.

Glass Works other than Automatic Sheet-Glass Works and Glass-Bottle Works.— In October 1935 the Governing Body, in accordance with a resolution adopted at the Nineteenth Session of the Conference, decided to call a meeting of the Technical Committee on Glass Works, with a view to considering the possibility of extending the reduction of hours of work to branches of the glass industry and categories of persons employed in that industry which are not yet covered by the international regulations concerning automatic sheet-glass works and glass-bottle works. The Committee met in Geneva in November 1936 and, after a detailed examination of the question put to it, adopted a resolution requesting the Governing Body to consider placing the reduction of hours in glass works on the Agenda of an early session of the Conference, with a view to the drawing-up of a Draft Convention. This Convention should apply to continuous operations in all glass works, to non-continuous operations in all branches of glass works in respect of glass workers properly so called, and to workers who are not glass workers properly so called, or who are employed in branches of the industry enumerated by the Committee, when their work is concerned exclusively with the upkeep and running of such establishments. The Committee also expressed the opinion that the branches of the glass industry carried on at home should be included in the scope of the proposed Draft Convention, and that the regulations applying thereto should be identical with those prescribed for the same branches when carried on in factories or workshops.

At its Session in February 1937 the Governing Body took note of the report on the work of the Committee and decided that when fixing the Agenda for the 1939 Session of the Conference it would examine the resolution adopted by the Committee.

Road Transport.— The very rapid development of road transport in the course of the last ten years has given rise to a new and very large category of workers, whose conditions of work, being of a special nature, particularly as regards hours of work and rest periods, have made the adoption of special regulations necessary in most countries, with a view to protecting the persons concerned and making traffic safe. International regulations making for uniformity in such conditions of work seem to be all the more necessary since road transport undertakings do not confine their activities to their national territory, but tend more and more to ply between one country and another.

In April 1936 a proposal was submitted to the Governing Body concerning the steps to be taken for the protective international regulation of the conditions of employment, safety and social welfare of wage earners employed in road transport. The Governing Body instructed the Office to continue and develop its study of the question, particularly as regards hours of work and the prevention of accidents. The Governing Body further decided that it would, when sufficient progress had been made with these studies, consider the steps to be taken with a view to establishing protective international regulations for such wage earners. After having

provisionally considered this question with reference to the 1938 Session of the Conference, the Governing Body definitely decided, in February 1937, to place the regulation of hours of work and rest periods in road transport on the Agenda of that Session.

*Ratification and Approval of the Conventions and Recommendations adopted by the International Labour Conference*¹

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

Peru. — By Decree of 6 March 1936 the President of the Republic approved the Convention and submitted it to Congress for ratification.

U.S.S.R. — Submitted to the competent authorities.

Convention No. 43: Sheet-Glass Works, 1934

Belgium. — An Act introducing the four-shift system in automatic sheet-glass works was promulgated on 22 December 1936. The adoption of this legislation will enable Belgium to ratify the Convention.

Finland. — In a proposal submitted to Parliament on 2 October 1936 the Government set forth the reasons for which it seemed impossible for the time being to ratify the Convention. In its reply of 21 December 1936, however, Parliament invited the Government to consider the possibility of amending existing legislation on the lines of the Convention, and so of facilitating ratification.

France. — A Bill for the ratification of the Convention was submitted to the Chamber of Deputies on 13 August 1936.

Great Britain. — Ratification registered on 13 January 1937.

Japan. — The Privy Council decided on 22 April 1936 not to ratify the Convention.

U.S.S.R. — Submitted to the competent authorities.

Yugoslavia. — Submitted to Parliament on 31 December 1936.

Convention No. 46: Hours of Work (Coal Mines) (Revised), 1935

Austria. — The Federal Government decided on 24 June 1936 not to open the procedure required by the Constitution for the ratification of the Convention. Owing to the present unfavourable situation of the market, the Austrian coal industry could not support, from the economic point of view, the burden which would be placed on it by reducing hours of work in accordance with the Convention.

Brazil. — Submitted to the National Congress by a message from the President of the Republic on 27 October 1936.

Existing legislation fixes the maximum hours of work in underground employment at 8 in the day, but the regulation of work in mines is not the subject of special legislation although Article 121 (*h*) of the Constitution requires the Ministry of Labour to prepare a Bill for the regulation of employment in coal mines and other industries.

Canada. — Referred to the Department of Justice with a view to determining whether the subject-matter is within Dominion or provincial competence.

China. — The Legislative Yuan decided on 8 January 1937 to postpone ratification of the Convention.

Cuba. — Ratification registered on 14 April 1936.

¹ The information given here relates only to the period 16 March 1936-15 March 1937. See the tables at the end of the volume for the general situation as regards the Hours of Work Conventions.

Finland. — In a proposal submitted to Parliament on 12 March 1937 the Government recommended ratification.

France. — When the Government submitted the Convention to the Chamber of Deputies on 13 August 1936 it stated that it would be desirable to postpone the question of ratification until the Conference had concluded its consideration of the question of hours of work in coal mines, the more so since French legislation on the subject (Act of 21 June 1936, section 8) provides that in employment underground the time spent by each worker in the mine shall not exceed 38 hours 40 minutes in the week. A Decree of 25 September 1936 prescribes the detailed regulations for the application of the Act, including the method of calculating hours of presence.

Great Britain. — Presented to Parliament in December 1935.

India. — The Council of State on 15 April 1936 and the Legislative Assembly on 21 April 1936 adopted resolutions recommending the Governor-General in Council not to ratify the Convention.

Iraq. — The Government stated that the Convention dealt with an occupation which did not exist in 'Iraq and that it therefore saw no need for ratification.

Japan. — Submitted to the Privy Council on 19 December 1936.

Latvia. — Submitted to the Council of Ministers on 21 December 1936.

Netherlands. — When the Government submitted the Convention on 30 November 1936 to the Second Chamber of the States General it pointed out that, apart from the objections to which some of the provisions of the Convention gave rise, the consideration by the Conference of the question of hours of work in coal mines was not yet concluded. In these circumstances, the Government merely submitted the text of the Convention to the States General.

New Zealand. — Submitted to the House of Representatives on 11 September 1936 and to the Legislative Council on 17 September 1936.

Siam. — The competent authorities considered that under the existing conditions of labour in the country the application of the Convention was not as yet necessary in Siam, and consequently did not feel it appropriate to take any action in the matter at the present time.

Switzerland. — In a report submitted on 20 April 1936 to the Federal Assembly the Federal Council recalled the fact that it had in principle approved the original Convention of 1931, but that as regards ratification it had expressed the opinion that other States should decide upon their attitude first, and that the question of the adherence of Switzerland could not usefully be discussed until the attitude of the chief countries directly concerned was known. Any other action on the part of Switzerland would have no practical value, since the Convention was not to come into force until it had been ratified by two of the chief coal-producing countries in Europe.

These considerations applied unchanged to the revised Convention. As long as the attitude to it of the countries chiefly concerned was not decided, the question of ratifying the Convention could not arise for Switzerland.

The Federal Assembly approved these conclusions on 17 and 19 June 1936.

Turkey. — Submitted to the Grand National Assembly.

Union of South Africa. — Laid on the table of the House of Assembly on 21 April 1936 and of the Senate on 27 May 1936.

United States. — Submitted by the President to Congress on 18 June 1936.

U.S.S.R. — Submitted to the competent authorities.

Convention No. 47: Forty-Hour Week, 1935

Austria. — The Federal Government decided on 4 December 1936 not to open for the present the procedure required by the Constitution for the

ratification of the Convention. In the present circumstances it could not consider adherence to a Convention which would bind Austria permanently to the principle of the 40-hour week. Moreover, the question of the 40-hour week was so controversial, and the opinions of the various States Members of the Organisation were so divided on the question, that Austria, which still suffered from the effects of the war and the economic depression, was forced to observe the greatest prudence in the matter.

Brazil. — Submitted to the National Congress by a Message from the President of the Republic on 27 October 1936.

Since there was no lack of employment in Brazil, the application of the Convention was held to be premature; with a population density barely four and a half to the square kilometre, the available supply of labour was not enough to ensure the development of the inhabited districts.

Canada. — Referred to the Department of Justice with a view to determining whether the subject-matter is within Dominion or provincial competence.

China. — The Legislative Yuan decided on 8 January 1937 to postpone ratification of the Convention.

Cuba. — Submitted to the Senate for approval.

Finland. — In a proposal submitted to Parliament on 12 March 1937, the Government expressed the opinion that the Convention could not be ratified for the time being.

France. — The principle of the Convention is embodied in the Act of 21 June 1936 respecting the 40-hour week. A Bill for the ratification of the Convention was submitted to the Chamber of Deputies on 13 August 1936.

Great Britain. — Presented to Parliament in December 1935.

India. — The Legislative Assembly on 6 March 1936 and the Council of States on 26 March 1936 adopted resolutions recommending the Governor-General in Council not to ratify the Convention. Hours of work in factories had been reduced to 44 in the week only a little more than a year earlier and had also been reduced in mines. The 40-hour week was at present outside the realms of practical politics for India.

Iraq. — The Government stated that in 'Iraq hours of work were 8 in the day and 48 in the week. Economic considerations necessitated the observance of this system at present and ratification of the Convention was therefore not possible.

Japan. — Submitted to the Privy Council on 19 December 1936.

Latvia. — Submitted to the Council of Ministers on 21 December 1936.

Netherlands. — When the Government submitted the Convention to the Second Chamber of the States General on 30 November 1936 it explained that there were, in its opinion, legal and general objections to be made to a Convention of principle in the form of the Forty-Hour Week Convention. Apart from these considerations the introduction of the 40-hour week would, the Government considered, lead to serious difficulties, especially owing to the fact that the principle laid down was linked to the condition that the standard of life of the workers must not be lowered. For these reasons the Government decided to submit no proposals for the ratification of the Convention.

New Zealand. — Submitted to the House of Representatives on 11 September 1936 and to the Legislative Council on 17 September 1936.

Siam. — The competent authorities considered that under the existing conditions of labour in the country the application of the Convention was not as yet necessary in Siam, and consequently did not feel it appropriate to take any action in the matter at the present time.

Switzerland. — In a report submitted on 20 April 1936 to the Federal Assembly, the Federal Council set forth the legal and general objections to which a Convention of principle in the form of the Forty-Hour Week Convention gave rise. Apart from these considerations there were substantial reasons why Switzerland should not bind itself at present by the Convention.

The economic system of the nation was passing through a period of adaptation, during which it was necessary to reduce costs of production. In these circumstances, the Federal Council did not think it possible to approve a measure which in its opinion would lead to a rise in prices and in the cost of living. The Federal Council recognised, however, the importance of the question of the reduction of hours of work. It would not fail to examine the possibilities of reducing hours of work without injurious economic consequences and to make use of such possibilities as might be found.

The Federal Assembly approved these conclusions on 17 and 19 June 1936.

The National Council at the same time adopted a recommendation requesting the Federal Council to discuss with the employers' and workers' organisations the question of a suitable reduction of hours of work. In a letter of 4 July 1936 the Director of the Federal Office of Industry, Arts and Crafts, and Labour stated that the Federal Council had not yet decided its attitude as regards this recommendation.

Turkey. — Submitted to the Grand National Assembly.

Union of South Africa. — The Executive Council decided on 23 March 1936 against ratification of the Convention, on the ground that conditions in the Union were not yet suitable for the compulsory introduction of a 40-hour week.

The Convention was laid on the table of the House of Assembly on 21 April 1936 and of the Senate on 27 May 1936.

United States. — Submitted by the President to Congress on 18 June 1936.

U.S.S.R. — Submitted to the competent authorities.

Convention No. 49: Reduction of Hours of Work (Glass-Bottle Works), 1935

Austria. — The Federal Government decided on 4 December 1936 not to open for the moment the procedure required by the Constitution for the ratification of the Convention, owing to the fact that it is based on the principle of the 40-hour week. As long as Austria postponed action on the question of the 40-hour week in general, the ratification of this Convention could not be further examined.

Brazil. — Submitted to the National Congress by a Message from the President of the Republic on 27 October 1936.

Canada. — Referred to the Department of Justice with a view to determining whether the subject-matter is within Dominion or provincial competence.

China. — The Legislative Yuan decided on 8 January 1937 to postpone ratification of the Convention.

Cuba. — Submitted to the Senate for approval.

Finland. — In a proposal submitted to Parliament on 12 March 1937, the Government expressed the opinion that the Convention could not be ratified for the time being.

France. — A Bill for the ratification of the Convention was submitted to the Chamber of Deputies on 13 August 1936. The provisions of the Convention are already observed in fact in the majority of industrial undertakings in question and can be introduced without difficulty into French legislation by a Decree issued under the Act of 21 June 1936 respecting the 40-hour week.

Great Britain. — Presented to Parliament in December 1935.

India. — The Council of State on 26 March 1936 and the Legislative Assembly on 21 April 1936 adopted resolutions recommending the Governor-General in Council not to ratify the Convention.

Iraq. — The Government stated that the Convention dealt with an occupation which did not exist in Iraq and that it therefore saw no need for ratification.

Japan. — Submitted to the Privy Council on 19 December 1936.

Latvia. — Submitted to the Council of Ministers on 21 December 1936.

Netherlands. — When the Government submitted the Convention to the Second Chamber of the States General on 30 November 1936 it stated that the same objections of principle applied to ratification as to the reduction of weekly hours of work in general. Moreover, if the Netherlands ratified the Convention, only the Schiedam and Delft Glass Works (Vereenigde Glasfabrieken), which employ about 250 workers, would be covered by the international regulations. Since the Convention was therefore of very restricted importance for the Netherlands, the Government did not think it necessary to make proposals for its ratification.

New Zealand. — Submitted to the House of Representatives on 11 September 1936 and to the Legislative Council on 17 September 1936.

Norway. — Ratification registered on 21 July 1936.

Siam. — The competent authorities considered that under the existing conditions of labour in the country the application of the Convention was not yet necessary in Siam, and consequently did not feel it appropriate to take any action in the matter at the present time.

Switzerland. — In a report submitted on 20 April 1936 to the Federal Assembly the Federal Council pointed out that the Convention was of some importance for Switzerland as there were three glass works which would come under the international regulations. The products of this industry were intended solely for home consumption. If the 42-hour week were introduced for workers employed in shifts, as provided by the Convention, difficulties would undoubtedly arise, among which the question of wages would be of first importance since hours of work in the three undertakings still exceeded 48. The question of the application of the Convention must therefore be treated with prudence. Moreover, the preamble of the Convention expressly repeated the principle of the 40-hour week laid down in the general Convention. Switzerland could not at present accept this principle, and could not give it even indirect approval by ratifying the special Convention concerning glass-bottle works. In these circumstances, the Federal Council considered that it could not propose ratification. This attitude, however, should not prevent it from trying, in agreement with the parties concerned, to adapt hours of work gradually to the system laid down in the Convention.

The Federal Assembly approved these conclusions on 17 and 19 June 1936.

Turkey. — Submitted to the Grand National Assembly.

Union of South Africa. — Laid on the table of the House of Assembly on 21 April 1936 and of the Senate on 27 May 1936.

United States. — Submitted by the President to Congress on 18 June 1936.

U.S.S.R. — Submitted to the competent authorities.

Convention No. 51: Reduction of Hours of Work (Public Works), 1936

Australia. — Submitted to Parliament on 19 November 1936.

China. — Submitted to the Legislative Yuan.

Great Britain. — Submitted to Parliament in November 1936.

Irish Free State. — Submitted to the Dail on 25 January 1937.

New Zealand. — Submitted to the House of Representatives on 6 October 1936 and to the Legislative Council on 9 October 1936.

Norway. — In a report to the Storting, submitted on 12 March 1937, the Government proposed that ratification should be postponed.

Portugal. — Submitted to the competent authority on 29 August 1936.

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

Siam. — Submitted to the competent authorities, who are not at present prepared to take any action in the matter.

Sweden. — Submitted to the Riksdag in 1937. The Minister of Social Affairs was unable to recommend ratification, since the reduction of hours of

work on public works was not in accordance with the present Swedish unemployment policy and might place public works financed or subsidised by the State at a financial disadvantage.

Union of South Africa. — The Executive Council decided on 16 November 1936 against ratification of the Convention, since conditions in the Union are not yet suitable for the enforcement of its provisions.

HOURS OF WORK IN COMMERCIAL ESTABLISHMENTS AND OFFICES

National Regulations

Argentina. — By a Decree of 29 September 1936 the application of the legal provisions concerning the 8-hour day, the weekly rest and the Saturday half-holiday, and the conditions of employment of women and children were extended to the staffs of hotels, restaurants, cafés, bars and other similar establishments in the Federal capital. The provisions concerning the 8-hour day do not apply to persons occupying the positions enumerated in the Decree, which are considered as positions of management or of supervision. The time allowed employees for meals in the establishment where they work is not included in the hours of work. Exceptions are allowed in the case of employees engaged on work of an essentially intermittent kind, provided the total hours worked do not exceed 12 in the day or 62 in the week. The time-table must be posted up in each establishment, indicating the hours at which work begins and ends and the rest periods allowed to the staff. Employees who have to work during all or part of the weekly rest period, between 1 p.m. on Saturday and midnight on Sunday, are entitled to time off in compensation. Women and children must have a rest period of at least two hours between their morning and afternoon work.

Australia. — In New South Wales a 35-hour week for sanitary inspectors was instituted by a State arbitration award of 28 August 1936.

In Queensland, under an award given on 23 June 1936, hours of work for civil servants vary between 35½ and 40½ in the week. In July 1936 the Industrial Court made an award which modified a previous award of 10 November 1924 applying to bank employees. Hours of work are fixed at 40 in the week. They may be increased to 46 at the yearly or half-yearly balancing periods, but for not more than 2 weeks.

Belgium. — A Royal Order of 10 February 1936 gave permanent effect to the provisions of the previous Royal Orders temporarily suspending certain hours regulations (including the overtime allowance of 150 hours a year) which had been prescribed for clerical employees in stockbrokers' offices and banks. Experience having shown that exceptions to the 8-hour day and the 48-hour week could be dispensed with, these exceptions were cancelled.

An Order of 30 January 1936 gave motor and lorry drivers employed by undertakings principally engaged in the sale and distribution of petrol and its derivatives the right to distribute the 48 working hours of the week unequally over the 6 working days, provided that not more than 10 hours were worked on any one day.

Certain municipalities, such as that of Louvain, decided to introduce a 40-hour week in municipal services. Under a Royal Order of 20 November 1936, however, the provincial governors have power to veto such measures if these are likely to involve the municipalities in additional expense.

A Congress of delegates of office employees organised by the General Union of Salaried Employees, Technicians, Shop Assistants and Commercial Travellers (Brussels, 19 April 1936) demanded the application of the 40-hour week. The National Federation of Belgian Employees, at its annual Congress (Namur, April 1936), adopted a programme including a proposal that hours of work should be limited with reference to the volume of work available in each occupation. The delegate Congress convened by the Salaried Employees' General Union (Brussels, July 1936) adopted a resolution demanding the application of the 40-hour week, while the Congress of the National Federation of Bank and Stock Exchange Employees (September 1936) asked for a 36-hour week. At a meeting held by delegates of various women's associations (Brussels, 30 March 1936) convened by the Health Service Division of the Belgian Federation of Public Services to discuss the extension of the 8-Hour Day Act to the staff of health services, a resolution was adopted asking the authorities to put an end to the exclusion of health services from the provisions of the Act.

Brazil. — Under an Act of 24 July 1936 the provisions of the Act limiting hours of work for commercial and office employees to 8 in the day and 48 in the week were extended to hotels, restaurants, cafés and similar establishments.

Bulgaria. — A Decree of 30 May 1936 regulating hours of work in commercial establishments cancelled all previous provisions and modified the period during which establishments may remain open, but maintained the 8-hour day. Overtime not exceeding 2 hours a day is allowed in the case of establishments covered by the provisions concerning closing hours, establishments in curative and holiday resorts, and those which are liable to extraordinary pressure of work or have to do work which cannot be delayed. Other exceptions are allowed in the case of festivals, fairs and markets. The Decree does not apply to establishments in the neighbourhood of railway stations which are not less than 1 kilometre outside a town, or to those in towns and villages with a population of under 10,000.

Canada. — Regulations were issued in British Columbia under the Hours of Work Act of 1934. They provide that apprentices in drug stores, chemists' assistants and certified chemists may

work 4 hours more a week than the 48 prescribed by the Act, provided the number of hours worked per day do not exceed 9.

Chile. — The Congress of the Federation of Chilean Salaried Employees (September 1936) demanded that the 8-hour day should be applied in commerce, that considerations should be given to the special position of employees in chemists' shops and drug stores, and that 8 p.m. should be the closing time for these establishments.

Colombia. — The Salaried Employees' Congress (July 1936) adopted a resolution asking Parliament to consider the possibility of passing an Act to introduce the 44-hour week.

Cuba. — By a decision dated 23 September 1936, the Ministry of Labour authorised hospitals, clinics and similar establishments working three 8-hour shifts provisionally to work their staff 8 hours a day and 56 hours a week. This facility is to be withdrawn as soon as the necessary changes have been made in the Decree of 19 October 1933 containing regulations for the administration of the 8-hour-day legislation.

Czechoslovakia. — On 12 December 1935 the Prague Court of Justice gave a decision to the effect that the Hours of Work Act was applicable to hospital staff. Accordingly, hours may not be worked in excess of 48 in the week without a permit from the local authorities, and any overtime worked must be paid for at the agreed higher rates.

At its Congress (Prague, May 1936) the Salaried Employees' Federation demanded immediate measures for reducing hours of work without lowering wages and the adoption of regulations in regard to the weekly rest and opening and closing hours for shops, offices and similar establishments. The Congress also urged that legislation should be introduced forthwith to regulate relations between employers and their travellers and representatives.

Egypt. — At its session on 12 May 1936 the Labour Council discussed the draft of a Bill concerning hours of work in commerce and referred the Bill to the Legislative Committee for final drafting.

France. — The Act of 21 June 1936 which was described above with reference to hours of work in industry¹, also applies to commercial establishments. Several Decrees applying the Act were considered by the Minister of Labour. They would deal with the following branches of commerce: retail chemists' shops and the offices, laboratories, packing shops, and stores connected therewith; hairdressing, manicure, pedicure, and massage establishments, beauty parlours, and wigmakers' workshops; offices, administrative services and private agencies; wholesale and semi-wholesale establishments of all kinds; retail trade other than the

¹ See above, p. 75.

provision trade; food shops (selling liquid and solid food); banks and financial, credit and exchange establishments, insurance institutions of all kinds, and savings societies; hospitals, infirmaries, nursing homes, mental hospitals, sanatoria, establishments for preventive treatment, clinics, dispensaries and all curative establishments, rest homes, convalescent homes, and dietetic establishments; the entertainment industry, including film studios; administrative services, in newspaper establishments, and press agencies. At 15 March 1937 no Decree had as yet been promulgated for any of these occupations.

As distinct from application by Decree, measures applying the 40-hour week were taken in certain State Departments by Ministerial decision. The services in question are: military general staffs and their departments, the Lorient arsenals, and the offices of the Navy. Further, the 40-hour week was also introduced in several municipal services.

A Bill was introduced in the Chamber to regulate hours of work for the staff of domestic services and for domestic servants in private employment. It provides for a maximum of 13 hours' attendance, with 8 hours' actual work. Another Bill was introduced to prevent officials, employees and workers in the service of the State, departments, communes or public establishments, and employees, workers and apprentices employed in private establishments under contracts of employment or of apprenticeship, or again persons in the employment of other private persons, from habitually or occasionally carrying on an industrial, commercial or craftsman's occupation either directly for their own account or through an intermediary.

Questions were put to the Minister of Labour in writing in regard to the conditions of employment of the staff of multiple shops, raising the problem of applying social legislation in special cases. The Minister of Labour replied that the Government would attempt to remedy the situation. It intended to revive and extend a Bill introduced in the Chamber of Deputies by a previous Government in December 1935 and dealing with social legislation for certain categories of workers.

Germany. — Further progress was made in regulating hours of work by collective rules, more especially in wholesale and retail trade and for the staff of hotels, restaurants, and entertainment establishments, hairdressers' assistants, musicians and orchestra conductors. Hours of work are usually fixed at 48 in a week, but longer hours are allowed in several occupations. The staff of hotels and restaurants may work 60 hours a week, and so may hairdressers' assistants. On the other hand, the hours worked by musicians and orchestra conductors in holiday resorts were reduced to 36 in the week.

Great Britain. — A firm of drapers introduced the 40-hour week for all assistants without any loss of earnings. The shop is open for 54½ hours a week, but various time-tables are worked by

individuals or groups of staff in rotation, so that all share in the special advantages of the scheme in turn.

A deputation from the Trades Union Congress submitted a resolution to the Minister of Labour asking that hours of work in commercial undertakings should be limited by law to 48 in the week. The annual conference of the National Union of Distributive and Allied Workers (Cheltenham, April 1936) instructed the Executive to press for a 44-hour week without reduction of pay. In March 1936 a deputation of post office workers requested the Postmaster-General to reduce hours of work from 48 to 40 in the week, with a five-day week, for the manipulative staff, which numbers about 150,000. This would involve the employment of 30,000 additional workers. In the subsequent campaign carried on by the Union of Post Office Workers in support of its request, it was pointed out that during the last few years the output per head of the Post Office workers had increased by more than 20 per cent., but that the staff had not shared in the resulting advantages.

Hungary. — The Association of Private Employees and the National Association of Bank Employees adopted a programme claiming that all unpaid overtime should be abolished, that weekly hours of work should be regulated, and that the prescribed rest periods should be strictly observed.

Irish Free State. — At its annual meeting (February 1936) the Cork branch of the Irish Union of Distributive Workers and Clerks adopted a resolution claiming, among other things, a 40-hour week in shops and offices.

Italy. — Since 22 April 1936 hours of work in public credit institutions and banks, savings banks, and private banks have been fixed as follows: from Monday to Friday hours of work are from 8.30 a.m. to 12.50 p.m., and from 3 to 6.30 p.m., the establishments being open to the public from 9 a.m. to 12.30 p.m., and from 3 to 6 p.m.; on Saturday hours of work are from 8.30 a.m. to 1 p.m., the establishments being open from 9 a.m. to 12 noon. Provision is made for exceptions as regards the hours when establishments are open to the public, more especially in the case of cash departments in rural districts on the occasion of markets and fairs.

The Fascist confederations of employers and workers in banking and insurance institutions accordingly concluded a new agreement under which hours of work in all credit institutions may not exceed 42 in the week. Insurance institutions must apply the time-table laid down in existing collective agreements; in the absence of any such agreement, hours of work may not exceed 7½ in the day (4 on Saturday). Similar provisions apply to the employees of insurance agents, stockbrokers, jobbers, exchange brokers, and firms authorised to collect the taxes on articles of consumption.

Mexico. — The collective agreement mentioned with reference to industrial undertakings, which regulates the conditions of employ-

ment of persons engaged in sugar-beet farming and the manufacture of sugar and by-products, also provides that the 48-hour week shall apply to salaried employees.

Netherlands. — The Minister of Social Affairs decided to apply the provisions of the Labour Act to adult office employees, and announced in this connection that he hoped to issue regulations during the first half of 1937. The Minister also carefully considered the possibility of limiting hours of work for the staff of hotels, cafés and restaurants.

New Zealand. — The Shops and Offices Amendment Act of 8 June 1936 provides that a shop assistant shall not be employed for more than 44 hours a week, 8 hours a day except on one day in the week, when the employment may be for 11 hours, or 4½ hours continuously without an interval of one hour for a meal, or after 12 noon on the half-holiday. Other special provisions regulate the hours of shop assistants and special shop-closing hours. Provision is also made for overtime rates and for the maintenance of wages in the event of working hours being reduced.

It was pointed out earlier, with reference to the 40-hour week in industrial undertakings¹, that the Industrial Conciliation and Arbitration Amendment Act of 8 June 1936 had restored the compulsory powers of the Arbitration Court by providing that disputes not settled by conciliation councils should be automatically referred to the Court for settlement. The Act requires the Court to fix basic wages for workers of both sexes employed in undertakings covered by awards of the Court or by registered collective agreements, and to make a 40-hour week compulsory in all such undertakings except where, in the opinion of the Court, it would be impracticable to carry on efficiently the work of the industry without any extension. On 26 August 1936 the Arbitration Court had to deal with the case of retail shops other than grocers' and butchers' shop. The plaintiffs, the Shop Assistants' Union, asked for a 40-hour week and the abolition of work on Saturdays. In giving its decision, the Court held that the proposed measure would involve the closing of shops from Saturday evening to Monday morning. Existing legislation was based on the principle that hours of work in factories should be shorter than in shops, and this principle had been applied in the legislation fixing hours of work in factories at 40 and in shops at 44. No justification could therefore be found in the Shops and Offices Act for allowing shop assistants a 40-hour week or for abolishing work on Saturday. Saturday was a day for buying, and before giving a decision in regard to the closing of shops on that day, the convenience of the public must be considered. For the convenience of the public it was necessary that shops should remain open on Saturdays; otherwise it would be impossible to carry on certain kinds of retail trade.

¹ See above, p. 91.

Consequently, by a majority decision, the Arbitration Court ruled that in the case of retail shops other than grocers' and butchers' shops, hours of work for shop assistants should not exceed 44 in the week, excluding overtime, and that work might be done on Saturdays.

Norway. — The revised Workers' Protection Act was promulgated on 19 June 1936 and came into force on 1 January 1937. The provisions of this Act, which were summarised with reference to hours of work in industrial undertakings¹, apply also to persons employed in commercial establishments other than commercial travellers and representatives.

Peru. — The Bill to which reference was made in regard to hours of work in industrial undertakings² and which provides that conditions of employment should vary in different months, would also apply to public departments, banks, and commercial establishments.

Portugal. — Under a Legislative Decree of 24 August 1934 limiting hours of work in industrial and commercial establishments, an Order was issued on 20 April 1935 fixing hours of work for staff directly serving the public in cafés at 8 in the day. This provision was inserted in the Legislative Decree of 24 August 1936, amending the Legislative Decree of 1934 in certain respects.

Poland. — The Fourth Delegate Congress of the Union of Employees in Banks and Savings Banks (May 1936) adopted a number of resolutions, one of which called for the strict observance of the 7-hour day.

Rumania. — Under an Act of 17 June 1925 concerning the Sunday rest, which authorises the Chambers of Labour, after consulting the trade unions concerned, to fix for the whole year or for certain seasons the closing hours of commercial establishments in their respective areas, the Minister of Labour had in 1932 fixed hours of work for banks in the capital at 40 in the week. One of the banks appealed against the Ministerial decision, and the Court of Cassation, to which the case was referred, gave a decision to the effect that the Minister had no power under existing legislation to lay down shorter hours than those prescribed by the Hours of Work Act of 1938.

The meeting of the Federation of Salaried Employees' Unions, which was held after the Congresses of the Federation of Private Employees' Unions and the Federation of Private Employees' Professional Associations (24 January 1936), — when these two bodies decided to amalgamate — demanded the introduction of the 40-hour week. The Congress of the General Association

¹ See above, p. 93.

² See above, p. 94.

of Private Employees (Bucarest, January 1936) demanded that legislation concerning hours of work and rest periods in offices should be strictly observed, and that an 8-hour day should be introduced in commercial undertakings. In June 1936 the Federation of Salaried Employees' Unions, too, claimed the extension of the 8-hour day to commerce. The programme of the Central Association of Shop and Office Employees includes a claim for the extension of the legal regulations concerning hours to shops. Finally, the Association of Commercial Travellers and Representatives decided to urge the public authorities to regulate conditions of employment for commercial travellers and commercial and industrial representatives by law.

Sweden. — The Riksdag decided to reduce hours of work for the staff of mental hospitals from 240 hours to 218 hours a month. This decision is a compromise, the Government having originally proposed that the hours should be reduced to 208 in the month and 8 in the day.

United States. — In the previous edition of the *Year-Book*¹, attention was drawn to the fact that, under an Act which came into force on 1 October 1935, postal employees were to have a 40-hour week. An amendment enacted on 7 May 1936 extended the application of the Act to employees in mail equipment shops, and provided that the 40-hour week should be paid for at the same rate as was previously paid for 44 hours. The amendment was made retroactive as from 1 October 1935.

As a result of the introduction of the 40-hour week in the Post Office Department, a great many substitute employees were taken on as regular staff. Owing to the reduction of the working week from 44 to 40 hours, working hours in this, the largest unit of the Government service, were brought down to the level usual in other services, and the number of persons regularly employed increased by 10,101 within the first few weeks after the new regulations were introduced.

Early in 1937 four of the largest department stores in Chicago, employing in the aggregate more than 15,000 persons, voluntarily reduced hours of work from 46½ to 40 in the week, without lowering wages. Under the new time-table, the stores open at 9.30 instead of 9 a.m., but close at 5.30 p.m. as before. Further, the staff has one hour instead of three-quarters for lunch, and two hours off a week.

New legislation adopted during 1936 in the States of New York and Wisconsin provides that hospital staff, nurses and warders in State hospitals and penal institutions shall have an 8-hour day and a 48-hour week.

Uruguay. — A Decree of 15 December 1936 regulates the hours of work of persons employed in places of entertainment open at

¹ Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1935-36*, p. 124.

night. The hours of artistes are from 11 p.m. to 4.15 a.m. on weekdays except Saturdays and the eves of holidays, when they are from 7.15 p.m. to 9 p.m. and from 11 p.m. to 5 a.m. The hours of other categories of staff are the same, except that they may be required to begin work 15 minutes earlier.

Venezuela. — The Labour Act of 16 July 1936, which was mentioned with reference to hours of work in industrial undertakings¹, provides that commercial and office employees shall have a 44-hour week.

*International Regulation*²

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

Peru. — By Decree of 6 March 1936 the President of the Republic approved the Convention and submitted it to Congress for ratification.

U.S.S.R. — Submitted to the competent authorities.

WEEKLY REST

National Regulations

Argentina. — The executive authorities of the Province of Buenos Aires recently issued a Decree on 14 February 1936 containing new regulations for the administration of the Act of 7 January 1908 concerning the weekly rest in industrial and commercial undertakings. The Decree came into force on 1 March 1936, repealing all previous Decrees issued under the Act, and making provision for exceptions in various industries and in commerce. No exception was allowed, however, for women other than telephone operators or for children under 16 years.

Although the National Congress had already decided that persons employed in the driving and upkeep of motors should have a weekly rest, the Government had stated that this extension could not be carried out in practice. The Chamber and the Senate confirmed their decision and passed an Act implying that motor drivers should have a weekly rest since it provides that "work on fixed or mobile motors and motor driving shall not be treated as domestic service" (domestic service being outside the scope of the Act).

A similar decision was taken by the Minister of Education and Public Works in the Province of Santa Fé. Motor drivers employed by private persons are to have an uninterrupted rest of 35 hours every week, or three half-days totalling 35 hours.

Belgium. — A Royal Order of 14 September 1936 extended to the nitrogen industry (chemical factories) the exceptions provided

¹ See above, p. 104.

² The information given here relates only to the period 16 March 1936-15 March 1937. See the tables at the end of the volume for the general situation as regards the Convention.

in the Act of 17 July 1905 concerning the Sunday rest for industries in which work, owing to its nature, does not allow of interruption or delay. Workers employed on continuous operations are to have 36 hours' uninterrupted rest every three weeks, and their total rest during the year must be not less than 26 days.

The Joint Committee for the Meat Industry unanimously decided to approach the Minister of Labour with regard to the application of the Sunday rest. Although hours of work for butchers' establishments are at present limited to 48 in the week, employers are allowed to work their staff 9 hours on Sundays.

A special committee examined the question of weekly rest for customs officials. Satisfactory experiments having been made with a weekly rest for rural and frontier officials, it was decided that the scheme should be extended to all services for six months, with a view to permanent adoption.

Brazil. — The President of the Republic approved an enactment regulating hours of work for public servants employed by the Union, the States or municipalities, or in transport, gas and electricity, postal, telegraph, telephone and auxiliary services operated under a concession. The Act provides that hours of work shall be 48 in the week, with 24 hours' uninterrupted rest for each period of six days.

Canada. — A Bill introduced in the Legislative Assembly of Saskatchewan provides that workers shall not be employed after 12.30 p.m. on the weekly half-holiday.

Colombia. — Under a Ministerial Order which came into force on 1 December 1936, hours of work for employees engaged in receiving telegrams on Sundays and public holidays are so regulated as to allow for an adequate rest period.

Estonia. — In pursuance of his Decree dated 17 June 1936, the President of the Republic amended the Act of 17 December 1925 concerning the weekly rest in industrial undertakings, by inserting provisions concerning workers employed in newspaper-printing offices, who are to have at least 24 hours' uninterrupted rest on Sundays and public holidays.

France. — The various Decrees issued in application of the Act of 21 June 1936 which introduced the 40-hour week for industrial and commercial undertakings and regulates hours of work in coal mines contain provisions making the weekly rest appreciably longer. As regards industry proper, the Decrees usually leave the undertakings free to choose between three methods of distributing hours of work over the week: (1) limitation of hours of actual work to 8 in the day on five weekdays, with either Saturday or Monday off; (2) limitation of hours of actual work to 6 hours 40 minutes on each working day; (3) unequal distribution of the 40 hours (or 38 hours 40 minutes) over the weekdays, subject to a maximum of 8 hours a day, and with one half-day off per week.

In every case the workers' unions tried to reach an agreement with the employers' associations for the adoption of the first system, i.e. the 5-day week. As regards staff employed on work which must be carried on without a break at any time of the day, night or week, the Decrees provide that every worker shall have an uninterrupted rest of not less than 24 hours a week.

In mines, the weekly hours of work must normally be divided over five weekdays, with an uninterrupted rest of 48 hours, except in special cases, e.g. for office staff.

For the work of dockers, the method adopted, unless otherwise provided, is the second indicated above.

The Decree applying the Act of 21 June 1936 to the staffs of the main railway systems contains the following provisions: (a) train staff must on an average have one 40-hours' rest at home every seven days; (b) staff employed in management, inspection and supervisory services for which no time-table can be established are to have, every month, at least four long periodical rests, the length of which is not stated, though it is understood that the hours worked per week may not exceed an average of 40 calculated over a period of four consecutive weeks; further, in addition to these 48 periodical rests a year, such staff is to have, every three months, an extra periodical rest, which may be joined to one of the 48; (c) as regards staff other than that mentioned under (a) and (b) above, each railway company is free to distribute hours of work according to one of the three methods mentioned above with reference to the other Decrees.

A number of Orders were issued by prefects with regard to weekly closing for food shops, particularly in the Seine Department. After various experiments it was finally decided that in that Department retail establishments selling dairy produce, poultry, game, beverages not consumed on the premises, grocery, and fruit should be closed to the public on Mondays. Special measures were contemplated, in the Seine and other Departments, for bakeries; in this connection, there was some disagreement between the advocates and opponents of the system of closing by rotation.

Several Bills were introduced in the Chamber of Deputies. One of these proposed to amend certain sections in the Labour Code by authorising the granting of the weekly rest by rotation in certain categories of undertakings, when their normal working or the convenience of the public would suffer if the whole staff were to take their weekly rest simultaneously on Sunday. Another Bill was introduced to regulate hours of work and the weekly rest for the staff of domestic services, by applying the provisions of the Labour Code to such staff and to domestic servants in the employment of private persons.

A Bill concerning the weekly rest for agricultural workers was also introduced in the Chamber, and favourably reported on by the competent committee.

Great Britain. — The Shops (Sunday Trading Restriction) Act, which received the Royal Assent on 31 July 1936, provides that

all shops, with the exception of those for the sale of intoxicating liquors, meals or refreshments (but not fried-fish shops), sweets and ice-cream, milk, medicine, motor supplies, tobacco, newspapers, and certain other commodities, shall be closed for the serving of customers on Sunday.

Hungary. — The weekly rest for food shops in the larger towns was provisionally regulated by an Order of the Minister of Commerce dated 8 July 1935. Such shops are to be closed on Sundays, provided adequate arrangements are made for urban food supply. A supplementary Order of 17 February 1936 fixed hours for the sale of bread, pastry, fruit, milk and dairy produce on Sundays. Lastly, an Order of 8 December 1936 regulated the question of Sunday work in pastrycooks' establishments.

Iraq. — The Labour Act of 25 April 1936 provides that every worker shall be entitled to a rest period of not less than 24 consecutive hours after each working period of six days.

Italy. — In a circular addressed to prefects in July 1936 with reference to hairdressers and barbers, the Minister of Labour confirmed the principle of Sunday closing for shops. He again stressed the need of granting the weekly rest on the same day, and so far as possible on Sunday, for all hairdressers and barbers.

A Ministerial Decree of 7 November 1936 provided that the weekly rest should be granted by rotation to the staff of station buffets, provided that only customers with railway tickets were served on Sundays.

Mexico. — Under the Act of 20 February 1936 concerning the payment of wages for the weekly rest day, the State authorities are free to allow for the special circumstances and needs of each locality when promulgating administrative regulations.

The State of Coahuila issued administrative regulations on 28 April 1936, and regulations came into force in the State of Durango on 3 May 1936. Under both regulations full wages are payable for the weekly day of rest. Any worker who, owing to reasons for which the employer is responsible, does not work every day of the week, is entitled to his full wages for the rest day. Any worker who under his contract of employment is employed for less than six days a week is entitled to one-sixth of his weekly earnings for the day off; a worker who works for his employer on his day off is entitled to double pay for that day.

Similar regulations came into force on 3 May in the State of Mexico. They provide that Sunday shall be a compulsory rest day for all workers. Employers are not entitled to require any worker to work on that day, exceptions being allowed only in the case of public or private motor transport, undertakers, florists, fruit and vegetable shops, the sale of souvenirs, newspaper offices, hotels and restaurants, seaside and tourist resorts, public entertainments, the sale of petrol, pastry, fresh beverages and milk, domestic service,

and undertakings which cannot interrupt their work without serious inconvenience. Partial exceptions are allowed in the case of photographers, butchers' shops, laundries, baths, hairdressers, and bakers. Special regulations will apply to chemists' shops.

Netherlands Indies. — On 21 September 1936 the Governor-General of the Netherlands Indies, in agreement with the Volksraad, issued an Ordinance amending the section of the Netherlands Indies Civil Code which relates to the Sunday rest. In principle, this section applies only to Europeans, but it may in some cases be applied to persons of other races. Before the section was amended by the new Ordinance, the employer was required to organise his undertaking in such a way as to avoid employing workers on Sundays, but in practice this rule was not strictly observed. Now employers may not suspend the application of the Sunday rest unless the nature of the work makes it necessary for them to do so, and in such cases they must give their workers at least two Sundays off a month. In order to ensure stricter observance of the weekly rest regulations, it is provided that a worker who is required to work on the regulation rest day shall be entitled to cash compensation equal to twice his daily wage.

When the new Ordinance was being discussed, the Volksraad adopted a resolution requesting the Governor-General to fix a minimum number of days of rest a year and a maximum number of hours of work a day for workers to whom the Civil Code does not apply.

Norway. — The Workers' Protection Act, which was promulgated on 19 June 1936 and came into force on 1 January 1937, contains provisions relating to the weekly rest and public holidays. It provides that work shall cease at 6 p.m. on Saturdays and the eves of public holidays and at 3 p.m. on New Year's Eve, Easter Eve, and the Saturday before Whit Sunday; work may not be resumed until 10 p.m. on the following Sunday or public holiday. Exceptions are allowed, for instance, for maintenance, repair, heating, etc., work, watchkeeping and supervision, shops, transport undertakings, postal, telegraph and telephone services, hospitals and similar establishments.

Spain. — An Order issued by the Minister of Labour, Public Health and Social Welfare on 19 May 1936 regulates the weekly rest for drivers of private vehicles.

Switzerland. — The Federal Department of National Economy addressed a circular to the Cantonal Governments on 2 June 1936 concerning the application of the Federal Weekly Rest Act. The main object of the circular was to unify the administrative regulations applicable to small undertakings, which are allowed some latitude with regard to the interpretation of the Federal Act.

Uruguay. — The Weekly Rest Act of 23 November 1936 provides that throughout the country shops must be shut on Sunday. This

provision does not apply to bars and wine shops attached to other establishments, provided the premises are completely independent and are separately staffed. All establishments other than shops are likewise prohibited from selling goods on Sundays.

International Regulation

*Convention No. 14: Weekly Rest (Industry), 1921*¹

Argentina. — Ratification registered on 26 May 1936.

Norway. — A Bill proposing ratification was submitted to the Storting in March 1937.

Peru. — By Decree of 6 March 1936 the President of the Republic approved the Convention and submitted it to Congress for ratification.

U.S.S.R. — Submitted to the competent authorities.

NIGHT WORK IN BAKERIES

National Regulations

Canada. — On 18 December 1936 a delegation of the Confederation of Catholic Workers in Canada asked the Prime Minister that effect should be given to the Convention concerning night work in bakeries.

Estonia. — An Act of 8 December 1936 cancelled the previous provisions, and the administrative regulations issued under this Act on 18 December embodied in a single text the various regulations for the administration of the Act of 25 March 1929. The amendments to the sections concerning the international Convention, which has been ratified by Estonia, dealt only with points of detail.

France. — In November 1936 the Superior Labour Council discussed night work in bakeries and came to the following conclusions: the prohibition should apply to a period of 7 consecutive hours necessarily including the interval between 10 p.m. and 4 a.m.; this prohibition should be established in a general manner by law and should apply to employers and workers alike; it should extend to bread factories but not to bread-making for personal use.

The Council considered that no permanent exceptions should be allowed and that temporary exceptions should be authorised only in unavoidable circumstances, recognised as such by the public authorities after consultation with the employers' and workers' organisations concerned.

It seemed to the Council that the time when bread is sold or delivered had no connection with the time of starting work and

¹ The information given here relates only to the period 16 March 1936-15 March 1937. See the tables at the end of the volume for the general situation as regards the Convention.

that bakeries should be left free to sell and deliver bread baked on the previous evening at any time suitable to themselves. It was essential not to confuse questions of manufacture, sale and delivery.

Germany. — An Act of 29 June 1936 concerning hours of work in bakeries and pastrycooks' shops cancelled the provisions of the Act of 26 September 1934 and made it illegal for anyone to work between 9 p.m. and 4 a.m., whereas under the previous Act work was forbidden until 4.30 a.m. Selling to customers is allowed between 6.30 a.m. and 10 p.m., and delivery to retailers between 6.15 a.m. and 10 p.m.

Great Britain. — In November 1936 a delegation of the Amalgamated Union of Bakers, Confectioners and Allied Trades in Great Britain and Ireland and a delegation of the Scottish Union of Bakers and Confectioners again asked the Home Secretary to insert in the Factories Bill provisions prohibiting night work in bakeries.

The Bill, which was introduced in the House of Commons on 29 June 1937, contains no provisions relating to night baking. In view of the conflict of opinion between the operative and master bakers, the Home Secretary did not see fit to insert such provisions in the Bill, but appointed a committee to consider the possible effects of the prohibition of night baking on the supply of bread to the public and the developments which had taken place in the bakery industry since a committee reported in favour of the prohibition in 1919.

When the Bill was discussed on 11 February 1937 several members of Parliament, speaking on behalf of employers and workers, deplored the evils of night baking. The member who expressed the views of the master bakers said he was in a position to state that the employers were just as opposed to night baking as the operatives, but did not, for the time being, see any way out, owing to competition from unorganised employers, on the one hand, and unorganised workers, on the other.

Hungary. — At the request of one of its affiliated organisations, the Central Federation of Industrial Corporations carried out an enquiry among its members concerning the expediency of amending the Act prohibiting night work in bakeries in such a way as to allow of work beginning an hour earlier than under the existing regulations, that is, at 3 a.m. instead of 4 a.m., throughout the country with the exception of the capital. Of the 152 organisations consulted, 112 were in favour of the amendment and 40 were against. The Central Federation communicated the replies to the Minister of Commerce, who did not think it expedient to contemplate any amendment of the legal provisions.

In September 1936 the Congress of the National Association of Master Bakers adopted a resolution urging it should be made possible to begin work at 1 a.m. in the provinces.

Irish Free State. — An Act of 14 August 1936, intended to give effect to the Convention, applies to all bakeries manufacturing bread, pastry or other flour confectionery.

Night work is forbidden during 7 consecutive hours which must include the interval between 11 p.m. and 5 a.m. The Minister of Industry and Commerce may issue regulations substituting either generally or for a particular part of the year, and either for the whole of the Irish Free State or for a specified area, the period between 10 p.m. and 4 a.m. for the period between 11 p.m. and 5 a.m., if the climate or any particular season requires such substitution or after consultation with the employers' and workers' organisations concerned. The Act also applies to the work of employers.

Permanent exceptions are allowed for preparatory or complementary work which must be done outside normal working hours and for work necessary to secure the weekly rest period.

Temporary exceptions are also provided for unusual pressure of work, national emergency, accidents or imminent accidents, urgent repairs to plant or machinery, unavoidable circumstances, and when necessary to avoid serious interference with the ordinary working of the establishment.

Yugoslavia. — An Order of 27 May 1936 regulating hours of work in bakeries prohibits work between 3 p.m. and 3 a.m. if organised in one shift, and between 7 p.m. and 3 a.m. if organised in two shifts. Bakeries wishing to organise two shifts must notify the police authorities, giving the time-table of each shift.

Permanent exceptions are allowed for preparatory work and for bakeries attached to hospitals, sanatoria, etc., and military bakeries. The prefect may also authorise exceptions in favour of health and tourist resorts, etc., towns with less than 5,000 inhabitants, and villages.

Provision is made for temporary exceptions on the occasion of fairs, festivals, and popular gatherings and in unavoidable circumstances.

International Regulation

*Convention No. 20: Night Work (Bakeries), 1925*¹

Irish Free State. — Ratification registered on 15 March 1937.

U.S.S.R. — Submitted to the competent authorities.

SHOP CLOSING

Bulgaria. — An Order of 30 May 1936 cancelled previous provisions concerning hours of work in commerce and business hours

¹ The information given here relates only to the period 16 March 1936-15 March 1937. See the tables at the end of the volume for the general situation as regards the Convention.

for shops, and issued new regulations. Shops may now remain open for a maximum period of 11 hours a day. Opening and closing times may vary with the season but must fall, as a general rule, between 7 a.m. and 8.30 p.m. Under previous legislation, closing time was fixed at 7 p.m. The new Order establishes a time-table for certain classes of shops, and contains provisions relating to hours of work and exceptions which are similar to those previously in force.

Canada. — In Saskatchewan the Village Act of 1 April 1936 provides that any village council may by by-law require that during the whole or any part of the year any class of shops shall be closed on each or any day of the week during any time between 6 p.m. and 5 a.m. No such by-law may be passed unless upon petition signed by not less than three-quarters of the occupiers of the shops concerned.

Ecuador. — On 11 September 1936 the Minister of Social Welfare amended the regulations concerning hairdressers' shops. On weekdays these shops are no longer subject to provisions as to closing hours, but they must remain closed from 12 noon on Sunday to 1 p.m. on Monday.

Iceland. — An Act of 1 February 1936, relating to local rules for shop closing, repealed all previous provisions and authorised local authorities to issue orders concerning the closing of shops and hours for selling other than in shops. These orders must be submitted to the Government for approval.

Germany. — The Act of 6 July 1934, with administrative regulations dated 14 August 1934, had exempted sales by means of automatic machines from the provisions relating to shop closing. Further administrative regulations, dated 22 August 1936, enumerate the articles which may be sold by means of such machines.

Italy. — Under the Act of 16 June 1932 the prefects are empowered, after consulting the municipal authorities and obtaining the agreement of the employers' and workers' organisations concerned, to fix opening and closing hours for shops on weekdays. The prefectorial orders having given rise in some localities, particularly the large towns, to difficulties affecting consumers as well as shopkeepers, the Minister of Corporations requested all prefects to revise existing orders and to fix the following closing hours for shops in the large towns: clothing, furniture, etc., shops, 7.30 p.m. (8 p.m. on the eves of public holidays); provision shops, 8 p.m. (8.30 p.m. on the eves of public holidays); florists' shops, 8 p.m.; confectioners' and pastrycooks' shops, 9.30 p.m. (if attached to cafés, etc., the hours fixed for the latter establishments). Temporary and partial exceptions may be allowed in special cases.

Japan. — A Shop Hours Bill, drafted by the Bureau of Social Affairs in 1931¹, had been communicated to the Chambers of Commerce and various employers' organisations for their views. Some of these bodies having replied favourably, the Government decided in December 1936 to take steps to have the Bill discussed at an early session of the Diet. The proposed regulations apply to the two million retail shops in the country, including the department stores. Closing time will be 9 or 10 p.m., according to season. Each employee will be entitled to one day's holiday a month, with pay.

The Japan Chamber of Commerce and Industry, apprehensive of competition from the department stores, made certain reservations concerning the Bill, but the Tokyo Chamber of Commerce came out in favour of it. Moreover, the Retail Shopkeepers' Union of the district of Tokyo submitted a memorandum to the Bureau of Social Affairs in which it stressed the desirability of an Act on these lines. Another employers' organisation, the Nagoya Chamber of Commerce and Industry, which submitted a copy of the Bill to all its members, considered that the opposition of employers to the scheme had greatly diminished.

Lithuania. — At Memel the Act of 6 June 1935 concerning the closing of shops on weekdays fixes the period 7 a.m.-7 p.m. as that during which shops may be open (it was 6 a.m.-8 p.m. under the previous legislation); closing time is 6 p.m. from 16 May to 15 September, except on Fridays and Saturdays. The local police authorities may allow exceptions on fifteen evenings a year, and may authorise the opening of provision shops before 7 a.m. but in no case before 4 a.m. Further, they may allow hairdressers to keep their shops open until 8 p.m. on Saturdays. Street selling is prohibited at the times at which shops are required to be closed.

Malta. — The Hours of Employment Ordinance of 3 July 1936 empowers the Governor to make orders fixing the hours on the several days of the week during which places of employment must be closed to the public.

Mexico. — In Yucatan Regulations of 21 March 1936 fix the days and hours during which commercial establishments may be open to the public. For the purpose of the Regulations most shops are divided into two classes, for which different hours are prescribed. Those in the first class may be open on five days a week from 7 to 11.30 a.m. and from 1.30 to 5 p.m.; those in the second class may be open on five days a week from 8 a.m. to 12 noon and from 2 to 6 p.m. Retail grocers' shops may be open from 7 a.m. to 6 p.m. or from 6 a.m. to 8 p.m., according to district. Tobacconists' shops may be open daily from 8 a.m. to 12 midnight. On Saturdays shops must be closed at 12 noon or at 2 p.m., according to class.

¹ Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1931*, p. 204.

ANNUAL HOLIDAYS WITH PAY

National Regulations

Australia. — The system of holidays with pay was further extended during 1936 by arbitration awards in the different States. A large number of awards, applying to a variety of industries, provide for a holiday with pay, usually between one and two weeks in length, after one year's service. In certain cases, e.g. for municipal employees, printing workers, bank employees, hospital staffs, etc., the holiday is 3 weeks.

According to an award for the mining industry given by the Arbitration Court of Western Australia on 6 October 1936 each miner is entitled to 12 days' annual leave on full pay, provided he has worked 267 shifts during the twelve preceding months; a proportionate holiday (or payment) is granted if he has worked less than this number of shifts. Workers on piece rates receive when on holiday the minimum rate for their grade. It is provided that, without prejudice to the other rights of the employer, the holding of a pithead meeting during working hours (except with the consent of the management) and refusal to work absolutely necessary overtime shall involve the deduction of one day's holiday; and that taking part in a strike shall involve the deduction of one or two days' holiday for every working day lost.

Belgium. — An Act of 8 July 1936 established a scheme of annual holidays with pay covering practically all occupations except agriculture and employment at sea; it excludes undertakings where only members of the family, under the authority of the father, mother or guardian are occupied, and those employing less than ten persons; the provisions of the Act may, however, be extended by Royal Order to those employing at least five persons. All members of the staff—workers, salaried employees, and apprentices—of any undertaking or establishment covered by the Act are entitled, after 1 year's service with the same employer, to at least 6 days' annual holiday with pay. The detailed administration of the Act was left to be dealt with in a Royal Order. Further, special schemes for branches of industry or commerce where the work is of a seasonal nature may also be introduced by Royal Order. The worker must receive his usual pay during the whole holiday. He remains entitled to the holiday notwithstanding any agreement to the contrary, and contracting out of the right to a holiday is prohibited. Infringement of the provisions of the Act is punished by a fine of 100 to 300 francs or imprisonment for 8 days to one month. For a second offence within five years of a first conviction, the penalty may be doubled.

A Royal Order of 15 August 1936 deals with the administration of the Act. It contains provisions concerning the period of continuous service giving a right to a holiday and the fixing of the date of the holiday. This must be given in any case within 12 months

following acquisition of the right, except in 1936, when it had to be granted before 31 December. From 1937 onwards, the holiday period must lie between 1 April and 31 October. Statutory public holidays and justified suspensions of work may not be deducted from the annual paid holiday. The holiday may be divided only at the worker's request, and then only on condition that he has a principal holiday consisting of at least 3 days plus an ordinary rest day immediately before, after or between them. The division of the holiday into half-days is prohibited in all cases. The holiday pay must be calculated on the basis of the average daily pay received for the three months preceding the holiday (total earnings divided by the number of days of actual work). The worker is also entitled to the equivalent of any part of the wage which may be paid in kind. The holiday pay is forfeited if the worker undertakes any paid work during his holiday. If he leaves his employment either voluntarily or at the instance of the employer before taking the holiday due to him, he is entitled to holiday pay in proportion to the number of days due. Heads of undertakings must keep a register permitting the authorities to verify their observance of the statutory provisions, and are liable to the penalties provided in the Act in the event of infringement.

As the Act came into force in July, its application in 1936 gave rise to a large number of agreements in the national joint committees for different industries, to which effect was given by Royal Orders.

Bulgaria. — A Legislative Decree of 5 September 1936, relating to contracts of employment, provides for holidays with pay for all employed persons. When a worker has been in the service of the same employer for 2 years, whether continuously or not, he is entitled to at least 7 days' annual holiday with pay. The holiday may not be divided. Every worker must receive his holiday during the year for which it is due; the employer may, however, refuse to grant it at a time when more than 5 per cent. of his staff are already on holiday. If for any reason a worker has not taken his holiday for three years, he is entitled to a minimum of 15 days' holiday with pay.

Cuba. — A Decree of 10 July 1936 took the place of the administrative regulations issued on 18 December 1935 under the Act of 22 March 1935 concerning holidays with pay. According to the new Decree, the provisions of the Act apply only to industrial and commercial undertakings employing over 5 workers or salaried employees. Agricultural workers and domestic servants are excluded. In determining the period of service bringing with it the right to a holiday, hours of work are reckoned at the rate of 8 per day, 208 per month, 1,248 per half-year, and 2,496 per year. Continuity of service is not regarded as affected by interruptions due to sickness, accident, *force majeure*, strike or lock-out. The payment due to the worker for his holiday must be made in advance with no deduction; the part of his wages which is normally paid in

kind must be replaced by a cash allowance. All contracting out of the right to a holiday is void, as also any stipulation of a contract of employment, individual or collective, which directly or indirectly hinders, limits or restricts the exercise of this right. The holiday must be allowed within six months of the date on which the employed person acquires his right to it. If the requirements of the undertaking make such action indispensable, the holiday may be either carried over or reduced, with cash compensation in the latter case. The regulations provide that such compensation may not be less than one-third of the pay due to the worker for the days of holiday withheld. The employer may increase the holiday period for reasons of seniority, high output or health, but such action cannot constitute a precedent.

A Presidential Decision of 29 July 1936 lays down that, as one of the objects of the paid holiday is to reduce unemployment, the undertaking may not be closed down and a collective holiday given; workers on holiday must be replaced by unemployed.

France. — As soon as it took office, the new Government introduced a Bill in the Chamber of Deputies on 9 June 1936 to establish annual holidays with pay. This was speedily discussed and voted by Parliament, and became law on 20 June 1936.

The Act provides that every worker, salaried employee, and apprentice employed in industry, commerce, a liberal profession or a co-operative undertaking, and every journeyman and apprentice attached to a handicraft workshop, is entitled to an annual holiday with pay of at least 2 weeks, including at least 12 working days, after one year's uninterrupted service in the same establishment. If the ordinary holiday period of the establishment occurs after 6 months of uninterrupted service, the worker is entitled to a continuous holiday of 1 week with pay. He must receive for his holiday period an allowance equal to the amount he would have earned during that period if he is paid by time rates, or equal to the average remuneration earned during an equivalent period in the previous year if he is paid by any other system. Any agreement by which he waives his right to the holiday, even if provision is made for a compensatory allowance, is void. Agreements for taking holidays in instalments are allowed.

The Act provides, further, that for professions, industries, and branches of commerce in which the workers are not usually engaged continuously throughout the year in the same establishment, a Decree should be issued determining the manner in which the provisions of the Act were to be applied—as, for instance, by the establishment of compensation funds by the employers concerned. Public administrative regulations were to determine the conditions under which holidays with pay should be granted to workers and salaried employees in the agricultural occupations and persons in domestic service.

Administrative regulations of 1 August 1936 define *inter alia* the period during which holidays shall be taken, the period of continu-

ous service required, the compensation in lieu of holiday due in case of termination of the contract by the employer without serious fault on the worker's part, the payment of wages for the holiday, the calculation of that part of the wage which is paid in kind, and the damages which may be required as a penalty if a worker accepts any paid work during his holiday. Provision is made for supervisory measures. There are also transitional arrangements with regard to the granting of paid holidays in 1936.

The provisions of the Holidays with Pay Act were extended to Martinique, Guadeloupe, Réunion, French Guiana, and New Caledonia by a Decree of 14 December 1936.

Germany. — The collective rules issued during 1936 continued to extend paid holiday schemes to different groups of workers on the lines indicated in the *Year-Book* for 1935-36¹.

Under the collective rules for the metal industry in the Central German district, the holiday for 1936 was fixed as follows: 4 working days after 6 months' service in the undertaking; 6 days after 1 year's service; 7 days after 4 years' service, rising to 12 working days for workers with 15 years' service in the undertaking. For apprentices in the first or second year of their articles and for young persons under 16 years of age the holiday was fixed at 12 working days, and could be increased to 18 days for young persons desiring to join a Hitler Youth camp.

In the cardboard industry holidays for all workers over 18 years of age are fixed at a minimum of 6 days after one year's service, 7 days after 4 years, and 8 days after 5 years; the maximum is reached with 10 days after 12 years' service. Apprentices and young persons of 14 and 15 years receive 12 working days' holiday, and those over 16 years receive 10 working days.

Guiding principles for the granting of holidays in 1936 were issued in the Rhine district. The minimum holiday for workers over 18 years of age was 6 working days after 9 months' service; the increase according to length of service depended on individual output. For apprentices and young persons the holiday was fixed at 12 to 9 working days according to age and length of apprenticeship. War-cripples and persons disabled in industrial accidents were entitled to at least 18 days' holiday.

Some of the collective rules make the length of the holiday depend on seniority in the occupation. For instance, the rules for the retail trade in the district of Westphalia provide for a minimum holiday of 12 working days for all employees who have been in the occupation for at least 5 years, and of 14 working days after 10 years. Further advances depend on age, seniority in the occupation, and efficiency.

There was a movement in 1936 to provide annual holidays with pay for home workers. With this object, the labour trustee for

¹ Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1935-36*, p. 135.

the Nordmark issued guiding principles according to which payment for the holiday is to be calculated on the basis of hourly wages. In case of piece work without mention of an hourly rate, payment must be calculated on the basis of aggregate earnings in the 12 months preceding the holiday; for each day the worker receives $\frac{1}{3}$ per cent. of this aggregate, so that the total payment for the 6 days' holiday is 2 per cent. of annual earnings. In agreement with these principles, annual holidays with pay are allowed throughout Germany to home workers in the following trades: ready-made clothing for men and boys, manufacture of uniforms, manufacture of ties, gloves, underclothing, and aprons. The same applies in the most important districts to the following: manufacture of leather goods for sport, travel, etc.; ladies' dresses, blouses, costumes, coats and raincoats; capmaking; cutlery; furriers; manufacture of lampshades.

In the building and allied trades the national collective rules for 1936 established a holiday stamp system, to come into operation on 1 September of that year. The employer must stick a holiday stamp each week on to a special card for each worker, the value of the stamp being 2 per cent. of total earnings for adult workers, 3 per cent. for disabled workers, and 4 per cent. for young persons. The length of the holiday is 4 days after a minimum of 32 weeks' work and 6 days after 48 weeks. In this way, irrespective of the frequency with which a building worker changes his employer, he retains the right to a holiday. The date of the holiday is fixed by the employer in agreement with the worker, and must be taken within six days of the cashing of the holiday card at the post office. For foremen and leading hands in building and allied industries, the holiday is 8 days after 32 weeks' work and 12 days after 48 weeks; the value of the stamps in this case is 4 per cent. of gross wages.

Great Britain. — A Bill to provide an annual holiday of 8 consecutive days with pay for all employed persons, including persons under contract of service and apprenticeship, passed its second reading in the House of Commons and was committed to a Standing Committee.

The Government announced its intention of setting up a committee of investigation, on which both employers and trade unions would be represented, to examine the position with regard to the granting of holidays with pay and the practical limits within which this practice might be extended.

According to statistics published by the Ministry of Labour in April 1936, it is estimated that approximately $1\frac{1}{2}$ million manual wage earners at present receive holidays with pay under general or district agreements. The provisions of the agreements vary widely, but most provide for an annual paid holiday of from 3 to 12 days, after from 6 to 12 months' consecutive service.

During the year numerous undertakings granted paid holidays on their own initiative.

Iraq. — The Labour Act of 25 April 1936 provides that every worker in an industrial undertaking employing more than 10 persons is entitled to 10 days' holiday with full pay for each year's work.

Irish Free State. — The Conditions of Employment Act, 1936, provides that each worker in an industrial undertaking, except in the transport industry and the mines, is entitled to not less than 6 consecutive days' leave in every complete employment year, during which he must have worked not less than 1,800 hours (1,500 for young persons); Sundays and public holidays may not be reckoned as days of annual leave. Workers on time rates receive payment for the holiday at the rate payable immediately before its commencement; workers on piece rates and those whose remuneration is calculated partly on a time-rate and partly on a piece-rate basis receive payment at the average daily rate of earnings for the period in respect of which the leave is allowed. The date of the holiday is fixed by the employer, who is required to give notice to the worker in writing not less than two weeks before the day fixed.

Italy. — The Ministry of Corporations issued instructions to the Fascist confederations of employers and workers, according to which the right to the annual holiday with pay cannot be annulled by any event subsequent to its acquisition. It follows that, when once this right has been acquired, neither dismissal on whatever grounds (even including the fault of the person concerned) nor voluntary resignation can deprive the worker of it. The only exception permissible is the case in which the worker is discharged after acquiring the right to the holiday, but by reason of circumstances arising before such acquisition.

The confederations were accordingly required to make the necessary amendments to the provisions of collective agreements in force.

Netherlands. — Official figures published by the Central Statistical Office show that 1,229 collective agreements were in force on 1 June 1936, applying to 252,312 persons employed in 38,761 undertakings, and that 898 of these, applying to 186,793 persons, or nearly 74 per cent. of all industrial workers, included provisions relating to annual holidays; 874 of these agreements, applying to 184,205 persons, provided for the payment of wages during the holiday, and 158, applying to 8,219 persons, provided for a special holiday allowance in addition to normal wages.

Norway. — The Workers' Protection Act of 19 June 1936, which came into force on 1 January 1937, provides that every worker who has been employed in the same undertaking for 12 consecutive months is entitled to at least 9 days' holiday with pay; if the period of service is less than one year but not less than 6 months, he is entitled to a holiday of proportionate length. For workers on piece rates, the payment for the holiday is calculated

on the basis of average earnings unless some other system is introduced by agreement. If part of the wage is paid in kind, the worker is entitled to cash compensation. The date of the holiday is fixed by the employer, but must fall between 15 May and 15 September as a general rule. Any worker who leaves his employment before receiving his holiday is entitled to cash compensation. The provisions relating to annual holidays with pay apply to the groups of workers excluded from the scope of the hours of work provisions—*inter alia*, persons in positions of supervision and management, commercial travellers and representatives, workers in the forestry and timber-floating industry, staffs of theatres, hotels and restaurants, and teachers.

Peru. — A Decree of 17 December 1936 contains provisions relating to the calculation of pay for the annual holiday (Act of 8 April 1932). A worker paid by the day receives wages for 13 working days, or 15 if his work is such that it must be done on Sundays and public holidays. A worker on piece rates receives a sum equal to his total earnings during the fortnight preceding the holiday, or the last fortnight in which he worked on all working days.

Sweden. — In June 1936 the Government appointed a committee of experts to assist the Ministry of Social Affairs in an enquiry into the legal regulation of the right of employed persons to an annual holiday. In this connection, the Minister stated that the system of holidays was in wide operation, but the length of the holiday was in fact so limited (a minimum of 4 days a year) that it failed to provide employed persons with the necessary recreation and rest. The proposed committee, he said, was to consider the adoption of general and binding legislation concerning holidays with pay for all categories of employed persons, including State and municipal employees; another point it would examine was whether holidays could be provided for seasonal and other workers engaged on a temporary basis; it would also collaborate with the committee engaged in enquiring into the conditions of employment of domestic servants.

When the draft Conventions and Recommendations adopted by the International Labour Conference at its Twentieth Session were submitted to the Riksdag at the beginning of the 1937 session, the Minister of Social Affairs referred to the work of the above-mentioned committee and expressed the view that it would be desirable to await its report before taking any decision as regards ratification of the Holidays with Pay Convention. It is expected that the committee will report before the end of 1937, in order that the Government may introduce a Bill during the 1938 session of the Riksdag.

Switzerland. — On 8 January 1937 a committee of representatives of employers' and employees' organisations met at Berne to discuss the question of paid holidays; the Director of the Federal Office

of Industry, Arts and Crafts, and Labour was in the chair. Its discussions showed that holidays with pay were very common in Switzerland; since the depression, however, there had been a setback, and the rates contemplated in the international Convention of 1936 (6 days after 1 year's service, with increases during subsequent years, and 12 days for young persons under 16 years of age) were higher than those applying to workers in industry and crafts. The situation of salaried employees, on the other hand, was more favourable than the Convention. The employees' associations were in favour of a special Act which would permit ratification of the Convention. The employers' representatives thought that it would be preferable to wait and see the trend of business conditions before drafting an Act concerning holidays, and would prefer private regulation to legislative action.

The Federal Office of Industry, Arts and Crafts, and Labour agreed to examine proposals for a more detailed investigation of the existing situation, and for the issue of a circular to employers by the Federal Council recommending that holidays should be granted so far as was economically possible.

Tunisia. — A Decree of 4 August 1936 extended to the Protectorate the operation of the general rule that every worker, salaried employee or apprentice employed in industry, commerce, a liberal profession or a co-operative undertaking, and every journeyman or apprentice attached to a handicraft workshop, is entitled to an annual holiday with pay of at least 2 weeks, including at least 12 working days, after one year's uninterrupted service in the same establishment. Details of application were to be laid down by the Prime Minister after consulting a committee established for the purpose. Payment for the holiday is to be calculated according to the French regulations. Contracting out of the right to a holiday, even if provision is made for cash compensation, is void.

Union of South Africa. — Of the new collective agreements concluded during 1936, some provide for annual holidays with pay. The principal trades and industries concerned are: bakery and confectionery; tea-rooms, restaurants and catering; road transport (passengers and goods); the "Native trade"; engineering construction, metals and motors; brewing; leather; printing and newspapers; and the sale of liquor. The holiday is fixed at not less than 6 working days for the leather industry, motors and general engineering (East London), road transport (goods), clothing (Natal) and bakery and confectionery (in most provinces). The other minima range from 8 days in road transport (passengers), to 12 days or 2 weeks in bakery and confectionery (one province), brewing, the wholesale meat trade, general engineering, and metals (Cape), "Native trade", and tea-rooms, restaurants and catering; and 18 days in metal engineering (Transvaal) and in the printing and newspaper industry (in which the agreement also covers the years 1937 and 1938).

United States. — Several large companies decided during the year to grant annual holidays with pay to their staffs. The American Tobacco Company and the Brown-Williamson Tobacco Corporation announced plans for giving a week's paid holiday to employees with a year or more of service (15,000 in the former company and approximately 9,000 in the latter). More than 60,000 steel workers in the eastern States are entitled to holidays with pay as a result of a decision of the United States Steel Corporation and its subsidiaries. In the Carnegie Illinois plant holidays were granted for 1936 to workers with 5 or more years' continuous service. The American Sheet and Tin Plate Company, a subsidiary of U.S. Steel, and the Republic Steel Corporation are instituting similar schemes. Over 7,000 hourly-rate employees of the Packard Motor Company of Detroit receive one week's holiday with pay. The Sherwin-Williams Company, paint and varnish manufacturers, arranged to give a week's vacation with pay to all employees who have been on its payroll for a year; those with 5 years' service receive 2 weeks' vacation with pay. The Stewart-Warner Company and its subsidiaries, automotive instrument board equipment manufacturers, are giving a week's vacation with pay to employees who have been with the company one year or more.

Uruguay. — In order to supervise enforcement of the legislation relating to holidays, a Decree of 17 February 1936 provides that every employer must draw up at the beginning of each year a special table in triplicate, showing the dates on which the members of his staff are to go on holiday. A copy must be sent to the National Labour Institute.

U.S.S.R. — The right to rest figures in the new Constitution of 5 December 1936 as one of the citizen's fundamental rights. "The right to rest is ensured by the reduction of the working day to 7 hours for the overwhelming majority of the workers, the establishment of annual holidays with pay for workers and employees, and the provision of a wide network of sanatoria, rest homes and clubs for the accommodation of the toilers."

On 17 June 1936 the Council of People's Commissaries decided to approve a proposal that typists engaged on copying work throughout the day should be granted a special holiday with pay of 6 working days in addition to the regular holiday of 12 working days.

Venezuela. — The new Labour Act issued on 16 July 1936 provides that workers employed for more than a year without interruption are entitled to annual leave (a week for manual and a fortnight for non-manual workers) with full pay. For persons paid at piece rates or by the job, the pay for the holiday period is calculated on the basis of average earnings during the month or quarter immediately preceding the holiday. A worker who, for his own account or that of any other person, does work during his holiday conflicting with the object of the holiday loses all right to payment for the holiday.

International Regulation

At the Twentieth Session of the International Labour Conference (June 1936) a Draft Convention concerning holidays with pay was adopted by 99 votes to 15. This applies to industrial and commercial undertakings, including newspaper undertakings; establishments for the treatment and care of the sick, infirm, destitute or mentally unfit; hotels, restaurants, boarding-houses, clubs, cafés and other refreshment houses; theatres and places of public amusement; and mixed commercial and industrial establishments not falling wholly within any of the foregoing categories. The length of the holiday is fixed at not less than 6 working days after a year's service; and persons under 16 years of age, including apprentices, are entitled to an annual holiday with pay of at least 12 working days. Public and customary holidays and interruptions of work due to sickness may not be included in the annual holiday with pay. The increase in the holiday with length of service is to be determined by national laws or regulations. Every person taking a holiday must receive for the full period of holiday either his usual remuneration, calculated in a manner to be prescribed by national laws or regulations (including the cash equivalent of his remuneration in kind, if any), or the remuneration determined by collective agreement. Any agreement to relinquish the right to an annual holiday with pay, or to forgo such a holiday, is void. National laws or regulations may provide that a person who engages in paid employment during his annual holiday may be deprived of his right to payment for the whole period. On the other hand, a person dismissed for a reason imputable to the employer before he has taken his holiday must receive the remuneration due for every day of holiday to which he is entitled. Provision is also made for measures of enforcement.

The Conference also adopted, by 98 votes to 15, a Recommendation completing or more exactly defining certain points in the Draft Convention, particularly as regards the continuity of service required in order to become entitled to a holiday, arrangements for holidays in case of change of employment, the progressive increase in the length of the holiday with duration of service, the remuneration of persons paid in whole or in part on an output or piece-work basis, and lastly the establishment of a more advantageous system for young persons and apprentices under 18 years of age.

Lastly there were four Resolutions concerning categories of workers which it had not been found possible to include in the Draft Convention—domestic servants, hall porters in private houses, home workers, and agricultural workers. The Conference adopted these by 70 votes to 20, 69 to 19, 63 to 22, and 68 to 21 respectively.

The texts adopted by the Conference were communicated to the Governments of the States Members of the Organisation; some Governments have already informed the International Labour Office of the steps taken by them in this connection.

Convention No. 52: Holidays with Pay, 1936

Australia. — Submitted to Parliament on 19 November 1936.

China. — Submitted to the Legislative Yuan.

Great Britain. — Submitted to Parliament in November 1936.

India. — The Legislative Assembly adopted on 26 January 1937 a resolution recommending the Governor-General in Council not to ratify the Convention.

Irish Free State. — Submitted to the Dail on 25 January 1937.

New Zealand. — Submitted to the House of Representatives on 6 October 1936 and to the Legislative Council on 9 October 1936.

Norway. — In a report to the Storting submitted on 12 March 1937 the Government proposed that ratification should be postponed.

Portugal. — Submitted to the competent authority on 29 August 1936.

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

Siam. — Submitted to the competent authorities, who are not at present prepared to take any action.

Sweden. — Submitted to the Riksdag in 1937. The Minister of Social Affairs pointed out that the statutory regulation of holidays with pay was under investigation by a special committee of experts. Decision upon ratification should therefore be postponed until the committee had reported and any measures taken in consequence of its report had been adopted.

Union of South Africa. — The Executive Council decided on 10 December 1936 against ratification of the Convention. Although it is customary in the Union for many employees to receive an annual paid holiday, either in accordance with the provisions of industrial council agreements or wage determinations, or by virtue of private agreements between individual employers and their employees, nevertheless there is no law making compulsory the granting of such holidays in all the undertakings falling within the scope of the Convention.

Moreover, it is not the general practice for the annual leave to increase with the length of service of the employee. The law of Union is therefore not in compliance with the provisions of the Convention, nor would the time appear to be ripe for the enactment of the legislation required to bring it into compliance.

Submitted to Parliament on 11 January 1937.

*Recommendation No. 47: Holidays with Pay, 1936*Communications to the Secretary-General of the League
of Nations

Irish Free State. — Submitted to the Dail on 25 January 1937 (16 February 1937).

New Zealand. — Submitted to the House of Representatives on 6 October 1936 and to the Legislative Council on 9 October 1936 (23 October 1936).

Siam. — Submitted to the competent authorities, who are not at present prepared to take any action (2 February 1937).

Other Information

Australia. — Submitted to Parliament on 19 November 1936.

China. — Submitted to the Legislative Yuan.

Great Britain. — Submitted to Parliament in November 1936.

India. — The Legislative Assembly adopted on 26 January last a resolution recommending the Governor-General in Council not to give effect to the Recommendation.

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

Sweden. — Submitted to the Riksdag in 1937.

Union of South Africa. — The Executive Council decided on 10 December 1936 against the adoption of the Recommendation. Submitted to Parliament on 11 January 1937.

PUBLIC HOLIDAYS

Bolivia. — A Decree issued on 26 May 1936 fixed the number of public holidays. These are: all Sundays, 1 January, Carnival Monday, Good Friday, 1 May, 6 August, 12 October, and 25 December; Government offices must be open on all other days without exception; days of national mourning do not imply suspension of work in public or private undertakings.

Canada. — In British Columbia the Factories Act was rendered more flexible with regard to public holidays. It is now provided that no factory may be kept open or person employed without the written permission of an inspector, on any of the following days: Christmas Day, New Year's Day, Good Friday, Easter Monday, Victoria Day, Dominion Day, Labour Day, Remembrance Day and any other day declared a public holiday by proclamation. Previously it was unlawful for any factory to be open or person employed on one of these days.

China. — The provisions relating to public holidays, referred to in section 9 of the Regulations to administer the Factories Act, were revised by Government Order on 10 December 1936. The following is the new list of public holidays recognised under section 16 of the Act: 1 January, Commemoration of the Foundation of the Republic; 12 March, Commemoration of the Death of President Sun Yat Sen, founder of the Kuomintang; 29 March, Commemoration of the Martyrs of the Revolution; 1 May, Labour Day; 27 August, Anniversary of the Birth of Confucius; 10 October, Anniversary of the Proclamation of the Republic; 12 November, Anniversary of the Birth of President Sun Yat Sen; and any other holidays which may be fixed by the Government.

Colombia. — A Ministerial Order which came into force on 1 December 1936 fixes the hours of work of employees engaged in the reception of telegrams, also on public holidays, with a view to securing sufficient rest for them.

France. — A Government Bill has been introduced in the Chamber of Deputies to declare 1 May a public holiday (Labour Day).

Germany. — The Chief of the Saar Territory announced that the payment of wages for all public holidays falling on weekdays should be considered as a social duty, pending the issue of legislation which the competent authorities were examining. Moreover, 13 January, the anniversary of the plebiscite by which the people of the Saar declared in favour of the return of the Territory to

Germany, would in future be a public holiday. In order to avoid any loss of wages for the workers, the employers agreed to allow them to make up the time lost by working overtime.

As regards May Day, according to a decision of the Bocholt Labour Court an employer who has put his staff on short time may not cause a day off to fall on May Day; and an Order issued by the President of the Institution for Employment Exchanges and Unemployment Insurance on 25 April 1936 provides that, when an undertaking is working short time and May Day falls on a day which is not worked but for which the employer pays an allowance, the allowance must still be paid.

Norway. — The Workers' Protection Act of 19 June 1936, which came into force on 1 January 1937, contains provisions relating to public holidays. They are identical with those referred to above in connection with the weekly rest.

U.S.S.R. — To celebrate the adoption of the new Constitution of the Union by the Eighth Extraordinary Congress of Soviets, 5 December was declared a public holiday.

Industrial Medicine

INDUSTRIAL PHYSIOLOGY

Protection of Women, Children, and Young Persons

Protection of Women. — In *Belgium* the Congress of Socialist Women (Brussels, 3 February 1936) declared itself in favour of a well-conceived scheme of vocational guidance and the strict application of industrial hygiene regulations to all workers, with special consideration for pregnant women. The Belgian Trade Union Committee reported (Brussels, 17 March 1936) that the organisations of printers, tobacco workers, hides and leather workers, miners, building workers, furniture workers, transport workers, etc., were in favour of the limitation or prohibition of the employment of women in their industries. While the National Committee of the Trade Union Committee accepted the principle of the admission of women to all occupations, it nevertheless demanded adequate regulations to protect the health and safety of working women. The Advisory Committee on Women's Work in the Ministry of Labour, which had been appointed to enquire into the employment of women in unhealthy occupations, demanded in a report submitted to the Government in July 1936, on the one hand, that any employment likely to have a deleterious effect, either immediately or ultimately, on the capacity for normal childbirth should be considered unhealthy, and on the other hand, that hygiene and health measures, in particular the provision of seats during working hours, should be strictly enforced. In *France* a meeting of the

Labour Board of the Department of the Seine (Paris, 13 February 1937) urged that the National Economic Council should carry out a precise and detailed study of the physiological and psychological factors affecting the capacity of women for different types of work. In *Germany* reasons of demographic policy are inspiring a movement against the employment of women on exhausting and unhealthy work, certain kinds of heavy work, and work involving an unsuitable posture.

In *Denmark*, and also in *Great Britain*, attention is being paid to the problem of tuberculosis among women workers. Danish statistics covering a period of three years show an increase of nearly 33 per cent. in the mortality rate for women as compared with a decrease of 50 per cent. in that for men; this is attributed to the economic depression, which has driven more women to work for unduly low wages, a state of affairs which is all the more distressing in the case of women seeking work on their discharge from sanatoria.

The fall in the birth rate, which has for some years been a matter of concern to public authorities, is more and more often attributed to married women's work outside the home; man, it is said, should be the breadwinner and woman the guardian of the home. During a meeting of the British Institute of Hygiene (London, May 1936) this social problem was considered from two points of view: that of woman as worker (a unit in factory or workshop), and that of woman as woman (a physiological unit). The report on this subject submitted to the meeting concluded that from the health point of view there was no reason for restrictive legislation based on sex, an opinion to which many medical men and students of sociology would not subscribe. In *France* the effects of machine work on the female constitution were the subject of enquiry by the Women's Committee of the Confederation of Christian Workers, which invited the opinion of the medical profession on the question preparatory to its Congress (Paris, 30 May 1936).

In *China* a proposal for the establishment of nurseries and crèches in factories was submitted to the Executive Yuan. In *Italy* a Decree of 7 August 1936 enumerates the occupations in which the employment of women under age and young persons is forbidden and those in which it is permitted only under specified conditions. In *Poland* the organisation of day nurseries was extended by the creation of a mobile welfare service, entrusted to two existing social institutions under the supervision of the labour inspection service. In *Venezuela* the Labour Act of 16 July 1936 provides for the protection of women and children and contains special measures concerning expectant and nursing mothers.

Protection of Young Persons. — In *Belgium* a Decree of 28 September 1936 reorganised the health protection of young persons under 18 years of age in industry. In *Germany*, the employment of young persons is being given the same attention as that of women from the point of view of health. In *Great Britain* the Chief Inspector

of Factories and Workshops in his Annual Report stated that the employment of young persons up to the limit of hours allowed by law could not be regarded as desirable, especially since better transport facilities tended to encourage long journeys to and from work. It was as yet too early, he held, to judge of the effects of speed on the health of the workers. The Report drew attention once more to the high accident rate, which was held to be not unconnected with the state of health and very probably also with length of working hours.

Unemployment and the Depression

Numerous publications issued by health services contain information on the effects of unemployment or of reduced income on the state of health of the workers and in particular of the children of the unemployed. While it is true that relatively few people actually die of hunger, especially in civilised countries, and that mortality and morbidity rates have not changed much (except in the case of epidemics, e.g. influenza, in which the mortality rate is certainly higher in the presence of under-nourishment), on the other hand all enquiries concur in recording the distressing effect "of the morale on the physique of the subject", and the harm wrought by inadequate or insufficient nourishment, more especially in the case of children under 8 years of age, despite the fact that public authorities are doing their best in regard to the distribution of additional food-stuffs (milk, eggs).

Workers' Nutrition

The problem of nutrition was studied in the course of the year by the International Labour Office, in collaboration with the League of Nations and the International Institute of Agriculture. A report on *Workers' Nutrition and Social Policy* was submitted to the Twentieth Session of the International Labour Conference. According to the data collected and the investigations carried out in several countries, it would appear that the difficulty in the way of solving the problem of rational nutrition is not always ignorance of nutritional values, but inadequate purchasing power.

The Office continued to follow the problem with great attention, in regard to workers in general and more particularly in regard to those engaged in heavy work. In *Belgium* the budget estimates for the Ministry of Health provided for an enquiry into nutrition and for the appointment of a committee on the question. In *Germany* the Institute of Industrial Physiology (Dortmund) drew attention to the action of lecithin and phosphates in nutrition for heavy work, and proposed to follow up the history of certain families over a period of several weeks, both while at rest and while at work. It found that people in large towns do not consume enough milk; that women must be taught how to buy and prepare food; and that the population should be protected against the mercenary advertisement of certain foodstuffs. At a meeting of the German Society for Labour Protection (Frankfurt, 18 October 1936) nutrition was

considered from the point of view of the efficiency of the worker, hours of work, factory canteens, etc.

In *Japan* there is a growing tendency to establish joint canteens in small and medium-sized factories, with a view to providing better nutrition for the workers. Records of the weight, height, and chest measurement of the workers showed an improvement in the state of nutrition of women workers. An enquiry covering 10,000 women textile workers in one district brought out the favourable effect of such institutions on the physical development of young women workers. In the *U.S.S.R.* the Nutrition Institute continued the study of special menus for workers in certain exhausting industries.

In various quarters, e.g. *Great Britain* (the Economic Advisory Council), attention was drawn to the possibility, in large undertakings, of teaching the workers healthier habits in regard to nutrition.

The competent authorities in countries employing Native labour, indigenous or acclimatised, are becoming more and more concerned with the problem of providing sufficient and suitable nutrition for these workers.

Many measures of protection for Native workers were adopted by colonial authorities. In *French West Africa* a Decree of 18 September 1936 treats young persons under 17 years as children, and prescribes that the work required of them must be in proportion to their physical development. The inspectors may order a medical examination whenever the family work seems beyond the physical capacities of the child. In the *Malay State of Kedah* a Regulation of February 1936 imposes a medical examination for children transporting loads, and children's hours of work are regulated whenever their employment is likely to affect their health or well-being.

The Human Factor in Industrial Organisation

In *France* several family associations combined to establish a centre for vocational advice and information.

In *Great Britain* sickness is said to account for a loss of 31 million weeks' working time per annum, and to oblige about 7½ million persons, or half of the insured population, to consult their insurance doctor. Despite the fact that the standard of life has risen in the last fifteen years, and that mortality rates have fallen, there has been a steady increase in annual sickness claims.

In *India* (Madras Presidency) the Chief Inspector of factories expressed the view that fitness to work as adults has been too easily interpreted in the granting of medical certificates, age apparently being taken as the sole qualification. In *Japan* the Bureau of Social Affairs organised enquiries covering 93 categories of factory workers, with a view to determining the relation between physical and mental aptitude and occupational capacity.

The problem of physical aptitude is perhaps still too frequently under-estimated. It is essential that there should be a fuller

realisation of the importance of medical examination prior to engagement, with a view to eliminating the serious effects that employment which does not sufficiently correspond to the physical capacity of the worker may have on his state of health.

Importance likewise attaches to examination of those factors which bring about *fatigue*. Overwork, due especially to overtime, increases fatigue and is the cause of absenteeism, which in its turn is responsible for a large labour turnover. According to *British* statistics, 5 to 7 per cent. of the working population were found to be suffering from nervous disorders, and about 20 per cent. had symptoms of a condition interfering with their efficiency; these figures certainly point to a faulty arrangement of working hours and lack of sufficient rest periods.

The speedy and total abolition of night work, which for decades has been shown to be unhealthy, has not yet been effected. A resolution on this subject was adopted at the Congress of the *French* Federation of Textile Workers' Unions (Paris, 31 May 1936).

In *Germany* and *Italy* increasing attention is being devoted to *working tools*, and especially to the form of the handle or even of the part of the tool which comes in contact with the material worked: soil, ore, etc.

Monotony and industrial fatigue were studied in *Great Britain* by the Section of Physiology of the British Association for the Advancement of Science (Blackpool, 9 September 1936). The nervous fatigue of the present day is also attributed to physical strain and to special working or living conditions of the individual (bad ventilation, noise, unduly high temperature, insufficient lighting, lack of exercise and of sleep).

The limitation of loads was in *Germany* the subject of Ministerial decisions of 22 June and 8 July 1936, regulating transport in the pottery industry (maximum, hitherto, 25-30 kilograms) and in the confectionery industry (maximum, hitherto, 40-50 kilograms); the new regulations do not fix a rigid maximum, but state that 15 kilograms constitute a normal load. In *Cuba* a Bill introduced in June 1936 would fix 200 pounds as the maximum weight for sacks and bales (hitherto, 325-375 pounds). In *French West Africa* the handling of loads is prohibited in the case of pregnant women and of young persons under 18 years of age. In *French Somaliland* a Decree of 22 May 1936 protects minors of 13 to 18 years and women; they may not be employed on night work or on handling weights of over 20 kilograms. A Decree of 23 May 1936 in *French India* provides for the medical examination of children and young persons to ascertain whether the work on which they are engaged exceeds their strength.

In *Belgium* cases of fatigue among bank clerks, for instance, were reported, especially a form of fatigue arising out of the working of adding machines. In *Brazil* an annual examination of the eyesight of engine drivers was instituted. In *France* the railway companies now admit to employment on work involving safety risks only candidates with a normal colour sense. In *Great Britain* the Na-

tional Ophthalmic Board concluded an investigation into the conservation of the sight of industrial workers. The enquiry covered about 400 firms, employing over a million workers, and it was found that only 68 of the firms required their workers to have their sight tested prior to engagement.

The movement for providing certain categories of workers with seats and work-tables adapted to their work continued to spread, e.g. in the Argentine Republic (Decree of 2 July 1936), Cuba (Decree of 31 December 1935), Germany, the United States (Safety Conference, Charlotte, 14 May 1936), Venezuela (Resolution of 30 April 1936; Labour Act of 16 July 1936). The movement is also leading to study of the disadvantageous effects of a prolonged sedentary position on the abdominal organs, of the oblique posture of the body during office work, and of worktables that are too low in relation to the worker's height. Such enquiries promote the correct construction of office furniture, corresponding to individual needs, for in the long run attention to the laws of physiology is found to be a primary factor in improving efficiency.

INDUSTRIAL PATHOLOGY

Poisoning

White Lead. — The following action was taken during the year under review on the 1921 Convention concerning the use of white lead in painting:

*Convention No. 13: White Lead (Painting), 1921*¹

Argentina. — Ratification registered on 26 May 1936.

China. — The Legislative Yuan decided on 8 January 1937 to postpone ratification.

Peru. — By Decree of 6 March 1936 the President of the Republic approved the Convention and submitted it to Congress for ratification.

U.S.S.R. — Submitted to the competent authorities.

In *Cuba* (a Legislative Decree of 25 July 1935) amended the legislation of 1934 prohibiting the use of white lead in painting. In *Germany* an Order of 12 August 1936 regulates the preparation and use of lead colours. In *Latvia* the application of the 1921 Convention was the subject of new instructions, of 10 February and 18 July 1936, regulating the sale of white lead and its use in painting. In *Venezuela* steps were taken to eliminate risks in the use of white lead, a Decree of 23 April 1936 and the Labour Act of 16 July 1936 being in conformity with the International Convention and Recommendation.

Manufacturers of white lead recently placed on the market a type of white pigment containing 70 per cent. of white lead and 30 per cent. of zinc white. A titanate of lead was also placed on the market.

¹ The information given here relates only to the period 16 March 1936-15 March 1937. See the tables at the end of the volume for the general situation as regards the Convention.

In *India* Rules of 12 August 1936 relating to hazardous occupations deal with the prevention of lead poisoning. In the *United States* the Code of the American Foundry Workers' Association is to be applied to processes involving a risk of lead poisoning. In *Poland* the section of the National Health Council which deals with occupational disease discussed the question of the notification of cases of lead poisoning and measures relating to health and safety in lead foundries, factories turning out articles made of lead, silver and zinc foundries, type foundries, accumulator factories, the manufacture of enamels, varnishes, etc.

Tetraethyl lead was the subject in *India* of the Rules of 12 August 1936 dealing with lead poisoning, and in *Venezuela* of a Ministerial Order of 3 April 1936.

A whole series of industries entailing a risk of lead poisoning were made subject to restrictions. Accumulator factories in *Denmark* were brought under the Regulations of 1935 and in *India* came under the Rules of 12 August. In *Canada* the Convention of the Trades and Labour Congress (Montreal, 8 September 1936) and the Labour Federation of New Brunswick (Fredericton, 10 March 1936) demanded a national code of protection with reference to spray painting. In *Switzerland* measures were taken by the railway repair shops and attention directed to the risks in these shops by the public health authorities of Zürich. In *Great Britain* the National Council of the Pottery Industry (Stoke-on-Trent, 30 October) noted the satisfactory results of the campaign against lead poisoning, silicosis, and dermatitis. As regards the printing trades, an enquiry was carried out in *China* (Shanghai), by the Henry Lester Institute of Medical Research, covering 189 workers in printing establishments, and in *Cuba* by the Occupational Hygiene Section of the Ministry of Labour, an enquiry which brought out the classes of workers most seriously affected: out of 1,609 workers employed in over 60 printing works, 26 showed symptoms of impregnation by lead, 27 digestive disorders connected with the poison, and 7 positive evidence of lead poisoning.

Mercury. — In the *United States* (Connecticut) a survey of fur and hat factories having revealed an alarming number of victims of mercurial poisoning, measures of prevention were recommended by the Department of Labour.

Phosphorus. — The following action was taken on the Recommendation adopted by the International Labour Conference in 1919 during the period 16 March 1936-15 March 1937:

Recommendation No. 6: White Phosphorus, 1919

Adhesion to the Berne Convention communicated in accordance with the Recommendation

Argentina. — The Government notified the Swiss Federal Council on 16 October 1936, in accordance with Article 5 of the Berne Convention, of its adhesion to the Convention.

Other Information

U.S.S.R. — Submitted to the competent authority.

In *Cuba* an enquiry into the health of workers in match factories was undertaken by the Department of Labour in December 1936. In *Japan* instructions were circulated to factories in Tokyo.

Manganese. — In *Great Britain* poisoning by manganese dioxide was included in the schedule of notifiable occupational diseases (Order of 29 June 1936).

Cadmium. — A fatal case of cadmium poisoning was reported in Sweden. This led to a demand in *Norway* for a foundation for the study of occupational poisoning.

Chromium and Chromates. — In *China* an enquiry carried out by the Henry Lester Institute of Medical Research, Shanghai, in 16 shops of the chromium plating industry, revealed very unhygienic conditions in the shops and a defective state of health among the workers. In the *United States* the Harvard University "Symposium" (26 August 1936) contains a discussion of the same problem. In *France*, at the request of the Ministry of Labour, a report was presented to the Academy of Medicine (Paris, 22 December 1936) dealing with the conditions of work of workers manufacturing chromium salts and the risks connected with these products.

Benzene and its Homologues. — Experience shows that cases of poisoning by these products are on the increase, instead of decreasing as was hoped. For this reason, the meeting of the *German Society for Labour Protection* (Frankfurt, 18 October 1936) discussed also the study of benzene poisoning, particularly in the printing industry. In *Belgium* a Royal Order of 4 March 1936 defined the prophylactic measures to be adopted in regard to the use of certain solutions employed in workshops for the manufacture and repair of water-proof clothing. In *France* a committee appointed by the Academy of Medicine (Paris, October) is also studying, at the request of the Minister of Public Health, the risks of poisoning in this industry.

Solvents. — Whether they belong to the aromatic or to the fatty series, solvents are being used more and more in the manufacture of quick-drying varnishes. For this reason in *Denmark* hat workers demanded measures to counteract the bad effects of spray painting in varnishing works. In *Great Britain* the Association of Chemical Products Manufacturers (London, 8 October 1936) discussed the results of an investigation into the toxicity of solvents and the hygiene measures to be adopted.

Carbon Monoxide. — Specialists have for some time past been devoting attention to chronic poisoning by carbon monoxide, the existence of which is still in doubt since it has been both denied and admitted. For this reason it is held in various quarters that studies should be undertaken with a view to ascertaining more clearly the injuries caused by minute quantities of this insidious gas.

Disinfection and the risks involved were discussed by the Correspondence Committee on Industrial Hygiene of the Inter-

national Labour Office (Geneva, 21 September) and were also the subject of numerous legal provisions : in *Australia* (Queensland) the Regulation of 23 July 1936; in *Czechoslovakia* the Act of 9 June 1936 on hydrocyanic acid, ethylene oxide, chloropicrin, etc.; in *Danzig* the Order of 8 June 1936 on phosphoretted hydrogen; in *Germany* the Orders of 6 April and 15 August 1936 on phosphoretted hydrogen, of 6 May 1936 on the use of very toxic substances, and of 20 May 1936 on ethylene oxide.

Infections

The question of prophylaxis in regard to *ankylostomiasis* was re-examined by the Correspondence Committee on Industrial Hygiene of the International Labour Office (Geneva, 21 September 1936), which decided that data should be assembled with a view to the drafting of standard regulations. The prevention of *helminthiasis* was discussed by the Pan-African Health Conference of the League of Nations as regards farm workers (Johannesburg, 20 November 1935), and by the German Institute for Hygiene and Bacteriology at Gelsenkirchen, as regards miners.

The incidence of *tuberculosis* among workers was the subject of a whole series of researches, e.g. in *Denmark*, where statistics were compiled; in *Italy*, where the Act of 9 July 1936 extended tuberculosis insurance to agricultural workers; in *Japan*, where this scourge occupied the attention of the public authorities; in *Mexico*, where the Ministry of Labour defined the conditions under which tuberculosis is to be considered as an occupational disease (when resulting from exposure to rain or cold, in the course of work in the case of doctors, nurses, and butchers, and when preceded by silicosis in the case of mine workers); and in *Peru* in regard to the gathering of guano.

Weil's Disease. — In *Germany* measures were taken for the protection of veterinary surgeons and doctors, as well as the staffs of research laboratories and workers in canals and sewers. In the case of the latter class of workers, the disease is compensated as an accident. In *Australia* (Queensland) compensation is granted under the Act of 26 November 1936 when the presence of the pathogenic action of *spirochaeta ictero-hemorrhagiae* has been proved. In *France*, too, this disease entitles the worker to compensation, whilst in *Great Britain* a resolution of the Mineworkers' Federation (Scarborough, 15 July 1936) demanded its inclusion in the schedule in force.

Malaria. — The importance of the campaign against malaria, especially for Native workers, was stressed by the Pan-African Health Conference of the League of Nations (Johannesburg, 20 November 1935); in *Assam* and in *Malaya*, where the effects of the disease on the efficiency of the workers led the planters to adopt special measures; in *Kenya*, where a Government report expressed the desire for a study of medical conditions and of health

on the tea plantations; and in *Peru*, where the disease affects the workers engaged in digging in the camps. Compensation for malaria was introduced in *Italy* by a Decree of 2 January 1936 for workers engaged in East Africa.

Results obtained by a new method of treatment, which permits the patients suffering from chronic malaria to continue their work and so diminishes the burden of the sickness insurance funds, were recorded.

Cancer. — The problems of carcinogenic factors and the fundamental measures to be adopted in the campaign against cancer were discussed at the Second International Congress for the Scientific and Social Campaign against Cancer (Brussels, 20 September 1936) where various occupational factors were the subject of interesting communications. In *Great Britain* the Manchester Committee and the London Institute pursued their experimental researches into carcinogenic substances, the properties of certain mineral oils, and the methods of determining in advance whether or not an oil is carcinogenic, etc. In *Poland* measures of prevention in petrol refineries were demanded, especially against the risk of cancer due to paraffin.

Nickel was said to be the cause in *Great Britain* of 20 cases of cancer of the nose (16 fatal) which had occurred up to 1935 in refineries. Investigation by the medical inspection authorities revealed that this disease was closely connected with the working methods used, and these were in consequence modified later.

Rheumatism. — It is known that forms of rheumatism play an important part in occupational morbidity. In *Great Britain* it is estimated that this disease accounts for a wage loss of upwards of £20 million per annum. Efforts are being made to eliminate the causes of rheumatism in mines, agriculture, the building trades, the transport industry, printing works, etc. In *Hungary* an anti-rheumatism campaign was organised (nutrition, means of personal protection, etc.). Several enquiries into the incidence of rheumatism in certain industries were instituted in the *U.S.S.R.*

Dermatitis. — This is a branch of pathology which concerns industrial medicine. Forms of occupational dermatitis were discussed in *Germany*, where a new means of prevention was proposed, in *Great Britain*, by the National Council for the Pottery Industry (Stoke-on-Trent, 5 October 1936) and in *Italy*, by the National Congress on Dermatology (Rome, 12 October 1936), and were the subject of enquiry by a research committee in *Belgium*.

Circulatory System. — In *Germany* the Society for the Study of the Circulatory System and the Society for Labour Protection (Bad Nauheim, 16 April 1936) discussed the injuries to the circulatory system caused by mechanical, toxic, and electrical agents.

Compressed Air. — In the *United States* compressed-air work and caisson disease were the subject of a report (Harvard Univer-

sity "Symposium", 25 August 1936). On the suggestion of the Correspondence Committee on Industrial Hygiene, the preparation of an international Draft Convention comprising the essential principles for the protection of workers in caissons was selected by the Governing Body as a possible item for the Agenda of the International Labour Conference. The same problem was discussed by the International Federation of Building and Wood Workers (London, 13 July 1936).

Pneumoconiosis

For some years back the problem of pneumoconiosis has been attacked from all aspects: chemical, physical, and petrological research into the various dusts; improvement in methods of dust counting; enquiries into the incidence of the risk in the most dusty industries; medical inspections, including radiography of an ever-increasing number of the workers exposed; anatomic-pathological and experimental research; methods of prevention studiously tested for each dusty industry; discussion of the most appropriate means of compensation of the disease. The movement has attained such a volume (in the *United States*, for instance), that it is difficult to give an account of it in a few lines.

Some years ago the importance of the question led the Office to consider the creation of a sub-committee on pneumoconiosis under the Correspondence Committee on Industrial Hygiene. The Governing Body on 26 February 1936 appointed this sub-committee, limiting it for the time being to a few of the most qualified experts on the subject. Further, the International Labour Conference, on 16 June 1936—by passing a resolution, presented by the United States delegation, which recalled the work of the Johannesburg Conference (1930) and the compensation for silicosis provided for by the Draft Convention (Revised) of 1934—once more emphasised the need of a plan of action for the protection of workers from these diseases, and of fresh medical and technical research, and invited the Governing Body of the Office to consider the desirability of calling a new international meeting of experts to propose a programme of action to achieve early diagnosis of the diseases due to dust, prevention of dust risks in industries exposed to them, and adequate compensation for injuries due to them.

While statistics are not yet very numerous, it is nevertheless possible to estimate the gravity of the problem, at least in certain countries. Suffice it to recall, for instance, that in the *United States* 500,000 workers are daily exposed to serious risk of silicosis (anthracite mines and metal (lead and zinc) mines, sand blasting, granite cutting, constructional work, etc.), and that the boring of a tunnel in Western Virginia (Gauley Bridge) had the effect of bringing to the forefront of attention the campaign against diseases due to dust. A question asked in the House of Representatives, (Washington, 16 January 1936) led to the calling of a National Silicosis Conference by the Federal Department of Labor. At the first meeting (Washington, 14 April 1936) of this Conference, which

brought together all branches of the movement and was attended by 144 members, representing workers, employers, insurance companies, State authorities, medical men, and engineers, four technical sub-committees were appointed to submit a report on each of the special aspects of the question. The second meeting, to be held in the beginning of 1937, was to examine the work of the sub-committees, two of which, those of engineers and medical men, have already completed their reports.

In *Belgium* the Minister of Labour informed the Central Miners' Organisation (Brussels, 14 June 1936) that all diseases due to dust should be considered as occupational diseases. A series of enquiries into work in slate quarries, the pottery industry, and mining gave the Government material on which to base legislative action. In *Canada* a report of the Department of Labour of Ontario recorded the results of a conference of representatives of foundrymen at which it was shown that 25 per cent. of the moulders examined (with an average exposure of 28 years) were suffering from silicosis, 35 per cent. of the grinders, 40 per cent. of the sand-blasters, and 15 per cent. of other groups. In British Columbia an enquiry involved the examination of 1,500 miners and a programme of preventive measures is being studied. In *France* interesting contributions were made by medical men engaged in the study of pneumoconiosis. The report of the Federation of Metal, Mining, etc., Industries (Paris, 21 February 1936) noted the difficulty of diagnosis from the medico-legal standpoint, the reluctance of the legislature in certain countries, and the uncertainty whether silicosis should be considered an occupational disease. In *Germany* the Congress of Internal Medicine (Wiesbaden, 21 April) devoted its attention to the problem of pneumoconioses. It should be noted that in the last ten years, out of 12,000 compensated cases of occupational diseases, 7,000 were due to serious silicosis, and that in the Dortmund district 1,400 miners died of silicosis between 1930 and 1933.

In *Great Britain* a health investigation revealed a new risk of silicosis, among electric welders. A special committee of the Medical Research Council is engaged in an enquiry into pulmonary disease among coal miners; the urgency of the question is proved by the fact that in 1934-1935 over 300 deaths from the disease were notified in England and Wales, and that the cost of compensation amounted to about £80,000 a year. In *India* silicosis was the subject of a report submitted by the Bombay Chamber of Commerce to the competent authorities. In *Italy* the Medical Inspection Service organised several enquiries into the risk of silicosis, and the Society of Industrial Medicine (Naples, 24 October 1936) proposed that its 1938 session should be devoted to the question of pneumoconiosis—in particular, silicosis. In *Mexico* an enquiry made by the Department of Labour into silicosis in mines and byssinosis in the cotton industry led to the adoption of measures to ensure notification and compensation of these diseases. In the *Netherlands* (Heerlen, November 1936) a meeting attended by experts from Belgium, Czechoslovakia, France, Netherlands, and Poland,

discussed pneumoconiosis among miners. In *Peru* 139 cases of pneumoconiosis were studied among copper miners and the importance of preventive measures was stressed. In *Sweden* the Wallenberg Foundation made a contribution to the cost of an enquiry by two experts, a chemist and a geologist, into the constitution of dust deposits in the lungs as compared with that of the dusts in workshops.

In the *United States* the industrial services in many of the States organised enquiries into the methods of detecting the disease and into its prevention. Wisconsin, Massachusetts, and Ohio paid special attention to the risk connected with machines for the surface-cutting of granite, and experiments were made at the workplace with dust control devices. North Carolina continued the study of silicosis and asbestosis, as required by its Compensation Law. In New Hampshire the report of the Legislative Committee on silicosis in granite cutting was issued. In New York enquiries were set on foot both by the Department of Labor, and by the Department of Health together with Cornell University Medical College, New York Hospital and the New York Tuberculosis and Health Association; in the second case 3,000 workers were to be examined. The Advisory Committee on Dust Control is to make recommendations for the definition of injurious silica dust concentration and for dust control in rock-drilling and the handling of reinforced concrete. In California the Committee of the State Assembly (San Francisco, 10 November 1936) was authorised by the legislative authorities to study the problem of silicosis. The Works Progress Administration is carrying out several research projects with a view to establishing a satisfactory system of preventing and compensating silicosis (Massachusetts, New York). Among the organisations which devoted special attention to the question reference may be made to the American Foundry Workers, which recently drafted a Code with particular reference to the campaign against silicosis in foundries; the Pan-American Conference of National Directors of Health (Washington, 4 April 1936), which recommended the study of the degree of physical incapacity caused by the disease in relation to climatic conditions in each country and which is dealing with the serious problem of pneumoconiosis; the American Federation of Labor (Tampa, 16 November 1937), which stressed the need of classifying silicosis as an occupational disease and of study and effort to promote legislation providing proper protection; the International Association of Industrial Accident Boards and Commissions (Topeka, September 1936), which followed the movement closely and noted that, for example, in Florida and Virginia silicosis was quite rare.

Prevention. — In *Germany* (mining district of Dortmund) a Regulation of 1 May 1935, which came into force on 1 January 1936, lays down measures of protection against dust. In *Great Britain*, as a result of six years' experiments in the china industry, a safe substitute for silica powder was found which, though more costly, has several advantages. In the *United States* the Sub-Committee

for Occupational Diseases of the Employers' Associations of Illinois called a conference (Chicago, 26 June 1936) of employers, insurance companies, medical men, makers of apparatus, etc., with a view to organising wide-scale radiological examination in factories. The New York Legislature passed legislation which came into force on 6 June 1936, and regulations for dust prevention in rock-drilling foundries are being studied. A committee (New York, 30 June 1936) was instructed to draw up recommendations for dust control in rock drilling. The *Ohio* Department of Health, which launched a programme for control of occupational disease, published a first report on silicosis, and organised travelling research laboratories.

Compensation.— In *Australia* amendments, dated 21 and 28 February 1936, to the New South Wales legislation extended insurance to cover the sandstone industry and quarrying in the counties of Camden and Northumberland, and the Order of 20 May 1936 provided for higher rates of benefit. In *Victoria* the Act of 21 December 1936 now provides compensation for workers suffering from miner's phthisis, who formerly received an allowance from a private fund, now taken over by the State. In *Belgium* the Royal Order of 31 July 1936 grants compensation for lesions of the respiratory system (death or incapacity for work) due to the definite and exclusive action of dusts of occupational origin in the industries and occupations enumerated in a schedule to be established by Royal Order. In *Canada* an amendment of 7 April 1936 to the Manitoba legislation covers silicosis (and tuberculosis) among foundry workers, iron miners and other metal miners, and employers are studying the practical application of the new provisions. In *Cuba* the Legislative Decree of 18 February 1936, giving effect to the Convention (Revised), 1934, provides compensation for silicosis and pulmonary tabacosis, and the Decree of 21 April 1936 contains the schedule of industries and processes involving exposure to the risk of silicosis. In *Germany*, where the Order of 1929 had been criticised for not covering a number of undertakings, enquiries were set on foot, providing the necessary basis for drafting new provisions, which were laid down in the Third Order of 16 December 1936. The number of cases of silicosis compensated for the first time fell from 1,079 in 1931 to 522 in 1934 and to 627 in 1935. In *Great Britain* a Bill for including silicosis—at present compensated under special schemes—in the schedule of occupational diseases was rejected. In *Hungary* a Decree of 30 December 1936 published the schedule of processes entailing the risk of silicosis, for purposes of compensation. In *Peru* the Decree of 27 December 1935 extended accident compensation to pneumoconiosis. In the *Union of South Africa* the Act of 24 June 1936 amended the legislation concerning compensation for miner's phthisis. In the *United States* the Illinois Law of 16 March 1936 contains special "blanket coverage" provisions for asbestosis and silicosis, and in *New York* (6 June 1936) detailed regulations were adopted for the application of the Law of 1935 (Blanket Coverage) in regard to silicosis.

Asbestosis. — In *Germany* the Central Health Office of the National-Socialist Party and the Textile Corporation of the Labour Front witnessed the success of their negotiations for the recognition of the disease, serious asbestosis having been inserted in the schedule of the Third Order (16 December 1936). The International Federation of Building and Wood Workers (London, 13 July 1936) supported the proposal of the Correspondence Committee on Industrial Hygiene of the International Labour Office that asbestosis should be included in the international schedule.

Accidents

For some years back it has been recognised that 70 to 80 per cent. of the accidents which occur can be attributed to the *human factor*. This estimate was confirmed at the meeting of the *German Association for Labour Protection* (Frankfurt, 18 October 1936). The fact that accidents due to tools and machinery do not exceed 25 per cent. of the total, and that it seems to be difficult to reduce this rate still more, shows that the physio-psychological method offers better prospects in regard to prevention. In the *United States* the annual cost of sickness and accidents is estimated by the public health service at 10,000 million dollars, inclusive of direct and indirect expenditure (loss of time to the industry), an inducement to the responsible authorities to protect the national life and wealth from such injury, by studying first of all the accident factors dependent on the individual.

MEDICAL CARE

One of the best means of preventing occupational morbidity and preserving health lies in *medical care*, comprising in the first place periodical examination of the worker. For this reason the International Labour Conference of American States (Santiago-de-Chile, 2 January 1936) voted a resolution approving the principle of medical examination of workers engaged in unhealthy occupations. Medical care has been instituted in *Italy*, for example, where under the motto "In the union and by the union", the Confederation of Industrial Workers has a staff of social welfare assistants. In *Japan* a large-scale investigation undertaken by the prefecture of Osaka covers 12,000 factories employing over 300,000 workers.

Moral obligations as well as economic considerations call for an energetic campaign in view of the fact that accidents, sickness, and premature invalidity to-day diminish the capacity of the worker at a date much earlier than that justifiable on biological grounds. In *China* the Committee of Industrial Safety and Hygiene of Peiping (3 August 1936) demanded immediately after it was set up that every public utility undertaking (waterworks, electricity, transport companies) should establish its own clinic. In *Germany* it is found that the average at which incapacity sets in is as early as

40 years; and the requisite measures for raising this age to at least 55 are being contemplated. It is also considered that care should be given, not only to people who have fallen ill, but also to those who are still in good health, and that to this end there should be close collaboration between the family doctor and the factory doctor. In the *Gold Coast* the Mining Health Areas Regulations of 29 July 1935 provide for the compulsory medical examination of all miners and for various other measures for the protection of the workers and their families, including the appointment of medical officers and village supervisors by mines employing not less than 500 workers. In *Great Britain* the Association of Industrial Medical Officers (Birmingham, 22 May 1936) discussed labour management and medical service and emphasised the importance of close contact between the factory doctor and the works management. Satisfactory results were achieved in a group of electrical storage battery factories in consequence of the appointment of a doctor, dentist and nurse to attend the staff; the accident rate fell by 50 per cent. and cases of sepsis and of lead poisoning disappeared, with the result that the cost of the medical department was practically offset by the reduction secured in the insurance premiums. In *Japan* the Annual Convention of the Industrial Hygiene Association (Kobe, 12-14 November 1936) discussed the function of the industrial medical centres in factories for the purpose of preventing and treating occupational diseases, and recommended compulsory establishment of such centres in factories employing 500 or more workers, and the appointment of a sanitary engineer to deal with preventive measures in factories employing 3,000 or more workers besides the medical director. In *Norway* the Workers' Protection Act of 19 June 1936 provides for periodical medical examinations in unhealthy industries and occupations. In *Peru* a resolution adopted by the Committee for the Study of Health in Camps demanded the provision of first-aid equipment and medical care for the workers. In *Salvador* a Decree of 22 July 1935 requires any employer with over 10 workers to provide first-aid. In the *United States* an enquiry lasting a year and covering 1,593 industrial establishments giving employment to five million workers which was carried out by the American College of Surgeons showed that 776 industrial establishments employing 500 or more workers (2½ million in all) did not possess adequate medical services. The report submitted on the enquiry (Philadelphia Congress, 21 October 1936) lays down a series of minimum requirements indispensable in the organisation of a medical service by any industrial establishment. The Third Pan-American Conference of National Directors of Health (Washington, 4 April 1936) called for investigations, and for the adoption of improved and amplified measures such as tend to better conditions in regard to sanitary equipment and personal hygiene and to control of the state of health of the workers through periodical medical examinations. In the *U.S.S.R.* periodical medical examinations (monthly, every four months, six months, or annually, according to the

process) are required under an Order of the Central Health Inspection Service of the R.S.F.S.R. and the Central Council of Trade Unions, dated 16 November 1936.

HYGIENE

General Hygiene

Complying with the suggestion made by its Correspondence Committee on Industrial Hygiene, the International Labour Office recently published a handbook entitled *Industrial Environment and Health*, which summarises scientific methods of investigation and tests for use in the control of temperature, lighting, ventilation, dust, gas and fumes, etc. The handbook was prepared with the assistance of distinguished experts on the subjects in several countries.

Considerable efforts have been made everywhere, but particularly in the *United States*, with a view to raising the health and hygiene standards affecting workers. Experts are agreed that industrial hygiene will soon become one of the most active branches of public health work. Its development will of necessity be slow but will nevertheless be sure, provided that well-trained, efficient, all-round collaborators are available.

This work of establishing healthy conditions is claimed by public health services in certain countries, whilst in others it is considered one of the most important tasks of the Ministry of Labour. Without debating this point, it will suffice to recall that the long experience of many States shows that useful collaboration is practicable without either authority encroaching on the domain of the other.

In *Czechoslovakia* the Social Insurance Institute, as required by legislation, organises the prevention of occupational diseases and accidents and studies safety conditions. In *Germany* special attention is paid to handicraftsmen and workers in small undertakings, on the ground that they are more exposed to occupational risks than workers in large-scale industries. The measures adopted in the big Rhineland industries have brought down the morbidity rate by nearly 40 per cent., a result which has been accompanied by lower insurance premiums, better health conditions, fewer accidents, and less absenteeism. The same aims are being pursued in *Great Britain*, where specialists in the subject consider that lead poisoning should no longer occur and that cases of industrial dermatitis could be reduced by 50 per cent.

Another measure which can be a useful adjunct to prophylaxis is the introduction of a uniform *health record* form, as in *Belgium*, where it is distributed by the new Ministry of Health, Welfare and Physical Education in collaboration with the Ministries of Labour and of Education.

Legislation

The growing understanding of the need for industrial hygiene legislation was again demonstrated during the year by the fact

that in *Greece* the Government undertook the translation of the *Standard Code of Industrial Hygiene* published by the International Labour Office in 1934.

In *China* regulations were issued (Nanking, 14 October 1935) in regard to the inspection of safety and health in factories. In *Estonia* an Industrial Code was issued on 1 April 1936. In *Great Britain* the Public Health Act of 31 July 1936 contains provisions on the hygiene of workplaces. In *Greece* a statement by the competent Minister (22 February 1936) dealt with more extensive application of hygiene measures in industry. In *Guatemala* a Health Code containing hygiene measures was issued on 7 September 1936. In *Iran* Factories and Industrial Establishments Regulations were approved (10 August 1936) covering all undertakings, whatever the number of workers employed, in which the nature of the work necessitates special precautions for the protection of the workers' health. Two chapters deal with hygiene at the workplace, examination of physical aptitudes, and medical equipment. In *Iraq* the Labour Act of 25 April 1936 provides for medical care in case of sickness due to work, health records, and special regulations on workers' housing, factory construction, etc. In *Japan* the Government made a statement (June 1936) on public health questions, referring, for example, to the introduction in the near future of measures for raising the standard of health of industrial workers and for spreading a knowledge of prophylaxis among them. In *Mexico* regulations dealing with general industrial hygiene were issued on 6 June 1936; in *Norway* the Workers' Protection Act on 19 June 1936. In *Paraguay* a Labour Department was set up (June 1936), the functions of which include the compulsory introduction of hygienic conditions in workplaces. In *Peru* a Resolution of 29 February 1936 requested the Labour Directorate to draw up a programme of industrial health and safety, and of prevention of occupational diseases and accidents. In *Rumania* the Minister of Health called the attention of the health services to hygiene conditions in industrial establishments and workshops. The new Labour Act in *Turkey* (15 June 1936) provides for health and hygiene measures for the workers. In the *United States* the inclusion of general stipulations on health and safety in Government contracts was made compulsory by the Act of 30 June 1936, which came into operation on 28 September. A message of the President of the United States to the National Conference on Labour Legislation (Washington, 9 November 1936) recommended among essential reforms the provision of safe and healthy places of work and adequate care and support for those incapacitated by industrial disease. In *Illinois* measures concerning health and hygiene may now be issued by the Division of Industrial Hygiene. In *Venezuela* the new Labour Act (16 July 1936) contains provisions on the health and hygiene of the workers.

Lighting. — This was the subject of instructions and workshop regulations in *Germany*, drawn up by technical lighting experts, the Labour Inspectorate, and the competent police authority in

collaboration; a meeting of technical experts took place in Frankfurt (27 September 1936). In *Great Britain* attention was paid to the question of protecting the workers' eyesight (Manchester, 6 October 1936).

Noise. — In *France* the Industrial Hygiene Association (General Confederation of Employers) is trying to direct the study of acoustics towards abolishing the noise of industrial machinery at the source.

Labelling of Toxic Products. — The International Labour Office, which had been instructed by the Governing Body to communicate to the States Members of the Organisation the resolution adopted by the Correspondence Committee on Industrial Hygiene (1935) received a number of favourable replies. Legislation was enacted in *Canada*, Ontario (Act of 9 April 1936).

Industrial Smoke. — The campaign continued to be carried on with success in *France* (Lyons, for instance); and in *Great Britain*, where a smoke-abatement exhibition was organised (London, 1 October 1936).

Dust. — In *Germany* the Labour Protection Society (Frankfurt, 20 October 1936) suggested the wearing of special masks for "heavy" work. In *Ecuador* the wearing of masks by workers manipulating vegetable ivory was made compulsory. Masks tested during several months by the *United States* Department of the Navy in workrooms in which there was a strong concentration of very fine dust are stated to have given highly satisfactory results. In *California* a series of Orders was issued (16 December 1936) for the elimination of dusts, fumes, vapours, and gases in industry and in certain processes involving special risk. In the State of *New York* (Advisory Committee on Control of Dust Hazards, set up on 30 July 1936) enquiries were undertaken into the definitions of injurious dusts and of injurious dust concentrations in the atmosphere, with a view to drafting provisions for the industrial code.

Hygiene in Various Occupations

Agriculture. — In *Colombia* provisions were adopted (14 March 1936) concerning healthy housing for workers in salt and other mines. In *Great Britain* similar measures were taken for seasonal workers, in particular, hop pickers (Public Health Act of 31 July 1936).

Compressed Air. — In *Denmark* an Order of 12 September 1936 introduced medical examination for divers and safety measures for their work. In *Italy* Ministerial Decrees of 14 February and 12 March 1936 provided for compensation measures for sponge fishers. In the *United States* the Standards Association drew up special regulations in regard to work in caissons; and such regulations were applied in *North Carolina* and *Minnesota* (2 March 1936).

Canned Food. — In *Canada* Regulations of 27 February 1936 contained new provisions relative to fish canning.

Construction, Roadbuilding. — Safety and health measures were introduced in the *United States* for workers employed in the building industry or on public works (4 August 1936).

In *Belgium* a Ministerial circular of 28 March 1936 requires roadbuilding contractors to provide shelter against inclement weather for their workers.

Hides and Leather. — In *Peru* a Resolution of 21 July 1936 provides for protection in the work of spray painting.

Chemicals. — The reduction of working hours for reasons of health and safety was considered by the special Preparatory Technical Tripartite Meeting held at the International Labour Office (Geneva, 7 December 1936). The problem is complicated by the fact that there are as many quite different industries as there are products manufactured. While it is true that unhealthy, dangerous, and trying conditions exist, it is difficult to combine in a single regulation measures of prevention applicable in all cases.

In *Italy* the problem of industrial hygiene in the chemical industry was submitted, at the request of the workers' organisation, to the competent corporation for examination (January 1937).

Basic Slag. — In *Germany* an Order of 8 June 1936 laid down principles in regard to the equipment and working of undertakings where sacks which have contained basic slag are handled and put to further use.

Refrigeration. — In *Australia* Regulations were issued in New South Wales on 4 September 1936 concerning the health and safety of workers in the refrigerating industry.

Mines. — The *Miners' International Federation* (Prague, 3 August 1936) requested the International Labour Office to draft standard regulations for the protection of health and prevention of accidents, and to prepare an international code of health and safety measures for the mining industry. The Office has begun the preparation of such regulations. The *British Trades Union Congress* (Plymouth, 7 September), passed a resolution moved on behalf of the Mineworkers' Federation, demanding amendment of the Workmen's Compensation Acts to make Section 43 of the Act apply to the diseases and processes specified in the resolution. The Royal Commission on Safety in Mines (London) discussed at length various injurious factors and their prevention, such as high temperature underground, lighting (for prevention of nystagmus) dust, ventilation, etc.

The problem of dust in underground mines was also dealt with in *Austria*, where legislation of 9 January and 12 February 1936 requires the wearing of a special type of respirator. In *Uganda* a Notification of 15 August 1936 contains provisions in regard to

lighting, ventilation, and medical care. The International Federation of Christian Miners (Brussels, 5 September 1936) has demanded the extension of accident insurance to cover occupational diseases in mines. The new Mines Act of 31 October 1936 in *New Zealand* provides for measures against dust from drilling. In *Peru* a Decree of 15 January deals with medical care and hygiene in mines.

Metals. — In *Canada* the Convention of the Trades and Labour Congress (Montreal, 8 September 1936) demanded the abolition of sand-blasting. In *France* a regional congress of metal workers' unions (Saint-Chamond, 21 March 1936) demanded the recasting of the Act of 1898 on occupational accidents and diseases. In *Germany* a meeting devoted to workshop technique (Leipzig, 6 March 1936) discussed the anti-noise campaign, natural and artificial ventilation, problems of metal scouring, cleaning, and polishing, and the dust liberated by these processes. In the *United States* an Illinois Act of 6 March 1936 regulates localised ventilation in grinding and polishing.

The Autogenous Welding Institute and the Society of Welding Engineers (Paris, January) drew up draft prescriptions for health and safety in regard to arc welding.

Ports. — In *Poland* industrial accidents and occupational diseases occurring at the port of Gdynia were the subject of an enquiry into dermatitis, bronchitis, pneumonia caused by handling basic slag, various infections contracted in the fishing industry, and anthrax among workers handling raw hides; a consulting office was set up to give effect to the requisite preventive measures.

Textiles. — In *Argentina* a Decree of 24 June 1936 declares the process of carding to be unhealthy and limits the hours worked. In *Egypt* improved ventilation in cotton-ginning establishments was studied, and agreement was reached in regard to the degree of humidity proposed by the Joint Egyptian Cotton Committee. In *Great Britain* the researches of Professor Prausnitz into stripper's asthma showed that this disease is very probably a type of allergy connected with one or several groups of substances of the protein fraction of the cotton dust. The high incidence of respiratory diseases due to dust in cardrooms led the workers to demand compensation. The Cardroom Workers' Amalgamation, comprising 8,000 members claimed that 20 per cent. were suffering from incapacity due exclusively to prolonged inhalation of dust. Negotiations for introducing a compensation scheme having been broken off by the Federation of Master Cotton Spinners' Associations, a deputation of the workers' amalgamation was appointed to discuss the question with a representative of the Home Office, and obtained the assurance that on receipt of full particulars of the proposed scheme consideration would be given to the question of setting up a special committee to deal with the matter. In *India* there was improvement in regard to humidification and air condi-

tioning. In *Mexico* dust-exhaust apparatus and respirators were made compulsory for factories using certain raw materials (wool, padding, etc.), and the Federal Department of Public Health issued regulations for the protection of the health of workers in the woollen industry.

Transport. — The International Conference of Motor Drivers (Antwerp, 18 November 1936) adopted a programme of demands dealing, among other things, with medical tests of fitness (sight, hearing, etc.) the international regulation of vocational training, and the minimum requirements of hygiene in regard to vehicles, garages, etc. In *Belgium* the Transport Workers' Union (Brussels, 26 April 1936) demanded a certificate of fitness for motor drivers.

Aviation. — In *France* an Order of 16 March 1936 introduced compulsory medical examination for civilian staffs. A Decree of 8 December 1936 set up a psycho-physiological service for military aviation with the task of centralising the study of the adaptation of the human system to the optimum utilisation of aeronautical material. In *Italy* a Ministerial Decree of 9 January 1936 enumerates defects and infirmities entailing unfitness for the work of air pilot.

Offices. — The Correspondence Committee on Industrial Hygiene of the International Labour Office (Geneva, 21 September 1936) discussed a draft standard code of hygiene regulations for offices, which was also submitted to the Advisory Committee on Salaried Employees. In *France* a report concluding in favour of the extension to salaried employees of the legislation on occupational diseases and the revision of the hygiene regulations was presented to the Congress of the Federation of Christian Salaried Employees' Unions (Paris, 9 March 1936). The Minister of Labour (August 1936) announced the introduction of a Bill ensuring hygienic installations in commercial and industrial undertakings. In *Great Britain* the Bill dealing with office employees was rejected (5 December 1936) by the House of Commons. The Scottish Trade Union Congress (St. Andrews, 22 April 1936) urged the necessity for the Bill and discussed the occurrence of pulmonary disease, gastric disease, and defective hygiene in offices. In the *Irish Free State* the principal branches of the Commercial Employees' Union voted a resolution (February 1936) demanding, among other things, a minimum standard of hygiene and health in offices. In *Poland*, where the standard code of industrial hygiene prepared by the International Labour Office is welcomed as most opportune, the President of the Municipality of Warsaw issued a circular to the various municipal offices, calling attention to conditions of safety and hygiene.

In *Germany* a series of new instructions (5 October 1936) was issued for protecting employees in outdoor stalls against inclement weather.

In *Argentina* a Bill was introduced for a national tuberculosis insurance fund for State employees and workers.

COMPENSATION FOR OCCUPATIONAL DISEASES

The following action was taken on the Convention of 1925 and the revised Convention of 1934 during the period under review¹:

Convention No. 18: Workmen's Compensation (Occupational Diseases), 1925

Great Britain. — Ratification denounced on 29 April 1936, in consequence of the ratification of Convention No. 42.

Irish Free State. — Ratification denounced on 15 March 1937 in consequence of the ratification of Convention No. 42.

Peru. — By Decree of 6 March 1936 the President of the Republic approved the Convention and submitted it to Congress for ratification.

Poland. — The Chamber and Senate adopted, on 28 March 1936 and 15 January 1937 respectively, a Bill for the ratification of the Convention.

Sweden. — Ratification denounced on 24 February 1937, in consequence of the ratification of Convention No. 42.

U.S.S.R. — Submitted to the competent authorities.

Convention No. 42: Workmen's Compensation (Occupational Diseases) (Revised), 1934

Brazil. — Ratification registered on 8 June 1936.

Cuba. — Ratification registered on 22 October 1936.

Finland. — In a proposal submitted to Parliament on 2 October 1936 the Government asked why it had been considered impossible to ratify the Convention at present. In its reply of 21 December 1936, however, Parliament invited the Government to consider the possibility of amending existing legislation to bring it into line with the Convention and so of facilitating ratification.

France. — As the proposal for postponing ratification of the Convention, submitted to the Chamber of Deputies on 27 February 1936, has lapsed², the Government again submitted the Convention to the Chamber, on 13 August 1936, together with the same proposal.

Great Britain. — Ratification registered on 29 April 1936.

India. — The Secretary of State for India informed the Office on 9 November 1936 that it had been decided not to ratify the Convention. The Government of India proposed, however, to add certain of the occupational diseases included in the revised Convention to Schedule III of the Workmen's Compensation Act, and notifications were issued on 29 January 1937 that the Governor-General in Council had added to the Schedule arsenical poisoning, and its sequelæ; pathological manifestations due to (a) radium and other radioactive substances, (b) X-rays; and primary epitheliomatous cancer of the skin, together with the list of corresponding employments and processes.

Irish Free State. — Ratification registered on 15 March 1937.

Japan. — Ratification registered on 6 June 1936.

Netherlands. — A Bill to bring accident insurance legislation into conformity with the provisions of the Convention was submitted for observations to the Higher Labour Council.

¹ The information given here relates only to the period 16 March 1936-15 March 1937. See the tables at the end of the volume for the general situation as regards the Conventions.

² Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1935-36*, p.155.

Peru. — By Decree of 6 March 1936 the President of the Republic approved the Convention and submitted it to Congress for ratification.

Sweden. — Ratification registered on 24 February 1937.

U.S.S.R. — Submitted to the competent authorities.

Yugoslavia. — Submitted to Parliament on 31 December 1936.

Compensation for occupational diseases in conformity with the revised Convention of 1934 was the subject of a resolution adopted by the Labour Conference of American States (Santiago-de-Chile, 2 January 1936). The Correspondence Committee on Industrial Hygiene of the International Labour Office (Geneva, 21 September 1936) discussed the addition to the international schedule of serious cases of nystagmus, pathological skin disorders due to chlorine, and acute poisoning by nitrous fumes. It referred to a later session the study of chronic cases due to nitrous fumes and the fixing of a formula to cover compensation of injuries to the mucous membranes. In conclusion, it directed attention to a preliminary report on insurance by means of "blanket coverage".

While the Central Industrial Committee in *Belgium* (Brussels, 22 June 1936) advocated caution in extending the application of compensation for injuries due to occupational diseases, the workers' representatives at several congresses reiterated their demand for this extension. For example, the International Federation of Building and Wood Workers (London, 13 July 1936) held that—besides asbestosis—diseases of the skin due to cement, mineral oils, turpentine, varnishes and lacquers, alkalis, toxic woods, chromium, and dust, as well as caisson disease, etc. should be included in the schedule.

In the *United States* the third National Conference on Labour Legislation (Washington, 9 November 1936) adopted a recommendation that injuries should be so defined as to include occupational diseases and that there should be "blanket coverage" of occupational diseases rather than "schedule coverage". On the other hand, the American Association of Industrial Physicians and Surgeons supported the schedule method and drew up a draft schedule of diseases to be compensated. The Federation of Labor in Michigan (Escanaba, 7 July 1936) voted a resolution calling for inclusion of occupational diseases under compensation legislation in accordance with the principle of "blanket coverage".

Compulsory Notification

In *Argentina* a draft Order proposes compulsory notification of occupational diseases. In *Belgium* the Royal Order of 5 May 1936 amended the procedure for notification: initiative in this matter becoming incumbent on the employer. In *Great Britain* the Order of 29 June 1936 added manganese poisoning to the list of diseases subject to compulsory notification. In Norway all occupational diseases are notifiable under the Workers' Protection Act of 19 June 1936.

*Compensation Legislation*¹

In *Argentina* a Decree of 29 April 1936 added to the schedule pathological troubles due to radium, radio-active substances and X-rays, primary epithelioma of the skin due to tar, pitch, bitumen, etc. and amended the existing entry concerning anthrax infection and brucellosis. In *Bechuanaland* a Proclamation of 7 May 1936 extended the definition of "accident" to cover "injury".

In *Brazil* an Act of 22 March 1936 provides for the compensation of occupational diseases and for the issue of a schedule in the form of regulations.

In *Colombia* a Bill was submitted to Congress for the compensation of accidents and occupational diseases.

In *Cuba* the Decrees of 18 February and 22 April 1936 contain the schedule of the international Convention (Revised), 1934, and add to it pulmonary tabacosis.

In *France* the Decree of 12 July 1936 extended the schedule of the 1931 Act to cover diseases contracted in sewers (ictero-hæmorrhagic spirochetosis and tetanus), skin diseases due to the action of cements (primary and secondary dermatitis), dermatitis due to the action of trichloronaphthaline (acne), cutaneous and nasal ulceration due to potassium bichromate.

In *Germany* the Third Order (16 December) to some extent amended the entries in the current schedule in regard to phosphorus, manganese, X-rays and tropical diseases. It added diseases due to halogen derivative of hydrocarbons of the aliphatic series, cancer and injuries to the mucous membrane of the urinary passages due to aromatic amines, and serious asbestosis. Three alterations of importance were made. In regard to lead, phosphorus, mercury, arsenic, manganese, benzol, the nitro- and amido-derivatives of benzene and its homologues, carbon disulphide, sulphuretted hydrogen, and halogen derivatives of hydrocarbons of the aliphatic series, skin diseases due to these substances are now considered occupational if they constitute manifestations of general poisoning or if they come under the paragraph concerning serious or recurrent occupational diseases of the skin obliging the worker to change his occupation or abandon all occupational activity. The entry concerning chronic and chronically recurrent diseases of the skin due to soot, etc., was changed to "Cancer of the skin or lesions of the skin favouring the outbreak of cancer when caused by soot, paraffin, etc." The entry concerning "serious pneumoconiosis (silicosis)" which was formerly compensated when the disease occurred in workers engaged in the four industries enumerated in the second column of the schedule, is now (a) serious pneumoconiosis (silicosis); (b) pneumoconiosis (silicosis) complicated by pulmonary tuberculosis when the clinical picture is serious and the pneumoconiotic injuries constitute the essential cause of active and

¹ For the compensation of pneumoconiosis, see above p. 155.

progressive development of the tuberculosis; further, this disease as well as asbestosis is covered in all undertakings liable to accident insurance.

In *Hungary* a Decree of 30 December 1936 gave effect to the Act of 1935, with the list of the revised Convention.

In *India* by a Notification of 28 September 1936 the States must be consulted before the issue of a schedule which reproduces most of that in the revised Convention.

In *Iraq* the Labour Act of 25 April 1936 provides for compensation for accidents, and for total or permanent incapacity resulting from disease, poisoning or injury.

In *Italy* a Legislative Decree of 8 June 1936 postponed the date of coming into force of the Act on compensation for occupational diseases to 1 April 1937.

In *Japan* a Circular of 3 July 1936 contains a list of 26 diseases to be compensated, which applies to workers in factories and mines.

In *Mexico* tuberculosis is in certain cases compensated as an occupational disease.

In *Palestine* the Workmen's Compensation Act is to be amended to include compensation of diseases such as: poisoning by lead, mercury, arsenic, hydrocyanic acid and their compounds, and anthrax infection.

In *Portugal* the Act of 27 July 1936 grants compensation for poisoning by lead, mercury and their compounds, certain mordants such as chromates or bichromates, solvents, industrial gases, fumes and dust, disorders due to X-rays and radio-active substances, anthrax infection and occupational dermatitis, in seven specified groups of industries.

In *Spain* the Act of 13 July 1936 provides compensation for poisoning by lead, mercury, phosphorus, arsenic, benzene and its homologues, halogen derivatives of hydrocarbons of the aliphatic series, carbon disulphide, manganese, and their compounds and derivatives, in the industries and processes enumerated in the second column of the revised Convention; anthrax infection, glanders, epithelioma of the skin, ankylostomiasis, occupational dermatitis; infectious diseases among hospital staffs, etc.; inflammation of the serous bursæ and tendon sheaths among miners, quarrymen and stonecutters; pneumoconiosis, pathological manifestations due to radium, X-rays or other radio-active substances; miners' nystagmus; conjunctivitis, retinitis, and cataract due to exposure to intense light; conjunctivitis and keratitis among sulphur miners; Dupuytren's contraction in processes involving constant pressure on the palm of the hand; poisoning by toxic gases and fumes in any industry or process where such gases and fumes are generated.

In *Sweden* the Act of 26 June 1936 amended that of 1929 so as to include all the diseases contained in the revised Convention, as well as those due to carbon monoxide, cyanogen and its compounds, chlorine, nitrous fumes, chronic acid and its compounds, and certain infectious diseases (hospital staffs, etc.).

In *Switzerland* the Order of 25 February 1936 added to the schedule of harmful substances the following: ethyl formate and dichloride, ethylene oxide, nicotine, pyrethritine, thiocyanate, copper sulphate, and compounds of thalium.

In the *Union of South Africa*, the Co-ordinating Council of the Furniture Trade Unions passed a resolution in favour of including dermatitis in the schedule of occupational diseases.

In the *United States* Illinois introduced elective legislation applying "blanket coverage" (16 March 1936). Missouri regulated the procedure of the Workmen's Compensation Committee. Rhode Island amended the Compensation Law (Chapters 2290 and 2358 of 1936), which, instead of covering all occupational diseases, contains a schedule listing 31 diseases, including: poisoning by arsenic, zinc or brass, lead, manganese, mercury, phosphorus, wood alcohol, carbon disulphide, naphtha, volatile halogenated hydrocarbons of the aliphatic series, benzol and its nitro- and amido-derivatives, carbon monoxide, nitrous fumes, nickel carbonyl, tetrachlormethane or any substance used as a solvent for acetate of cellulose or nitro-cellulose, formaldehyde and its preparations, methyl chloride, sulphuric, hydrochloric or hydrofluoric acid, and their sequelæ; anthrax, glanders, chrome ulceration, epitheliomatous cancer or ulceration of the skin or of the cornea due to tar, pitch, bitumen, mineral oil or paraffin; infection or inflammation of the skin or eyes or other external contact surfaces or oral or nasal cavities due to oils, lubricants, dust, liquids, fumes, gases or vapours; dermatitis venenata; disability arising from blisters or abrasions; bursitis, synovitis, frost-bite, compressed-air disease; miners' disease, including only cellulitis, bursitis, ankylostomiasis, tenosynovitis and nystagmus; cataract in glassworkers; poisoning or disability due to X-rays or radio-active substances; respiratory, gastro-intestinal or physiological nerve and eye disorders due to contact with petroleum products and their fumes; hernia, clearly recent in origin and resulting from a strain during work.

In *Venezuela* a Bill was introduced to define occupational diseases and such common diseases as may in certain conditions be considered to be occupational diseases.

Statistics

The Correspondence Committee on Industrial Hygiene of the International Labour Office, at its session in 1936, recognised the inadequacy of regular and comparable statistics of notified and compensated cases of occupational disease. It decided that this question should be placed on the Agenda of a future session and that the Office should request members of the Committee to furnish material for preparing a report.

Austria. — According to the statistics of the accident insurance institutions, 117 cases of disease were notified in 1935, 56 being occupational diseases within the meaning of the Act, 50 occupational diseases not included in the schedule but attributed by the

claimant to his occupation, and 11 unconnected with occupation. Of the 56 cases of disease notified as occupational, 20 were accorded compensation; these were classified by origin as follows: lead, 11 (40)¹; chrome, 0 (1); mercury, 1 (3); benzene, 0 (3); soot, tar, pitch, paraffin, 2 (2); radiant energy, 3 (3); anthrax infection, 0 (1); silicosis, 3 (3).

Belgium. — The 1935 report of the Welfare Fund for Victims of Occupational Diseases shows 133 cases notified in the course of the year, classified as follows: lead poisoning, 84; anthrax infection, 4; mercury poisoning, 1; phosphorus poisoning, 1; epithelioma of the skin, 3; poisoning by hydrocarbons, 31; tuberculosis, 1; silicosis, 2; lesions due to X-rays, 1; unspecified, 5. The number of cases compensated was 79: lead poisoning, 53; anthrax, 3; poisoning by hydrocarbons, 20; epithelioma of the skin, 2; lesions due to X-rays, 1.

Czechoslovakia. — During the year 1 December 1935 to 30 November 1936 the number of cases of occupational diseases compensated by the Insurance Institutions in Prague and Brno was 136, of which 20 were fatal. Their classification by origin was as follows: lead poisoning, 50; mercury poisoning, 1; poisoning by benzol, 3; by carbon monoxide, 1; by calcium cyanamide, 2; lesions due to X-rays, 1; eczema, 4; lesions due to radium (cancer of the lungs), 2; anthrax infection, 1; silicosis, 53; diseases due to chrome, 5; deafness due to noise, 6; cataract, 6; miners' nystagmus, 1.

Denmark. — From 1 October 1934 to 30 September 1935 13 cases of occupational disease were reported.

France. — The number of cases of compensable occupational diseases notified in 1935 was 838, classified as follows: lead poisoning 821 (264 in enamelling on metal, 184 in accumulator factories, 175 in foundries and metal refining, 51 in casting and rolling of lead, etc.); mercury poisoning, 6 (4 in hair-cutting establishments); benzol poisoning, 9 (3 fatal); phosphorus poisoning, 1 (manufacture of toy percussion caps); lesions due to X-rays, 1 (a nurse). Apart from these there were recorded 70 cases liable to notification only:—dermatosis (due to mineral oils), 16 cases; eczema and skin injuries due to cement, 15; various affections due to aniline, 5; silicosis due to dust, 3; etc.

Germany. — In 1935, out of 8,980 cases of occupational disease notified, 1,161 cases were compensated as compared with 1,043 in 1934, an increase of about 10.36 per cent. This total was distributed as follows: lead poisoning, 94 (1,294)²; poisoning by phos-

¹ The figures in brackets refer to cases notified.

² The figures in brackets refer to cases notified.

phorus, 0 (4); by mercury, 4 (62); by arsenic, 6 (40); by manganese, 0 (0); by benzene, its homologues and nitro- and amido-derivatives, 28 (305); by carbon disulphide, 4 (16); by sulphuretted hydrogen, 0 (82); by carbon monoxide, 36 (514); lesions due to X-rays, etc., 6 (25); chronic and recurrent diseases of the skin due to galvanising processes, 25 (396); to exotic woods, paraffin, tar, etc., 17 (282); diseases of the bones, muscles and joints due to work with pneumatic tools, 77 (166); respiratory diseases due to basic slag, 12 (99); silicosis, 627 (1,601); cancer of the lungs, 0 (0); deafness due to noise, 2 (34); cataract, 10 (29); ankylostomiasis, 0 (0); tropical diseases, 10 (387); infectious diseases, 203 (1,740). The number of cases notified also included 1,904 not fulfilling the legal requirements.

Great Britain. — The number of cases of occupational disease notified to the Factory Inspectorate in 1935 was 438, of which 58 were fatal: lead poisoning, 168 (17)¹; arsenical poisoning, 1 (0); mercury poisoning, 1 (0); carbon disulphide poisoning, 1 (0); aniline poisoning, 9 (0); benzene poisoning, 0 (0); chrome ulceration, 67 (0); epitheliomatous cancer, 171 (38); anthrax infection, 20 (3). In addition there were 120 cases of poisoning by gases and fumes, 13 of which were fatal.

In 1934 the number of cases of occupational disease which were compensated was 10,165, classified as follows in order of incidence: subcutaneous cellulitis of the knee, 3,762; dermatitis due to wounds and liquids, 2,058; miners' nystagmus, 1,745; subcutaneous cellulitis of the hand, 1,322; subcutaneous cellulitis of the elbow, 572; inflammation of the synovial lining of the wrist joint, 417; lead poisoning, 107; epitheliomatous cancer, 56; chrome ulceration, 32; etc.

Hungary. — In 1935 74 cases of lead poisoning were notified to the Social Insurance Institution, 2 of mercury poisoning, and 6 of anthrax infection. The number of cases of occupational disease compensated in agriculture was 113, namely: rabies, 76; anthrax infection, 6; swine fever, 9; diseases due to chemical substances, 12; various cases of poisoning caused by animals, 1.

Irish Free State. — The number of cases of occupational disease compensated in 1935 was 16, classified as follows: lead poisoning, 5 (1)²; epitheliomatous cancer, 1 (0); diseases of the skin due to dusts and liquids, 10 (0).

Italy. — During the two years following the coming into force of the Act on compensation for occupational diseases (1 July 1934-30 June 1936) 688 cases were notified, 207 of which were compensated. Their classification by origin was as follows: lead poisoning, 531 cases notified, of which 237 were compensated (235 cases of

¹ The figures in brackets refer to fatal cases.

² The figures in brackets refer to fatal cases.

temporary incapacity and 2 of permanent incapacity); mercury poisoning, 13 notified, 5 compensated (temporary incapacity); phosphorus poisoning, 0; carbon disulphide poisoning, 87 notified, 21 compensated (2 of permanent incapacity and 19 of temporary incapacity); benzol poisoning, 13 notified, 4 compensated (temporary incapacity); ankylostomiasis, 64 notified, 40 compensated (temporary incapacity).

Netherlands. — In 1935, 180 cases of occupational disease were notified, of which 30 occurred in industries not covered by the Act, 10 were diseases not included in the schedule, 2 were cases of accident, 1 was due to an unknown cause, and 1 was doubtful. Among the diseases notified were 1 case of aniline poisoning, 1 of anthrax infection, 1 of poisoning by arseniuretted hydrogen, 1 by benzol, 1 by chrome, 4 by carbon monoxide, 13 by lead, 2 by nitro- and dinitro-benzene, and 4 by sulphur dioxide. There were also reported 22 cases of cellulitis of the knee (21 among coal miners); 2 of bursitis of the elbow; 59 of dermatosis; 35 of nystagmus; 9 of conjunctivitis; and 3 of peripheral paralysis.

Poland. — In 1934, 217 cases of occupational disease were notified, including 188 of lead poisoning, 14 of silicosis, etc.

Sweden. — In 1933, 59 cases of occupational disease were notified and compensation was granted in 26 cases, as follows: arsenical poisoning, 1; lead poisoning, 5; mercury poisoning, 1; silicosis, 13; injuries due to radiant heat or light, 4; injuries due to X-rays, 1; anthrax infection, 1.

Switzerland. — From 1 October 1935 to 30 September 1936 the Swiss National Accident Insurance Fund was notified of the following cases: lead poisoning, 32 (1 fatal) total days of incapacity caused, 1,629 $\frac{3}{4}$; total days of treatment, 2,205, including 697 in hospital); mercury poisoning, 3 (total days of incapacity caused, 307 $\frac{1}{2}$; total days of treatment, 301, including 119 in hospital); anthrax infection, 0.

United States (New York). — According to data supplied by the Division of Statistics and Information of the Department of Labour, the number of occupational diseases compensated in 1935 was 695. The most frequently occurring cases were: dermatitis, 342; abrasions, 111; lead poisoning, 99; poisoning by benzene and its derivatives, 60; bursitis and synovitis, 23; mercury poisoning, 8; etc.

MEDICAL INSPECTION

In *Belgium* reorganisation of the Medical Inspection Service and its duties are the subject of the Royal Order of 6 March 1936. In *Cuba* the medical inspection authorities carried out several

investigations into work in printing works, dye works, tobacco factories, etc. In *Denmark* the Confederation of Trade Unions (Copenhagen, 25 May 1936) demanded the engagement of more doctors in the Labour Inspectorate and the development of industrial hygiene research. The account of the first five years' activity of the Industrial Health Inspectorate showed that during that period it had reported on 568 subjects, of which 137 were connected with silicosis and 163 with lead poisoning. In *India* the report of the Royal Commission on Labour had pointed out that many aspects of the organisation of work called for medical knowledge and that the complexity of Indian industry necessitated an extension of such knowledge. But as few factories could do without medical supervision the Commission had recommended that in every province there should be one officer with medical qualifications appointed to inspect factories and to be responsible for health matters. During the year under review the Punjab Government, by way of experiments appointed for a period of two years a district medical officer of health specially conversant with industrial hygiene and diseases. The Labour Inspection Department of Mofussil factories (Bihar and Orissa) devoted a large part of its report to conditions of hygiene and health in workshops and industrial processes. In *Mexico* the Industrial Hygiene Regulations of 6 June 1936 make it compulsory for factories to establish a medical service.

All the annual reports presented by medical inspectors, *Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Germany, Great Britain, India, Japan, the Netherlands, Poland, United States* (New York, Ohio, and other States), etc., give the results of enquiries into the occupational risks connected with new processes or new products.

RESEARCH CENTRES

In *Australia* a National Health and Medical Research Council was set up, with a section to deal with industrial hygiene and questions of workmen's compensation. In *Germany*, at a meeting held at Dresden (19 September 1936), it was decided to combine in a single association all medical research and hygiene organisations. In *Italy* an Institute of Industrial Medicine was established in Milan (27 June 1936) in the National Propaganda Organisation for Accident Prevention, and similar institutes will be opened in Rome and Genoa. In *Japan* the Kurashiki Institute for the Science of Labour founded by private enterprise was recognised as of national importance and transferred to Tokyo as a centre for the promotion of research into industrial physiology; the founder placed a substantial sum at the disposal of the centre. In *Norway*, as already stated, a special foundation for the study of occupational poisons under the Oslo Institute of Hygiene was proposed. In the *United States* the Chrysler Corporation set up an industrial hygiene laboratory at Detroit. In Illinois a Division of Industrial Hygiene was created in the State Department of Health; its headquarters will be at the College of Medicine, Illinois Univer-

sity. The Division of Industrial Hygiene of the State of New York drew up a programme of study comprising plastic materials, intermediary aniline products in colour factories, products containing naphthaline and chloro-derivatives, etc., benzene and its homologues and their nitro- and amido-derivatives. In Maryland the Baltimore City Department of Health established, in conjunction with the State Commission, a Bureau for the studies of the incidence and pathology of occupational diseases. An Industrial Hygiene Service was set up in the Rhode Island State Health Department to enquire into questions of industrial hygiene and diseases and to make recommendations for legislation. The Federal Department of Public Health through its Division of Industrial Hygiene grants assistance (as provided by the Social Security Act of 14 August 1935) to those States which desire to organise a public hygiene service, and to train with a view thereto the requisite staff by holding theoretical and practical courses. Since the campaign began these "industrial hygiene units" have been established in nineteen States, apart from already existing services in the more progressive States.

TRAINING IN INDUSTRIAL MEDICINE

The urgent problem of training in industrial medicine has not been overlooked by the International Labour Office. The Correspondence Committee on Industrial Hygiene is engaged in seeking the most practical and satisfactory solution of this problem.

In *Czechoslovakia* the existing chairs of industrial hygiene and welfare were transferred by the Ministry of Health to the Ministry of Education. In *France* the Paris Municipal Council discussed (December 1936) the creation of a chair of welfare and social medicine in the Faculty of Medicine. In *Germany*, the Society for Labour Protection and the Social Welfare Department of the Labour Front revived the course in occupational diseases at Charlottenburg, intended more particularly for engineers and foremen. It was also proposed to introduce technical instruction in hygiene (medical care in case of accident or occupational disease) without creating a special chair, but requesting each professor instead to supplement his programme of studies by the inclusion of this subject. In *Mexico* the Department of Public Health organised courses in industrial medicine. In *Poland* instruction in the same subject is being developed by the Industrial and Technical Museum at Warsaw and the efforts of students, who in Poznan, for instance, organised a Department of Industrial Hygiene and Safety in order to acquire experience for preventive work in factories and workshops. The Institute for Social Problems took the initiative in organising, in conjunction with the school authorities, courses on hygiene and safety in the vocational schools. In the *United States*, on the occasion of the Harvard University tercentenary celebration a "symposium" of industrial hygiene was devoted to numerous current problems.

The International Congress on Dermatology and Syphilography (Budapest, 1935) and the International Union against Cancer (Paris, 1936) each decided to publish an atlas, the first dealing with skin diseases and the second with cancer.

It is interesting to note that numerous congresses on branches of medicine and surgery include in their discussions the problem of industrial medicine. At many meetings of specialists annual national congresses are continued or inaugurated.

In *Argentina* the National Congress of Guild and Social Medicine (Rosario, October 1936) dealt chiefly with workers' nutrition. In *France* the Society of Legal Medicine decided to change its name to the Society of Legal and Social Medicine with a view to the inclusion of industrial medicine and surgery. In *Germany* the Medical Association for Accidents Insurance, and Treatment devoted its attention (Hamburg, 19 September) and the Society for Labour Protection (Frankfort) discussed labour problems. In *Italy* the Society of Industrial Medicine (Naples, October 1936) studied new contributions to the problem of poisoning by products recently introduced into industry, the pathology and prevention of noise as well as the first results of the Act on compensation for occupational diseases. In *Japan* the Industrial Hygiene Association (Kobe) dealt among other matters with the question of factory doctors, the prevention and treatment of occupational diseases, and the problem of rest periods and working hours. In *Mexico* the First National Congress on Industrial Accidents and Diseases, organised by the Ministries of Labour and Health with a very wide agenda was fixed to take place in 1937. An Industrial Hygiene Week was organised by the Federal Labour Inspectorate. In *Spain*, the Society of Industrial Medicine (Valencia, January) founded a prize of 4,000 pesetas for local research into industries involving exposure to the risk of poisoning. In the *United States*, besides the special session held by the American Association of Medicine and the Public Health Association to discuss problems of industrial medicine, the Pan-American Conference of National Directors of Health laid down principles for an enquiry into the prevalence of occupational diseases, discussed the measures needed in regard to various health problems, and called for better standards of work for women and children, and for control of the workers' state of health through periodical medical examinations.

An exhibition of safety in factories was organised in *France* by the Society for Industrial Chemistry (Paris, 10 June 1936). In *Great Britain* the Industrial Hygiene Association considered the best methods of educating and instructing the workers. The Museum of Industrial Hygiene of the Home Office was enlarged. Finally, in *Italy*, the National Social Insurance Institute organised a competition for the best monograph on health rules for every-day life and work in Italian colonies and possessions.

The interest aroused by the social problem of occupational diseases was reflected throughout the press, including daily, technical, and medical journals. One review of the chemical industry even emphas-

ised the fact that industrial medicine is one of the subjects to which the International Labour Office has unceasingly directed its attention, and that it is in this field that it has met with its greatest measure of success.

Prevention of Industrial Accidents

NATIONAL REGULATIONS ¹

General Regulations

Austria. — A Decree of 1 September 1936 laid down rules for the selection of "confidential councillors" in works communities.

Cuba. — The existing legislation was supplemented by an Order of 26 October 1936, in respect of the compilation of industrial accident statistics and the supervision of the workers in the matter of accidents.

Danzig (Free City of). — An Order concerning accident prevention in municipal services, undertakings, and departments was promulgated on 28 February 1936.

France. — The collective agreements concluded between employers' and workers' organisations under the Act of 24 June 1936 contain a compulsory clause on the appointment of workers' representatives to supervise the application of the statutory measures concerning industrial health and safety. The agreements also usually contain clauses for the practical application of these measures. A Decree concerning the health and safety of workers in the *French Settlements in India* was issued on 23 May 1936. In *Indo-China* the work of Europeans and assimilated persons was regulated by a Decree of 24 February 1937. In *French West Africa* an Order of 21 August 1936 laid down regulations concerning the notification of accidents and the necessary enquiries.

India. — In the Province of Bihar and Orissa safety regulations were issued on 24 March 1936 under the 1934 Factories Act.

Iran. — Regulations concerning factories and industrial establishments were published on 10 August 1936.

Mozambique. — General regulations concerning industrial health and safety were approved by an Order of 24 March 1936.

Sarawak. — Machinery scheduled as dangerous was placed under special regulations by an Ordinance of 11 May 1936.

¹ For details, see under the heading "Acts and Regulations, Safety Codes", in the *Industrial Safety Survey* (INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE, Geneva).

United States. — Under regulations issued on 14 September 1936, the specifications for Federal contracts must include provisions concerning safety and health. In Illinois an Act concerning safety and health came into force on 16 March 1936.

Laws concerning the general protection of workers were promulgated in *Norway* on 19 June 1936 and in *Venezuela* on 15 July 1936.

The list of processes and undertakings scheduled as dangerous, unhealthy or disagreeable was altered in the following countries: *Argentina*, addition of the process of carding (Decree of 24 June 1936); *Belgian Congo*, addition of the storage of explosives (Order of 30 October 1936); *France*, addition of "inflammable liquid gas under a pressure of less than 15 kilogrammes" and modification of the item "inflammable liquids" (Decree of 29 April 1936); *Luxemburg*, addition of "silos for storing green fodder" (Order of 9 May 1936). The French Decree of 29 April 1936 was extended to apply to *Algeria* by a Decree of 14 March 1937.

Special Regulations

Steam Boilers. — In *Bulgaria* regulations concerning persons minding steam boilers and containers were published on 19 February 1937. In *France* three departmental circulars dated 15 December 1935, 6 July 1936, and 20 August 1936, issued instructions concerning the isolation of boilers, the use of cast-iron economisers, and the use of safety valves respectively. In *French Equatorial Africa* the use and supervision of steam apparatus was regulated by a Decree of 19 March 1937. A Decree of 14 May 1936 extended the application of various Decrees concerning the use of steam apparatus other than that on board ship to *Algeria*, and similar provision was made for *Martinique* and *Reunion* under a Decree of 3 March 1937. In *Indo-China* an Order concerning this class of apparatus was issued on 4 April 1936, supervision in the same field being provided for by an Order of 2 June 1936. In *Germany* new regulations in respect of steam boilers on land were issued under Orders of 30 June, 2 July, 30 July, 4 August, and 29 September 1936, and under a Decree of 27 August 1936. The regulations governing steam boilers in *India* were amended by Notifications of 6 August and 24 September 1936, and in the provinces of Assam and Bihar by a Notification of 29 April and an Order of 23 July 1936. In *Italy* a Decree relating to automatic closing valves for steam generators was promulgated on 28 August 1936. In *Mexico* regulations for the inspection of boilers were laid down on 30 August 1936.

Gas-Pressure Apparatus. — Containers for liquefied, compressed or dissolved gases were dealt with in the *Belgian Congo* by an Order of 13 May 1936 and in the *Free City of Danzig* by a Police Order

of 25 May 1936. In *Canada* (Quebec), an Order concerning pressure vessels was issued on 20 November 1936. The gas-pressure apparatus regulations in *France* were amended by an Order of 29 June 1936, while a Decree of 14 May 1936 extended the application of several Decrees relating to this apparatus to *Algeria*. In *Switzerland* a Federal Order concerning the transportation of compressed, liquefied or dissolved gases was promulgated on 19 May 1936.

Hoisting Machinery. — Provisions concerning hoisting machinery were issued in *Australia* (Victoria) on 7 January 1936 and in *Austria* on 10 November 1936. In *Belgium* a Royal Order of 26 May 1936 amended that of 20 February 1933 concerning hoisting machinery and aerial railways, and a Royal Order of 11 July 1936 dealt with the inspection of hoisting machinery on board ship. In *Portugal* safety regulations for electric lifts and hoists were put into force under a Decree of 14 May 1936.

Electricity. — Legislation concerning electricity was supplemented or amended in the following countries: *Austria*, Order of 25 November 1936; *Barbados*, Act of 12 June 1936; *Denmark*, Order of 27 March 1936; *Guadeloupe*, Order of 12 September 1936; *India*, Regulations of 27 March 1937; *Portugal*, Legislative Decrees of 30 July and 8 August 1936, and a Decree of 7 October 1936 applying solely to the Portuguese colonies.

Radiological Apparatus. — Regulations on this subject were issued in *Bulgaria* on 14 September 1936.

Dangerous Substances: (a) *General regulations.* — In *Germany* the conveyance of dangerous substances by rail was regulated by two Orders of 28 July 1936 and 2 February 1937.

(b) *Inflammable substances.* — In *Australia* (Tasmania) the regulations concerning inflammable liquids were amended by two Notifications of 15 September 1936. In *Canada* (British Columbia) the regulations of 27 November 1934 concerning oil burners and other oil burning apparatus were amended by an Order in Council of 15 September 1936. In *Denmark* regulations for the storage and conveyance of inflammable liquids were laid down by a Notification of 27 February 1937. In *Venezuela* inflammable substances were dealt with by an Order of 15 January 1937.

(c) *Explosives.* — In the *Belgian Congo* the conveyance and use of explosive substances were regulated by an Order of 31 October 1936. In *France* an Order of 10 December 1936 amended that of 15 February 1928. In *Germany* an Order of 11 July 1936 dealt with the use of chlorates in fireworks. In *Great Britain* an Order of 2 February 1937 dealt with acetylene as an explosive. In *Laos* the transport of explosives and similar substances and the storage and sale of the latter were regulated by two Orders of 11 March 1936. In *Malta*, the manufacture and storage of explosives were

regulated by a Notification of 5 October 1936. In *Northern Rhodesia* the existing provisions concerning explosives were amended by a Notification of 7 April 1936, and in *Southern Rhodesia* a Notification of 20 November 1936 regulated the storage of explosives. In *Sarawak* the provisions concerning explosives were amended by an Order of 9 November 1936. In *Uganda* an Order and Notifications of 23 May and 15 September 1936 respectively prescribed regulations for the manufacture, sale, transportation, etc. of explosives.

(d) *Poisonous substances.* — In *Belgium* the marking of certain poisonous substances was made compulsory by Orders of 23 January and 20 April 1937.

Other Regulations. — In *Australia* regulations concerning the health and safety of persons employed in refrigerating chambers were promulgated on 4 September 1936 in New South Wales; and in Victoria an Act of 17 December 1935 concerning petroleum mining empowered the Governor to issue safety regulations. In *Bulgaria* an Order of 22 September 1936 laid down safety regulations for persons in minding motors. In *Burma* petroleum mining was regulated by a Notification of 30 October 1936. In *Canada* (Saskatchewan) an Act of 1 April 1936 empowered the Lieutenant-Governor in Council to issue safety regulations for oil and gas wells. In *Ceylon* the petroleum regulations were amended by an Ordinance of 15 December 1936, and regulations for petrol service stations were issued on 2 April 1937. In *Denmark* safety regulations for diving work were laid down by an Act of 7 April 1936 and two Notifications of 12 December 1936 and 11 January 1937. In the *Free City of Danzig* a Police Order concerning the installation and use of calendering and laundry rooms was published on 6 May 1936. In *India* regulations concerning sand blasting, spray painting, chroming and the mineral water, rubber, and petroleum industries, etc., were published on 27 March 1937. In Madras the cleaning and greasing of parts of machinery while in motion were prohibited by a Notification of 14 December 1936. In the *United States* regulations of 7 May 1936 prescribed that the specifications of oil and gas concessions must include provisions concerning the health and safety of the workers. In California safety Orders concerning dangerous dusts, fumes, vapours and gases were issued on 28 December 1936, and an Order on mechanical power transmission on 1 January 1937. In Illinois an Act concerning grinding, buffing and polishing was promulgated on 16 March 1936.

Regulations for Special Industries

Mines and Quarries. — In *Australia* two amendments to the Queensland Coal Mines Act were passed on 27 August 1936. In Western Australia the measures in force concerning the election of miners' inspectors and the use of electricity were amended on 27 October 1936. In *Austria* a Decree concerning fuses, touches,

detonators, etc., was published on 9 April 1936. In *Belgium* the regulations for lighting in mines were supplemented by two Orders of 14 May 1937. In *Brazil* a Decree relating to the application of the Mining Code was promulgated on 1 August 1936. In *Canada* the Mines Regulations in Saskatchewan were amended by an Order in Council of 13 September 1935 and an Act of 1 April 1936. In *Cuba* safety regulations for copper mines were published on 20 June 1936. In *France* an Order dealing with rescue equipment in mines was issued on 19 August 1936, and two Orders concerning packing and caving on 25 February 1937. An Order concerning safety in mines was issued in the colony of *Saint-Pierre et Miquelon* on 30 June 1936, and an Order containing regulations for quarries was issued in the mandated territories of *Syria* and *Lebanon* on 8 November 1935. In *Germany* collaboration between mining authorities and health officers was regulated by an Order of 7 September 1936, while another Order of 3 November 1936 dealt with electric igniters. In *Great Britain* two Orders of 9 June and 25 August 1936 dealt with fire-damp detectors and explosives respectively, and regulations were issued on 2 March 1937 concerning winding and haulage. The existing mines regulations in the *Gold Coast* and *Ashanti* were amended by regulations of 2 August 1936, in *Uganda* by a Notification of 15 August 1936, and in *India* by five Notifications, dated 27 June, 5 and 29 August 1936, 27 January 1937 and 1 February 1937. In the *Punjab* the Mines Act was amended by a notification of 23 November 1936. In *Peru* mines regulations were approved by a Decree of 15 January 1936. In the *Philippine Islands* an Act of 29 October 1936 empowered the Secretary of Labour to issue safety regulations for mines. The Government of the *Union of South Africa* published a Notification concerning the use of explosives on 16 October 1936.

Building and Public Works. — In *Hong Kong* the safety provisions in force were extended to cover demolition work by an Order of 31 December 1936. In *Tunisia* a Decree of 4 August 1936 specified the special health and safety measures applicable to building sites and public works.

Iron and Steel Industry. — In *Bulgaria* safety regulations for the cold working of metals were issued under an Order of 22 September 1936.

Transport: (a) General regulations. — In *Bulgaria* two Orders of 22 September 1936 laid down rules concerning safety, loading, unloading and transport, and work involving the use of trucks and waggons. In *Switzerland* a Federal Order concerning the transportation of compressed, liquefied or dissolved gases was published on 19 May 1936.

(b) *Docks.* — In the *Tonga Islands* an Act of 14 July 1936 laid down safety measures for the prevention of accidents in loading and

unloading ships. Similar regulations were issued in *Uruguay* under a Decree of 17 November 1936.

(c) *Maritime transport.* — In *Australia* the Commonwealth Navigation Act was amended by Regulations of 3 February 1937, and in Western Australia regulations concerning naked lights and smoking in ships' holds were issued on 24 June 1936. In *Belgium* a Royal Order of 11 July 1936 dealt with the inspection of hoisting machinery and fixed apparatus on board ship, standard certificates relating to the testing and inspection of this apparatus being prescribed in a Ministerial Order of 28 September 1936. In *France* a Decree of 3 March 1937 issued instructions concerning safety, and a Circular of 25 February 1936 and an Order of 10 March 1937 defined the precautions to be taken against fire on board ship. The latter was also the subject of a Notification of 23 April 1936 in *Hong Kong*. A Decree of 2 February 1937 extended the application of the Act of 16 June 1933 to the French colonies, protectorates and mandated territories. In *British Honduras* regulations concerning safety in ports were published on 12 August 1936. The port regulations were amended in the *Straits Settlements* by an Order of 9 December 1936 and in *Kenya* by a Notification of 16 March 1937. In the *United States* regulations concerning safety appliances were issued on 31 July 1936, and concerning enquiries into the causes of accidents on board ship, on 7 October 1936.

(d) *Railway transport.* — In *Belgium* a Royal Order of 4 July 1936 provided for State supervision in respect of serious accidents liable to endanger the safety of railway traffic. In *France* an Order of 13 February 1937 prescribed a special sound signal for road-rail coaches. A Decree concerning railwaymen's safety inspectors on main railways in *Algeria* was issued on 13 August 1936. In *French West Africa* safety on railways was the subject of a Decree of 9 May 1937. In *Germany* regulations for the conveyance of dangerous substances by rail were issued under an Order of 25 July 1936.

(e) *Road transport.* — In the Federal Capital Territory of *Australia* an Order to regulate motor traffic was issued on 28 October 1936. The same questions was dealt with in *Austria* by an Act of 2 February 1937. In *Canada* (Alberta) road traffic regulations were amended by two Acts of 3 and 7 April 1936. In *Great Britain* public service vehicles regulations were issued on 18 June 1936. In *Southern Rhodesia* the legislation concerning roads and road traffic, driving licences, garages, etc., was amended and supplemented by an Act of 10 July 1936 and a Notification of 9 October 1936. In *Johore* the legislation concerning traction engines and motor cars was amended on 4 June 1936.

(f) *Aerial navigation.* — Provisions concerning aerial navigation were issued in the following countries: *Estonia*, Decree of 2 July 1936; *France*, Order and Circular of 29 September 1936; *Germany*, Act of 21 August 1936 and Orders of 21 and 27 August 1936; *Gold Coast*,

Ordinance of 17 February 1937; *Irish Free State*, Act of 14 August 1936; *Nigeria*, Ordinance and Instructions of 7 October 1936.

(g) *Marking of weight on heavy packages*. — The provisions on this subject were amended in *China* by an Order of 10 December 1936.

Cinemas and Theatres. — In *Canada* (British Columbia) regulations concerning cinemas, theatres, the storage of films, etc., were published on 2 July 1936. In *France* safety instructions in establishments for cinematographic projection were issued by a Ministerial Circular of 29 November 1935, accompanied by the relevant regulations. In *Trinidad and Tobago* an Ordinance of 16 December 1936 laid down safety provisions for cinemas.

Fishing and Agriculture. — In *Denmark* safety regulations concerning the use of agricultural machinery were issued by a notification of 21 October 1936. In *Latvia* the inspection of machinery and apparatus used in fishing and agriculture was prescribed by an Act of 7 May 1936.

Examinations in Safety Matters. — In *Australia* (New South Wales) the rules for engine drivers' examinations were amended on 28 August 1936 and 29 January 1937. In *Canada* (Alberta) the Lieutenant-Governor in Council was empowered by an Act of 3 April 1936 to issue regulations concerning skilled trades for which certificates of competency are required. In *Germany* the vocational training of boiler attendants was regulated by an Order of 25 August 1936. In *Greece* the conditions for the issue of certificates for the supervision of electrical installations were prescribed by a Decree of 13 February 1936. In *India* (Assam) a Notification concerning examinations for underground employment in mines was promulgated on 26 September 1936.

THE SAFETY MOVEMENT

Generally speaking, the safety movement continues to flourish vigorously. Although fewer statutory accident prevention measures were introduced during the year under review than in the previous year, the various existing institutions pursued their activities energetically and in many cases extended them.

A noteworthy large-scale campaign for industrial safety was carried out in *Germany*, concentrating on the building trades from 11 May to 6 June, on the iron and metal industries from 7 November to 31 December, and on mines from 10 to 17 November 1936.

In *Poland* the Social Insurance Institution made agreements with various trade organisations under which it subsidised a safety-first campaign organised by them. The Institution also reduces the rate of accident insurance premiums for all under-

takings in which the safety measures enforced are regarded as satisfactory.

In a number of countries, for instance in *France* and *Germany*, trade organisations published rules or advice concerning safety (foundries, welding, etc.). New safety publications appeared in *Cuba* and *Mexico*.

INTERNATIONAL ACTIVITIES

The *Sub-Committee on Automatic Coupling* met in Geneva on 29 April 1936, and after considering the information collected by the International Labour Office on the introduction of automatic coupling in certain countries drafted a list of questions which the Governing Body decided to forward to interested Governments. During 1936 most of the Governments sent replies, which will be considered at a future meeting of the Sub-Committee. Congresses held in several countries dealt with safety matters either indirectly, e.g. the Twelfth International Congress on Acetylene held in London in June 1936, or directly, e.g. the Congress of the International Association of Industrial Accident Boards and Commissions, the Congress of the International Association of Governmental Labour Officials, which met at Topeka, Kansas, in September, and the National Safety Congress held at Atlantic City at the same time. The International Labour Office was represented at the three latter meetings.

INTERNATIONAL REGULATION

*Ratification and Approval of Conventions and Recommendations adopted by the International Labour Conference*¹

Convention No. 27: Marking of Weight (Packages Transported by Vessels), 1929

Greece. — Ratification registered on 30 May 1936.

Hungary. — The Chamber of Deputies adopted on 16 February 1937 a Bill to give effect to the provisions of the Convention.

U.S.S.R. — Submitted to the competent authorities.

Recommendation No. 31: Prevention of Industrial Accidents, 1929

Communications to the Secretary-General of the League of Nations

Great Britain. — The principles embodied in the Recommendation are to a large extent recognised and given effect to by the law and practice in Great Britain, more especially as regards factories and other premises coming within the scope of the Factory and Workshop Acts. They have been and are being developed in many respects since the date of the Recommendation and it is contemplated that they will be still further developed in the future (14 April 1936).

¹ The information given here relates only to the period 16 March 1935-15 March 1937. See the tables at the end of the volume for the general situation as regards the Conventions on the prevention of accidents.

Rumania. — Approved by the Council of Ministers on 17 April 1935 (9 April 1936).

Other Information

U.S.S.R. — Submitted to the competent authorities.

Recommendation No. 32: Power-Driven Machinery, 1929

Communication to the Secretary-General of the League of Nations

Great Britain. — The principle underlying the Recommendation is accepted by the Government. It is contemplated that legislation in the direction recommended will be introduced at a suitable opportunity (14 April 1936).

Other Information

U.S.S.R. — Submitted to the competent authorities.

Convention No. 32: Protection against Accidents (Dockers), (Revised), 1932

Hungary. — The Chamber of Deputies approved on 26 April 1936 a report in which the Minister of Commerce and Transport pointed out that the provisions of the Convention seemed too wide as regards inland navigation, and proposed that Parliament should take note of the Convention and take no action regarding it.

U.S.S.R. — Submitted to the competent authorities.

Women's Work

EMPLOYMENT AND UNEMPLOYMENT

In the four preceding issues of the *Year-Book*, women's unemployment has been compared with men's unemployment with reference to the seasonal fluctuations in the number of unemployed of each sex in the course of the year. These comparisons indicated a remarkable degree of regularity in the repetition of the same phases from one year to another, suggesting the existence of causes producing the same effect: the employment of female labour in certain kinds of seasonal work, etc.

This year an attempt has been made to compare, not the seasonal fluctuations of unemployment, but the general trend from one year to the next, among men and among women, in those countries for which the seasonal movements of unemployment have already been studied.

Austria. — The unemployment of women remained almost stationary between January 1936 and January 1937, the applications for employment falling slightly from 97,530 to 97,274, or by 0.02 per cent. (men 0.2 per cent.). Taking the figures of unemployed persons in receipt of benefit, there was even a slight rise, the number of women by 286, representing an increase of 0.04 per cent. (men showing a decrease of 0.06 per cent.).

Czechoslovakia. — Unemployment declined among both men and women from December 1935 to December 1936, the date of the most recent figures, but the fall was greater for men, being of 26 per cent. in the number of applications for employment and

of 25 per cent. in the number of unemployed in receipt of benefit, than for women, for whom the corresponding figures were 14 per cent. and 19 per cent. (unemployed women, December 1935: 54,264; December 1936: 43,819; applications for employment, December 1935: 168,096; December 1936: 133,707).

France. — Whereas male unemployment fell from January 1936 to January 1937 (by 17 per cent. in the number of unemployed in receipt of relief and 15 per cent. in the number of applications for employment), the number of applications for employment by women rose from 108,687 to 117,977, and the number of women in receipt of benefit from 95,265 to 105,426, increases of 8 per cent. and 10 per cent. respectively.

Germany. — From January 1936 to January 1937 unemployment diminished very considerably among both men and women, but the decline was particularly noticeable in women's unemployment, which fell from 443,144 to 277,788 (figures of applications for employment registered by the employment exchanges), or by 37 per cent. (men, 27 per cent.). The figures of persons registered as unemployed show an even steeper decline in women's unemployment: 40 per cent. (men, 23 per cent.).

Great Britain. — Between the same dates, unemployment among both women and men diminished, but the fall was smaller in the case of women: the fall in the number of applications for employment was 22 per cent. for men and 17 per cent. for women; that in the number of unemployed in receipt of benefit was 17 per cent. for men and 11 per cent. for women, the absolute figure for women falling from 273,332 to 242,537.

Poland. — The general trend of unemployment was in the opposite direction, for the figures rose from 1936 to 1937, and at almost the same rate for both sexes, the increase being 11 per cent. for men and 12 per cent. for women (women unemployed in January 1936: 68,300; in January 1937: 77,074).

To sum up, of the six countries considered, three (Czechoslovakia, Germany and Great Britain) had a fall in the number of women unemployed between 1936 and 1937; in one country (Austria) the unemployment of women remained stationary; in the other two (France and Poland) the unemployment of women increased considerably. Compared with the figures for male unemployment, those relating to female unemployment show that everywhere, except Germany, the evolution of the employment market was less advantageous to women than to men during the past year. In one of the six countries considered (France) female unemployment increased considerably, while male unemployment declined.

Special measures were adopted in several countries in order to meet the special difficulties encountered by women workers on the

employment market, and to reduce the unemployment of women.

Canada. — An advisory committee composed of women was appointed to assist the National Employment Commission. The task of this Committee is to investigate and report on measures to aid unemployed women and girls in securing employment. The programme of re-employment for girls is to comprise a number of local projects to be carried out in all the larger centres throughout the country.

Great Britain. — Plans for the transfer of unemployed from the hard-hit "special areas" in the north west to regions offering better prospects of employment were applied during the year; but difficulties were experienced in the case of unemployed women, since about half of those registered with the employment exchanges were married and could not be separated from their families; in many cases too, parents objected to the transfer of their daughters. The special training centres for the unemployed set up by the Ministry of Labour were rather more active in their work for women in 1936 than in 1935; in April 1936, according to a statement made in the House of Commons, 1,425 women were trained at the centres, as compared with 1,183 in 1935.

India. — The Government of Bihar submitted to the Government of India a scheme to provide employment for the women workers of the mines of Jharia, who, as a result of the statutory prohibition of their employment underground, will be dismissed in July 1937; it is proposed to open three schools for training women in hand and basket work and for organising the marketing of the articles produced.

United States. — The women's Division of the Works Progress Administration (W.P.A.) continued to be very active. According to its report presented in February 1936, 380,000 women had been given work by that date on W.P.A. projects. About half of them were given employment in serving shops, while the rest were engaged in connection with numerous other schemes, some of very great interest: about 22,000 were engaged in clerical and survey work, 12,500 in repairing library books, 9,000 in serving hot meals, in particular to under-nourished schoolchildren; others, again, in activities connected with social hygiene, music, drama, literature, scientific research, popular education, etc. In May 1936, 400,000 women (16 per cent. of the total) were employed under the W.P.A. Works Programme; about 33 per cent. of the persons employed on the projects for professional and technical work were women. The National Youth Administration of the W.P.A. has opened a number of special camps for girls and young women from 16 to 25 years of age coming from assisted families and showing an interest in continuing their general or vocational

education. At the beginning of 1936 it was estimated that 5,000 young women could be assisted through these camps.

Following on a study, carried out by the Women's Bureau of the United States Department of Labour, of the possibilities for re-employment of women textile workers who lost their work in New England owing to the transfer of factories to the southern States, the Department of Labour published on 5 March 1936 recommendations for developing various industries and services which might be expected to meet the economic situation and needs of the area in question. It is hoped that similar studies will be made in other States.

In addition to special measures for the absorption of the unemployed, certain general measures were adopted for improving the placing and vocational training of women.

Austria. — An Order of 2 December 1936 and two further Orders of 29 December relate to the organisation of voluntary labour service for girls, under the authority of the Women's Section of the National Front. The total number of girls affected is about 900.

Belgium. — The National Employment and Unemployment Office has carried out a number of reforms, including an improvement of the system of placing women in employment.

Finland. — An Order of 23 July 1936 authorises hospital nurses' organisations to undertake the placing of members under the conditions laid down in the new Employment Exchange Act.

France. — A Decree of 9 June 1936 defines the competency of the new Under-Secretary of State for Education, which included all questions relating to vocational guidance and training for girls and their admission to the public service.

Germany. — A National Employment Exchange Service was created for the so-called feminine occupations, to deal primarily with the placing of social assistants, youth leaders, technical assistants, teachers in schools for vocational education or agricultural domestic economy, etc. A Decree of the National Institution for Employment Exchanges and Unemployment Insurance, dated 24 March 1937, aims also at organising and facilitating the placing of women migrant and seasonal workers in undertakings in the food industry.

By an Order of 15 August 1936, the Girls' Labour Service, hitherto under the National Institution for Employment Exchanges and Unemployment Insurance, was placed under the authority of the German Labour Service. A Decree of 26 September 1936 provides for the systematic development of the Girls' Labour Service—hitherto voluntary—with a view to introducing com-

pulsory service. The same Decree stipulates that the strength of the Service should be increased to 25,000 between April 1937 and March 1938.

Japan. — In application of the Employment Exchanges Act of 22 May 1936, which came into force on 1 September 1936 and provides for the opening of employment exchanges by municipal and local authorities, eight special exchanges for women had been set up by 30 September, while eight other exchanges had opened a special section for the placing of women.

Venezuela. — The Labour Act of 15 July 1936 provides that wherever there is a large movement of female labour, a local employment office, to be directed by a woman, must be set up.

The tendency to direct women into domestic service, already indicated in preceding issues of the *Year-Book*, continued in some countries. Efforts were directed principally towards the organisation of systematic training, not only for the purpose of fitting unemployed factory-trained women for domestic service, but also for that of raising the professional standard of domestic service. Reference is made here only to those new measures affecting domestic employment which have a bearing on the redistribution of female labour on the employment market.

Australia. — The Ministers of Labour and Industry of the various States, at a conference held in Sydney in January 1936, recommended that a questionnaire should be addressed to all employment agencies and women's organisations, in order to obtain information on conditions of employment in domestic service. Proposals were also made by the Prime Minister to the several States for the partial relaxation of restrictions on immigration from England, and especially for the admission of female household workers.

Canada. — The opening of training schools for domestic service figures among the schemes for the placing of unemployed women.

Denmark. — With a view to remedying the shortage of labour in domestic service, the Director of Labour has organised courses of training in domestic work, the expenses being borne by the Unemployment Fund. He held that Danish women should be trained for this employment and that the number of permits granted to foreigners to enter domestic service in Denmark should be restricted on the ground that once they had been admitted they compete with national workers in the industrial field.

Germany. — A Decree of 6 February 1937 of the National Institution for Employment Exchanges and Unemployment Insurance strengthens the organisation of the agricultural and domestic Labour Service for girls. Their agricultural training is given in camps and they help in the domestic work on farms; they

must undertake to remain in agriculture for nine months, including the time passed in the training camp. Similarly, the Girls' Labour Service is being called upon to give more help in work on the land.

Great Britain. — The employment situation in domestic service has frequently been the subject of questions in the House of Commons, owing to the reluctance of British girls to enter this occupation. According to a reply given by the Minister of Labour, the inclusion of domestic service among the occupations insured against unemployment could not be considered for the moment, but the Government had opened training centres for domestic work. In March 1937 there were 7 such centres where the pupils were given lodging, and 30 where they lived out, providing in all for 1,284 pupils. This scheme is administered by the Central Committee on Women's Training and Employment. The course usually lasts thirteen weeks, or even more for young girls. The centres undertake to place their pupils in employment.

Netherlands. — The efforts, referred to in the last issue of the *Year-Book*¹, to direct national labour into domestic service continued. The Ministry of Social Affairs, with the assistance of various women's associations, organised courses of domestic instruction. Under the Decree of 6 June 1936 regulating the employment of aliens, the employment of foreign servants usually requires the written permit of the Directorate for Unemployment Insurance and Employment Exchanges.

PLACE OF WOMEN'S WORK IN THE ECONOMIC SYSTEM

The improvement in the employment market has led to a considerable change in State policy and organised public opinion in regard to the paid employment of women. The great majority of official measures adopted in 1936, and of resolutions passed at meetings and congresses, were favourable to the right of women to work, or even supported an extension of their employment.

Certain restrictive measures must, however, be mentioned.

Germany. — A Decree of the Minister of Justice, dated 10 January 1936, prohibited the admission of women to the career of judge or public prosecutor. Only women assessors who have already been in service for a number of years are admitted to higher posts in the administrative service of the courts, including the position of first secretary.

In Bavaria the Church Council repealed the law admitting women students to theological examinations with a view to entering the clerical profession.

¹ Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1935-36*, p. 183.

Hungary. — The Ministerial Council has adopted regulations for the profession of barrister which exclude women.

Netherlands. — The draft Bill mentioned in the *Year-Book* for 1935-36¹, limiting women's work in factories, workshops and offices, was replaced by a Bill introduced by the Minister of Labour and passed by the Lower House on 30 March 1937. This Bill provides that for occupations employing mainly male labour before 1934 public administrative regulations may fix the percentage of women and girls among the staff required to carry out a specified piece of work in a factory or workshop. This measure is regarded as an emergency measure, and it is proposed to keep it in force only for three years.

Portugal. — A Legislative Decree of 24 April 1936 provides that typing work in all the public services, hitherto done by female typists only, may be done by male typists. In application of Decree No. 24402, mentioned in the *Year-Book* for 1935-36², regulations of 24 November 1936 limit the employment of women in the hotel industry in Lisbon.

Several countries, on the other hand, abolished or relaxed previous restrictions or enlarged the field of employment open to women.

Australia. — The Industrial Court of Queensland refused a claim of a trade organisation for the prohibition of the employment of married women whose husbands earn at least the basic wage.

Belgium. — The provision of the Order of 31 May 1933, reducing the unemployment benefit of unemployed men whose wives are employed—an Order whose suspension was indicated in the last issue of the *Year-Book*³—was finally repealed.

Canada. — The regulation prohibiting the employment of married women in public service was relaxed under the Ordinance (No. 3/3020) of 26 November 1936, which gives women who have been separated from their husbands the same right as that of unmarried women to be employed in public services.

France. — The Council of State made an Order in July 1936 recognising the right of women to compete with men for all civil posts in State service, but providing for exceptions to meet the special needs of service in the case of certain posts.

For some posts the throwing open of the examinations was accompanied by the fixing of a maximum of 50 per cent. for the admission of women candidates.

¹ Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1935-36*, p. 183.

² Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1935-36*, p. 185.

³ Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1935-36*, p. 186.

Germany. — The Order of 28 August 1934 was repealed, and that of 27 November 1936, which took its place, while it contains provisions favourable to the engagement of fathers of families of 40 years of age and over, does not provide for the replacement of the younger workers of either sex. The Women's Office of the Labour Front has pointed out that the same provisions ought to be applied to elderly women workers with dependants. Another Order of 27 November 1936 repealed that of 17 May 1934, which made the engagement of domestic servants and female agricultural workers by preserve factories, hotels, restaurants and cafés conditional upon special authorisation. As regards marriage loans, hitherto granted on condition that the woman beneficiary gives up paid employment, the Order of 28 July 1936 authorises the Minister of Finance to permit in exceptional cases the employment of such beneficiaries, even when the husband cannot be considered as indigent. At the same date the Minister signed a Decree authorising the employment of such women as charwomen or in temporary harvesting work. Later, on 30 October 1936 and 7 December 1936, two other Decrees authorised respectively the employment of beneficiaries of marriage loans as special assistants in retail establishments during the Christmas period and stocktaking sales, and their employment while the husband does his military or labour service. The committee responsible for admitting doctors to employment under the social insurance scheme laid down that insured men have no more right to demand treatment by male doctors than have insured women to demand treatment by female doctors; in consequence, the sex of a doctor should not prevent his or her admission to service with the social insurance fund of a given locality. In another decision the same committee expressed itself in favour of the principle of equality between men and women as regards their admission to employment as social insurance doctors, an exception, however, being made in the case of married women doctors¹.

Finally, on several occasions during the year, the authorities, and in particular the President of the National Institution for Employment Exchanges and Unemployment Insurance, expressly recognised the necessity and utility of women's work, on condition that women are not employed in work harmful to their health.

Great Britain. — Measures were taken in connection with the adoption of a new Act concerning midwives to prevent restrictions by the local authorities in regard to the employment of married midwives.

Sweden. — The Population Commission and the Women's Work Committee, set up by the Government in 1935, have carried out a joint enquiry into the question of married women's work in relation to the problem of the birth rate. They recently ended

¹ Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1934-35*, p. 176, and *I.L.O. Year-Book 1935-36*, p. 185.

their investigations, and concluded by condemning, from the point of view of the declining birth rate, the policy pursued by certain provincial and communal authorities and by certain large companies, which dismiss their women-employees on marriage or, even if they continue to employ them after marriage, dismiss them on pregnancy. The enquiry showed that in all classes of the population cases frequently occur in which young people are able to marry only if the woman is able to retain her paid employment, at least for the time being.

U.S.S.R. — The new Constitution, approved on 5 December 1936, gives women equal rights with men in every sphere of economic, public, and social life, and in particular in all matters concerning labour, wages, education, etc. An Order issued on 8 July 1936 by the Executive Committee of the General Council of Trade Unions of the U.S.S.R. requires labour inspectors to see to the regular employment of young women on productive work and ensure their promotion to more skilled work. According to statistics published on the occasion of Women's Day, 8 March 1937, the number of women in employment continued to rise. In 1936 the Soviet economic system gave work to 8,492,000 women workers and salaried employees (1935, 7,964,000), representing 34 per cent. of the total number of employed persons (1935, 33.4 per cent.). In large-scale industry there were 2,908,000 women (1935, 2,624,000) representing 38.8 per cent of the total number of workers in such industry. 15,338 women were engaged in scientific work, and 42,353 in the medical profession, representing almost half of the total number of doctors in the Union. The number of women students in higher education, technical schools, and workers' colleges was 575,973 (1928, 129,000).

While it is impossible to cite here the motions of the many congresses which devoted concerned attention to the problem of women's place in the economic system and approved the principle of free access for women to paid employment and to the professions, the following resolutions must be mentioned: the resolution on women's right to work adopted by the International Conference of Women Trade Unionists (London, 7 July 1936) and approved by the Executive of the International Federation of Trade Unions on 22 October 1936; the various resolutions of the Congress of the International Federation of Business and Professional Women (Paris, July 1936); the resolution passed by the Liaison Committee of Major International Associations in connection with its study of unemployment among intellectual workers (meeting of 7 July 1936); the decision of the National Committee of the Belgian Trade Union Committee (17 March 1936) against the exclusion of women from paid employment, on the one condition that their employment is not abused as a means of lowering wages; the resolutions of the Fifteenth Congress of the Departmental Labour Commissions of France (Mulhouse, July 1936) and of the Congress of the French National Federation of Salaried Employees' Unions (Strasbourg,

April 1936) against every restriction on women's right to work; the declaration of the Norwegian Confederation of Trade Unions (15 December 1936) calling for the abolition of the restrictions placed on the employment of married women during the depression, and for a return to full respect of women's right to work. The International Congress on Technical Education (Rome, December 1936) discussed the question of training women for their special economic functions with due regard to their competence to study manual and technical trades and without neglecting other branches open to them, such as teaching, the liberal professions, and administrative work; the Congress held that steps should be taken to develop technical schools and courses for women or open to women, to provide general instruction at school on domestic work, and to extend vocational guidance for girls.

On the other hand, while several Congresses of Christian trade unions, and in particular those of the International Federation of Christian Salaried Employees' Unions (Karlovy-Vary, 16 May 1936) and the Belgian National Federation of Christian Salaried Employees (April 1936), called for the return of the mother to the home, they did not declare themselves in favour of legal prohibition, but only of the introduction of indirect measures, such as family allowances, enabling married women to remain at home. Further, after taking note of a preliminary enquiry into the return of employed married women to the home as a means of combating unemployment, the Council of the International Confederation of Christian Trade Unions decided (Luxemburg, 23 May 1936) to organise study days in September to examine the whole question of women's work; these study courses, which have not yet led to any final decisions, took place as decided.

GENERAL PROTECTION OF WOMEN WORKERS

In this section an account is given of measures for the protection of women workers supplementing the information under the headings "Employment of Women before and after Childbirth" and "Night Work of Women".

International Regulation

Convention No. 45: Underground Work (Women), 1935¹

Austria. — The Council of Ministers decided at its sitting on 24 June 1936 to initiate the procedure required by the Constitution for the introduction of federal legislation prohibiting the employment of women on underground work in mines and bringing national legislation into accordance with the provisions of the Convention. When this legislation has been promulgated, ratification of the Convention will be proposed to the President of the Confederation.

¹ The information given here relates only to the period 16 March 1936-15 March 1937. See the tables at the end of the volume for the general situation, as regards the Convention.

Belgium. — A Bill for the approval of the Convention was submitted to the Chamber of Representatives on 9 February 1937.

Brazil. — Submitted to the National Congress on 28 October 1936 by a Message from the President of the Republic proposing approval. The provisions of the Convention are already embodied in the national legislation on the subject (section 5 of Decree No. 21.417-A of 17 May 1932).

Canada. — Referred to the Department of Justice with a view to determining whether the subject-matter involved is within Dominion or provincial competence.

China. — Ratification registered on 2 December 1936.

Cuba. — Ratification registered on 14 April 1936.

Finland. — The Government proposed ratification to Parliament on 12 March 1937.

France. — Bill for the ratification of the Convention submitted to the Chamber of Deputies on 13 August 1936.

Great Britain. — Ratification registered on 18 July 1936.

Greece. — Ratification registered on 30 May 1936.

India. — Submitted to the Governor-General in Council, who issued regulations for prohibiting the employment of women underground in mines.

Iraq. — The Government stated that the Convention dealt with a branch of industry which did not exist in Iraq, and therefore saw no need to ratify it.

Irish Free State. — Ratification registered on 20 August 1936.

Japan. — Submitted to the Privy Council on 19 December 1936.

Latvia. — Submitted to the Council of Ministers on 21 December 1936.

Netherlands. — Ratification registered on 20 February 1937.

New Zealand. — Submitted to the House of Representatives on 11 September 1936 and to the Legislative Council on 17 September 1936.

Peru. — By Decree of 6 March 1936 the President of the Republic approved the Convention and submitted it to Congress for ratification.

Siam. — The competent authorities considered that under the existing conditions of labour in the country the application of the Convention was not as yet necessary in Siam and consequently did not feel it appropriate to take any action in the matter at the present time.

Sweden. — Ratification registered on 11 July 1936.

Switzerland. — In a report submitted on 20 April 1936 to the Federal Assembly the Federal Council proposed that ratification of the Convention should be postponed.

The number of women employed in general in mines and quarries is insignificant and the ratification of the Convention by Switzerland would be of no practical importance. To make ratification possible the legislation respecting employment in factories would have to be amended by adding to some of the clauses dealing with its application, and so far as industrial undertakings are concerned which are not classified as factories, by issuing special regulations under the Act respecting employment of young persons and women in arts and crafts (section 8). These two Acts, moreover, exclude undertakings in which only members of the same family are employed, while no such exception is allowed by the Convention.

A possible amendment of national legislation to bring it into conformity with the Convention by means of a special Decree under the Sickness and Accident Insurance Act would also raise objections, since the Convention is not concerned entirely with the question of protection against accidents. Since the Convention is of no practical interest to Switzerland, the Federal Council considers that in the present circumstances it should first be ascertained what will be the attitude to the Convention of the countries which are actually

concerned by it. The Federal Council reserves the right to re-examine the question, taking into account the situation which may develop in the countries in question.

The Federal Assembly approved these conclusions on 17 and 19 June 1936.

Turkey. — The ratification of the Convention was recommended to the Grand National Assembly.

Union of South Africa. — Ratification registered on 25 June 1936.

United States. — Submitted by the President to Congress on 18 June 1936.

U.S.S.R. — Submitted to the competent authorities.

National Regulations

Besides ratifications based on legislation already in existence, the Underground Work (Women) Convention gave several countries an opportunity to make new regulations.

Belgium. — An Act of 5 May 1936, adopted as a preparatory measure to ratification, extended to quarries the legislative measures prohibiting the employment of women underground. The extension makes no change in the actual situation, since no woman is at present employed on this kind of work in Belgium.

India. — Regulation M. 1055 of 1 February 1937 advanced by two years the final date for the gradual abolition of the employment of women underground in mines, fixing it at 1 July 1937 (instead of 1 July 1939 as laid down in the Regulation of 1929). At this date the employment of women underground in mines will be absolutely prohibited except for women employed in the health and welfare services of the mining undertakings.

Several countries where the employment of women underground in mines was not practised nevertheless issued regulations prohibiting such employment: *Turkey, Syria and Lebanon*, the French Colony of *Indo-China*, the British Colonies of *Bechuanaland, Cyprus, Hong Kong, Northern Rhodesia, Nyasaland, Seychelles, Sierra Leone and Uganda*. In the regulations concerning Cyprus and Seychelles, as well as in a new Austrian Act (No. 70 of March 1937) bringing national legislation into conformity with the Convention, exceptions are admitted, as in the Convention, for women workers not engaged in manual work.

Among other measures, the most important relate to the setting up of special services for the protection of women's work, as advocated in a resolution of the Labour Conference of the American States Members of the Organisation (Santiago-de-Chile, 2 January 1936).

Cuba. — The Decree of 3 November 1936 provides for the creation in the provincial labour offices of a labour service for women and children, placed under a woman inspector, to study, recommend, and enforce measures of protective legislation.

Paraguay. — A National Labour Department was established by the Legislative Decree of 24 June 1936, to deal among other things with the regulation of women's employment.

United States. — A special Bureau of Women and Children was established in Louisiana and a Division of Women and Children in the State Department of Labour in Rhode Island. The Department of Industrial Relations of Kentucky was made specially responsible for the application of laws relating to the employment of women and children.

Venezuela. — The Labour Act of 15 July 1936 stipulates that the inspection services responsible for supervising industrial centres must, as far as possible, employ women for the supervision of the application of laws relating to women and children.

Various regulations were issued prohibiting the employment of women in different kinds of arduous labours: in *Germany*, regulations were introduced on 22 June and 7 November 1936 dealing with the carrying of heavy loads and with working at excessive speed at belt conveyors, etc.; in *Portugal* Regulations were adopted on 3 October 1935 dealing with the handling of certain machines. Other regulations deal with unhealthy and dangerous work: *Australia* (New South Wales, Order of 29 October 1936); *Honduras* (Constitution of 28 March 1936); *India* (three Regulations of 18 March 1937); *Iraq* (Act No. 72 of 1936); *Italy* (Decree of 7 August 1936); *Turkey* (Code of 8 June 1936); the French Colonies of *East Africa*, *French India*, *Indo-China*, *New Caledonia* and *Somali-land*; the Mandated Territories of *Lebanon* and *Syria*.

Among positive measures protecting the health of women workers, the provision of seats was prescribed in *Uruguay* for women (26 June 1935) and in *Venezuela* for the whole staff of commercial establishments (30 April 1936).

Regulations were issued in *Argentina* and in *New Zealand* concerning the observance of the weekly rest for women; and new legislative provisions in *Australia* (New South Wales), *Canada* (Alberta), *United States* (Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Kansas) and *India* (Central Provinces) deal with the reduction of women's working hours.

Women's conditions of employment in certain occupations were in many countries improved through regulations or made the subject of enquiries.

Belgium. — A Bill was introduced to extend the Eight-Hour Day Act to nurses and the staff of hospitals. The Minister of Labour ordered an enquiry into women's conditions of employment in large stores, and reminded the Advisory Committee on Women's Work of his request for an enquiry into women's conditions of employment in agriculture.

U.S.S.R. — A decision of 17 June 1936 granted typists a supplementary holiday of six working days, in addition to their regular annual holiday of twelve days.

The conditions of employment and life in an essentially feminine occupation, namely domestic service, are more and more occupying the attention of Governments and of trade and philanthropic organisations.

As an unmistakable sign of the interest that is being taken in this subject, mention may be made of the Resolution adopted by the International Labour Conference at its Session of June 1936, requesting the Governing Body to place the question of holidays with pay for domestic servants on the Agenda of a future session of the Conference, and to consider whether other conditions of domestic servants' employment could form the subject of international regulation.

Besides the action mentioned in the section on employment and unemployment, certain official measures were taken to improve conditions of employment in general in this occupation. Some were only preparatory, consisting in enquiries intended to discover what abuses called for remedy and the best remedies to adopt. In some countries, however, general or partial regulations were introduced for this occupation, or draft regulations were studied.

Argentina. — The government of the Province of Cordova submitted to the Provincial Parliament a Domestic Service Bill relating to daily and weekly rest, board and lodging, etc.

Austria. — An Act of 9 December 1936 prohibits the employment of minors in domestic service by persons who have been sentenced in the courts for any offence endangering the health or physical wellbeing of others, or for an offence against public morals.

Belgium. — A Bill on domestic servants' contracts of employment was introduced in Parliament on 3 July 1936. A Royal Order of 10 May 1936 prescribes the organisation of higher courses in domestic economy and house-work.

Canada. — Government agencies in five Provinces directed their attention to the improvement of the situation of domestic servants. In Manitoba a Bill which passed its second reading would extend minimum wage legislation to domestic servants—a measure now being called for in other Provinces. In the same Province an investigating committee was formed. In British Columbia an enquiry is being made into conditions of employment in domestic service. In these Provinces, as in Alberta, Ontario, and Saskatchewan, the Governments are assisting in the organisation of training courses for domestic workers.

Estonia. — The Act relating to contracts of employment, which came into force on 1 January 1937, contains a section relating to the contracts of domestic servants.

France. — The Act of 20 June 1936 introducing annual paid holidays states that subsequent regulations will define a method of applying the reform to domestic servants. Various motions and Bills were submitted to Parliament for the introduction of family allowances for domestic servants or the regulation of their hours of work and other conditions.

Mexico. — The programme of the Labour Department includes the study of measures for the protection of domestic workers.

Sweden. — The first report of the committee of enquiry set up two years earlier was published. It recommends the creation of a State school and of courses for the development of vocational training for domestic servants, as a first step towards a general improvement of this occupation. Other reports will be published subsequently.

United States. — The Department of Labour and Factory Inspection of Connecticut recently carried out an extensive enquiry into the conditions of employment in domestic service. In the city of Saint Louis (Missouri) a more limited enquiry was also carried out.

The situation of the young domestic servants known as "muitsai" was the subject of the following measures. In *China* Regulations of 22 January 1936 aim at the abolition of this system and provide for the immediate registration of girls engaged under it; they also prescribe the measures to be taken by the supervisory authorities in order to ensure the regulation of the conditions of employment of those girls who remain with their masters as paid domestic servants. In *Hong Kong* and *Malaya* a new enquiry was undertaken by a committee specially formed for the purpose in March 1936; the majority report of the committee favours the maintenance of the present system of regulation with certain modifications. In the Malay State of *Trengganu* similar regulations were introduced in Order No. 1 of 1354 (1935).

Private organisations also made great efforts for the improvement of conditions of employment in domestic service, collaborating in several countries with Governments.

A number of congresses, some international, e.g. Far Eastern Congress of the Y.W.C.A.; Congress of the International Association of Girls' Friendly Societies; Congress of the International Federation of National Unions of Girls' Friendly Societies, some national, e.g. the Conference held by the various Australian women's associations, discussed at length the problems connected with domestic service, and in some cases adopted resolutions with a view to practical action.

In several countries enquiries were conducted by women's associations. In *Canada* the national branch of the Y.W.C.A. proposed, for the voluntary acceptance of the employers, a code of working conditions for domestic servants; trade unions open to both men and women and women's associations in Alberta, British

Columbia, and Ontario worked for the extension of minimum wage legislation to domestic servants; in Saskatchewan they called upon the Government to prepare more general legislation relating to domestic service. In Denmark certain women's organisations set up a committee of enquiry, and presented to the Government a report upon conditions of domestic employment. In *Estonia* the Union for Social Progress carried out an enquiry into conditions of employment in domestic service. In *Norway*, where the Government set up a committee of women to study the situation of domestic servants and to prepare a Bill, a kind of domestic employment guild was formed, which adopted rules concerning conditions in domestic service, to be respected by members of the guild.

As regards home work, another essentially feminine occupation, and one fraught with very great problems at present acutely in evidence, a number of new measures were adopted during the year. They are dealt with in a section devoted especially to this profession ¹.

NIGHT WORK

International Regulation ²

Convention No. 4: Night Work (Women) Convention, 1919.

Great Britain. — Ratification denounced on 25 January 1937 in consequence of ratification of Convention No. 41.

Greece. — Ratification denounced on 30 June 1936 in consequence of ratification of Convention No. 41.

Hungary. — Ratification denounced on 18 December 1936 in consequence of ratification of Convention No. 41.

Irish Free State. — Ratification denounced on 15 March 1937 in consequence of ratification of Convention No. 41.

Netherlands. — Act voted by Parliament (Lower House 20 March 1937; Upper House 6 April 1937) denouncing the Convention.

Peru. — By Decree of 6 March 1936 the President of the Republic approved the Convention and submitted it to Congress for ratification.

Switzerland. — Ratification denounced on 4 June 1936 in consequence of ratification of Convention No. 41.

Convention No. 41: Night Work (Women) (Revised) Convention, 1934.

Belgium. — A Bill for the approval of the Convention was submitted to the Chamber of Representatives on 9 February 1937.

A Bill to bring national legislation (Act respecting the employment of women and children) into conformity with the Convention was promulgated on 7 April 1936.

Brazil. — Ratification registered on 8 June 1936.

France. — A Bill for the ratification of the Convention was submitted to the Chamber of Deputies on 13 August 1936.

¹ See below, Chapter VIII, under "Home Work".

² The information given here relates only to the period 16 March 1936-15 March 1937. See the tables at the end of the volume for the general situation regarding the Conventions.

Great Britain. — Ratification registered on 25 January 1937.

Greece. — Ratification registered on 30 May 1936.

Hungary. — Ratification registered on 18 December 1936.

Irish Free State. — Ratification registered on 15 March 1937.

Japan. — The Privy Council decided on 22 April 1936 not to ratify the Convention.

Peru. — By Decree of 6 March 1936 the President of the Republic approved the Convention and submitted it to Congress for ratification.

Switzerland. — Ratification registered on 4 June 1936.

U.S.S.R. — Submitted to the competent authorities.

Yugoslavia. — Submitted to Parliament on 31 December 1936.

National Regulations

In addition to the above-mentioned measures indicating the attitudes of different States with regard to the international Conventions, a number of new legislative enactments are to be recorded.

Albania. — An Act of 19 May 1936 prohibits night work of women between 10 p.m. and 5 a.m. in handicraft and industrial establishments.

China. — Order No. 653 of 9 December 1936 extended for a further year the period preparatory to the application of section 13 of the Factory Act prohibiting the employment of women during the night.

French Colonies. — A number of regulations were adopted in the French Colonies prohibiting the night work of women: in *French India* between 6 p.m. and 6 a.m. (Decree of 6 April 1937); in *Indo-China* between 10 p.m. and 5 a.m. for European and assimilated women in industry (Decree of 24 February 1937), and between the same hours for Native women in industry and commerce (Decree of 30 December 1936); in *French Somaliland* between 9 p.m. and 5 a.m. for Native women workers; in the French Mandated Territories of *Lebanon* (Act of 17 April 1935) and *Syria* (Decree of 14 June 1936) between 9 p.m. and 5 a.m. for women in industry.

Great Britain. — The Hours of Employment (Conventions) Act of 1936, which applies the Convention in its revised form, exempts from the prohibition of night work all women in responsible positions of management in factories and mines. The amendment of the Act dealing with the employment of women in shifts, referred to in the last issue of the *Year-Book*¹, was passed (Employment of Women and Young Persons Act, 1936). The new Act authorises the Home Secretary to permit, after consultation with the workers

¹ Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1935-36*, p. 196.

concerned, the employment of women and young persons aged 16 and upwards on a system of shifts at any times between 6 a.m. and 10 p.m. (6 a.m. and 2 p.m. on Saturday); the length of each shift must not exceed an average of 8 hours a day. Special conditions may also be imposed for safeguarding the welfare of the workers. An Order of 31 December 1936 defines the procedure to be followed in the consultation of workers.

In *British Honduras* the Constitution of 28 March 1936 prohibits the night work of women in general in industry, and their employment after 6 p.m. in commerce. In *Uganda*, Ordinance No. 1 of 1936 amended the Ordinance of 1931 concerning the employment of women, introducing the definition of the term "night" employed in the Washington Convention.

India. — The Central Provinces Unregulated Factories Act (No. XXI, 1937) prohibits the employment of women between sunset and sunrise in factories not covered by the Indian Factories Act of 1934.

Irish Free State. — The Conditions of Employment Act, 1936, regulates the night work of women, prohibiting the employment of women on industrial work between 10 p.m. and 8 a.m. and prescribing an uninterrupted rest of 11 hours, except in certain specified cases, e.g. for supervising and managing staff. A number of Orders made under this Act authorise the employment of women before 8 a.m. in certain occupations.

Japan. — Section 7 of the Regulations concerning the employment of miners, as amended by further Regulations of 6 July 1936, prohibits the employment of women in mines between 10 p.m. and 5 a.m., or by permit, between 11 p.m. and 6 a.m.

New Zealand. — The Factories Amendment Act of 8 June 1936 introduced a slight change in the period during which the employment of women in factories is prohibited; this now runs from 6 p.m. to 8 a.m.

Switzerland. — A Federal Order of 9 October 1936 regulating hours in the watchmaking industry prohibits the employment of workers of both sexes between 8 p.m. and 6 a.m. in small establishments not falling under the Factory Act and in family undertakings. For women, an uninterrupted rest period of 11 hours is prescribed.

Turkey. — The Labour Code of 8 June 1936 prohibits the night work of women in industry between 8 p.m. and 6 a.m.

United States. — In Kansas, four Ordinances of the Labour and Industry Commission (Nos. 1-4) prohibit the employment of women in manufacturing occupations and laundry occupations

(laundry, dyeing, dry-cleaning and pressing establishments) between 9 p.m. and 6 a.m., in mercantile occupations after 9 p.m. (with a few exceptions), and in public house-keeping (hotels, restaurants, etc.) between midnight and 5 a.m. for women of under 21 years of age.

In Massachusetts an Act of 1936, slightly amending previous legislation, prohibits the employment of women between 10 p.m. and 6 a.m. in industry in general, and between 6 p.m. and 6 a.m. in the textile industry, except where such employment is authorised by the Commissioner of Labour.

Venezuela. — The Labour Act of 15 July 1936 prohibits the night work of men between 9 p.m. and 6 a.m. and that of women between 7 p.m. and 6 a.m. in establishments of every kind, the only exceptions to be specified later in administrative Orders.

EMPLOYMENT OF WOMEN BEFORE AND AFTER CHILDBIRTH

*International Regulation*¹

Convention No. 3: Childbirth 1919

Peru. — By Decree of 6 March 1936 the President of the Republic approved the Convention and submitted it to Congress for ratification.

U.S.S.R. — Submitted to the competent authorities.

National Regulations

While there were no ratifications of the 1919 Convention in 1936, a very large number of legislative provisions were adopted and practical improvements made in regard to maternity protection.

Argentina. — The maternity insurance scheme is coming into force: a Decree of 15 April 1936 provides for the administration of the Act of 1934.

An Act of 30 December 1936 and Regulations of 11 March 1937 for its administration set up a Maternity and Child Welfare Board to study welfare questions, supervise and co-ordinate the work of official and private welfare institutions, spread knowledge relating to maternity hygiene, and establish institutions for furnishing assistance to mothers and children: consultation centres, homes for deserted mothers, maternity hospitals, home visiting services, crèches, kindergartens, etc.

Australia. — The Finance Act of 1936 provides for an increase in the credit for maternity allowances.

¹ The information given here relates only to the period 16 March 1936-15 March 1937. See the tables at the end of the volume for the general situation in regard to the Convention.

In the Mandated Territory of *New Guinea* the Native Labour Ordinance No. 20 of 1935 prohibits the employment of women during the month preceding and the month following confinement.

Brazil. — The Act of 13 January 1937 reorganising the Ministry of Education and Health provides that the Health Department shall include a section for maternity and child welfare.

Bulgaria. — A Legislative Decree of 5 September 1936 relating to contracts of employment establishes for all women workers the right to a paid maternity leave of six weeks, during which time the employer must pay half the daily wage unless the woman is insured. The Decree prohibits dismissal on the grounds of pregnancy and confinement, and provides for an extension of the statutory leave up to three months in case of sickness.

Canada. — In British Columbia, a Health Insurance Act passed in 1936, but not yet in force, deals also with maternity insurance.

Chile. — Regulations of 21 August 1936 established a voluntary insurance scheme for employers, which permits them to transfer to the Compulsory Insurance Fund, under certain conditions, their liability under the Labour Code with respect to maternity allowances. The Regulations also set up a special institution for the provision of medical care and social services for insured mothers and their infants.

China. — The Minister of Industry submitted to the Executive Yuan for approval a Bill providing for the establishment of crèches in factories.

Cuba. — Various resolutions were adopted to improve the maternity insurance scheme.

Finland. — A Bill to introduce maternity insurance was submitted to Parliament on 2 February 1937.

France. — An Act of 26 August 1936 amending the social insurance scheme for commerce and industry increased the maximum daily maternity benefit from 18 to 22 francs.

The new regulations made for the French Colonies deal particularly with maternity. A rest period of eight consecutive weeks before and after confinement, without breach of contract, and breaks for nursing purposes were established by the following Decrees: *French West Africa*, 18 September 1936; *French India*, 6 April 1937; *Indo-China*, 30 December 1936, for Native women, and 24 February 1937, for European women. In *French West Africa* the employment of pregnant women in different kinds of arduous work is also regulated. A paid holiday of four weeks after confinement was introduced in *French Somaliland* by the Decree of 22 May 1936, and in *New Caledonia*, for immigrant

Native women, by the Decree of 24 September 1935. In the French Mandated Territories of *Lebanon* and *Syria* respectively, the Acts of 17 April 1935 and 14 June 1936 establish maternity leave from one month before to two weeks after confinement. In *French Equatorial Africa* an Order of 15 June 1936, which established a Maternity and Child Welfare Institute for Natives, provides among other things for medical assistance for pregnant women, the creation of a service of visiting nurses, and the development of child welfare centres.

Great Britain. — The Public Health Act of 31 July 1936, reproducing a provision of the Factory Act, prohibits the employment of women one month before and one month after confinement, and empowers local authorities to take the necessary measures for the care of expectant and nursing mothers. The Midwives Act of the same date requires the local authorities to see that the number of midwives engaged for attendance on women in their own homes is adequate for the needs of the area, and to submit to the Minister of Health, after consultation with the voluntary organisations, proposals for the arrangements to be made for carrying out these duties. Further, a Circular of 29 May 1936 deals with day nurseries provided by the local authorities for the children of mothers who go out to work, and draws the attention of the authorities to the desirability of establishing such nurseries.

Guatemala. — The Public Health Code of 7 September 1936 provide for the creation of a child welfare service, which, among other duties, is to organise maternity hospitals, pre-natal and post-natal consultation centres, services of visiting nurses, and education in motherhood and the rearing of children.

Iran. — A Factory Regulation of 10 August 1936 provides for the granting of maternity leave, with full wages, on presentation of a doctor's certificate. It also states that breaks must be allowed to enable mothers to feed their children and that suitable premises must be set apart for this purpose.

Iraq. — The Labour Act of 25 April 1936 introduced an optional rest period of two weeks before confinement and compulsory rest period of three weeks after confinement, without dismissal during the whole period of absence.

India. — The Provinces of Bengal and Madras adopted regulations in application of the Factories Act, requiring factories employing not less than 50 women workers to create a day nursery for children under six years of age.

In the Province of Delhi a Notification of 26 November 1936 contained the provisions of the Bombay Maternity Benefit Act: paid leave must now be granted from four weeks before to four weeks after confinement, without dismissal, to women who have

been employed by the same employer for a period of nine months or more.

In the States of Indore and Mysore maternity benefit legislation closely resembling that just mentioned was adopted.

Japan. — A Bill relating to mothers' and children's aid was introduced in Parliament, which proposes various measures of assistance such as maternity allowances for the mothers of young children.

Mexico. — Regulations of 25 June 1936 concerning industrial hygiene provide that the Department of Health must determine the cases in which industrial undertakings are to establish crèches and day nurseries for the children of their workers.

Norway. — The new Workers' Protection Act of 19 June 1936 increased the statutory leave before confinement from four to six weeks, and maintained the leave of six weeks after confinement. This leave may be extended for a further period of six weeks in the case of sickness consequent upon pregnancy or maternity. The Act forbids the dismissal of the workers during this statutory leave and provides for assistance from public funds in cases of need; such assistance is not considered as poor relief.

Paraguay. — The Legislative Decree of 24 June 1936 set up a National Labour Department to deal among other things with maternity assistance.

Peru. — The Act of 12 August 1936 introducing compulsory social insurance provides for the following maternity benefits: medical attendance and medicaments, daily cash benefit equal to 50 per cent. of wages for 36 days before and 36 days after confinement, and a nursing allowance equal to 25 per cent. of wages for eight months.

Portugal. — A Decree of 4 February 1936 concerning the sick-leave of State employees grants full wages to women in case of confinement, for a period of 20 days.

Spain (Catalonia). — A Decree of 8 October 1936 exempts working women from the payment of their share of maternity insurance contributions scheme, this share being borne by the employer alone.

Sweden. — The Population Commission mentioned above was required also to study the problem of maternity protection. In pursuance of its recommendations the Government submitted to the Riksdag a Bill to improve the measures of maternity assistance.

Switzerland. — An Order of 9 October 1936, regulating work done outside the factory in the watchmaking industry, extended

to women employed in small establishments and family workshops in this industry the provisions of the Factory Act relating to maternity: leave of six weeks or, on request, of eight weeks, after confinement, without dismissal.

Turkey. — The Labour Code of 8 June 1936 prescribes for women employed in industry three weeks' leave before confinement and three weeks after, which may be extended to six weeks before and six weeks after, the employer being forbidden to dismiss the worker and required to pay half of her regular wages during her absence. Breaks for nursing purposes and the establishment of crèches are also provided for.

U.S.S.R. — An Order of 27 June 1936, abolishing the right to abortion for economic reasons, very much strengthened the various measures of maternity assistance, extending to all working women the right to 56 days' leave before and 56 days after confinement, increasing supplementary insurance benefits (layette allowance of 32 to 45 roubles, nursing allowance of 5 to 10 roubles), setting up a system of State assistance for mothers of more than six children, and providing for a large increase in the number and size of maternity hospitals, crèches and day nurseries. A second Order of 29 June 1936 amended the legal provisions relating to insurance benefits, in order to bring them into line with the maternity leave provisions of the Order of 27 June 1936. Finally, an Order of 5 October 1936 imposes penalties for the refusal to employ a woman on the ground of her pregnancy, and the reduction of her wages on the same ground.

Venezuela. — The Labour Act of 15 July 1936 provides that working women must be absent from their work during six weeks before and six weeks after confinement, without being liable to dismissal, and the introduction of a system of social insurance providing maternity benefit sufficient for the maintenance of the mother and her child. Breaks for nursing purposes must be allowed, for which suitable premises must be provided.

ECONOMIC PROTECTION OF WOMEN WORKERS

The interest taken in the problems relating to the economic situation of women workers did not diminish during the year. The following brief summary of the principal events of the year, however, can only give a very incomplete idea of the extent of this interest, for this is a field in which practical measures, too varied for description in a short survey, occupy a much more important place than legislation.

In the international sphere a beginning was made with the carrying out of the decision of the Governing Body of the International Labour Office, mentioned last year, concerning the development of studies of the economic situation of women workers.

A plan of study was drawn up, and the first five subjects for investigation were defined: (a) the evolution of women's employment in various industries and occupations; (b) unemployment among women; (c) the facilities for vocational training open to women; (d) the comparative rates of men's and women's wages; (e) the family circumstances of gainfully employed women and their responsibilities, if any, for dependants.

Consultation of the members of the Correspondence Committee for Women's Work and international women's organisations was organised with a view to the collection of information on the first two subjects. A large measure of collaboration thus exists in the study of these problems, and data are now reaching the Office from all over the world. It should be specially mentioned that at the request of the International Conference of Women Trade Unionists (London, July 1936) the International Federation of Trade Unions decided to participate in this enquiry by calling upon its national sections to send in to the International Labour Office any relevant information at their disposal.

Among new measures taken in various countries for the improvement of the condition of women workers, those providing for the establishment of minimum wages occupy an important place. As these measures are discussed in another chapter¹, only a brief reference will be made to them here. It should be noted, however, that even when they affect workers of both sexes, it is the women workers who benefit most from them. Two countries (Canada and the United States) have continued to make extensive use of wage legislation applied specially to women's wages. In both these countries, however, wage legislation is developing in the direction of fixing general rates for all workers.

In *Canada*, despite the development of the compulsory extension of collective agreements setting up minimum wage rates for both sexes, and in addition to the wage laws and regulations for both men and women, a number of Orders were promulgated (in British Columbia, Manitoba, Nova Scotia, Ontario, Saskatchewan, and Quebec) in execution of the laws relating to women's minimum wages. These Orders raise weekly rates, reduced the hours of work to which these rates apply, or extended existing legislation to new occupational categories or to sparsely-populated centres hitherto not covered. In Quebec an Order is even in preparation which will cover all women workers and salaried employees in commerce and in industry who are not yet covered by special Orders.

In the *United States* two awards of the Supreme Court, one declaring unconstitutional the New York State Minimum Wage Law for women, based on the principle of the fair wage, and the other confirming the Washington State Law based on the principle of the living wage, have totally reversed the previously existing situation; for in 1923 the Supreme Court had declared unconstitu-

¹ See below, Chapter IV, under "Wage Policy".

tional a law based on this latter principle, with the result that subsequent legislation had been based on the principle of the fair wage with a view to avoiding constitutional objections.

These awards, though they have caused a certain confusion, have nevertheless failed to slow down the efforts made by the State authorities of the Union for the raising of women's wages by legislation. In 1936, Rhode Island organised a system for the fixing of women's minimum wages under the provisions of the law passed in the preceding year, and Massachusetts amended its legislation on several points. Orders in application of existing systems were issued in the last-named State and also in New Hampshire, Ohio and North Dakota; while preliminary measures, such as the appointment of wage committees and the organisation of enquiries into wage rates in various industries, were taken in Connecticut, Illinois, New Hampshire, New Jersey, North Dakota, Ohio, Rhode Island, and Wisconsin. The State of New York continued its investigations with a view to the introduction of new legislation replacing the law declared unconstitutional. At the time of the invalidation of the New York law, the Secretary of Labour of the United States convened a conference of the States which had passed wage legislation, and these States recognised the need for continuing their efforts.

Finally, the Third Conference on Labour Legislation, convened by the Secretary of Labour on 11 November 1936, recommended the study of the principles which should form the basis of a model law under a possible constitutional amendment. It also recommended that the States now operating minimum wage laws should continue to administer those laws as in the past, and that States without minimum wage legislation should institute wage investigations to show the urgency of such legislation. Finally, it recommended that when once constitutional means had been devised for setting minimum wage standards, the States should as rapidly as possible enact minimum wage laws for women and minors, and when the time seemed ripe for men as well.

In 1937, as a consequence of the decision of the Supreme Court upholding the law of the State of Washington, the movement for minimum wage legislation for women grew in intensity. In March Bills were under consideration in thirteen States, as well as in the District of Columbia, some of these Bills relating particularly to women and minors, others to workers of both sexes. Among the measures applicable to both sexes, those contained in the Federal Act of 1936 regulating conditions of employment in undertakings furnishing supplies to the Federal Government, and providing for the fixing of equal wage rates for all workers employed in the same work, are worthy of special mention.

In addition to the enquiries carried out with a view to the fixing of wage rates, a number of other official investigations took place in the United States, such as the enquiries conducted by the Women's Bureau of the Federal Department of Labour into the position of women workers in various States (Arkansas, Delaware,

Florida, Michigan, Tennessee, Texas, and West Virginia) and in several industries (silk dress making, men's clothing industry, large stores, etc.), and those by the Women's Bureaux of the various States, among which figures the important enquiry conducted by the Women's Division of the New York State Department of Labour into the wages and family responsibilities of women workers in various economic branches (laundries, restaurants, beauty parlours).

The details of the various wage regulations applying to both sexes cannot be entered into here, but attention may be drawn to the provisions of the new legislation of *Argentina* (Finance Act of 1937), *China* (Minimum Wage Act of 23 December 1936), *Mexico* (Decree of 12 December 1936 concerning the sugar industry), *Venezuela* (Labour Act of 15 July 1936, providing for the payment of equal wage for equal work without distinction of sex). In *France* certain of the collective agreements which were made generally binding, such as that relating to the silk-weaving industry in the south-eastern Departments, prescribe the application of the same principle of equal pay; while other collective agreements, though setting up different rates for men and women, nevertheless considerably reduced the existing differences between men and women workers' remuneration. Equality of pay without distinction of sex was also recognised in certain of the collective rules published in *Germany*, although in general these rules lay down different rates for the two sexes. In *Sweden* an official committee, after studying the reforms needed in the remuneration of public servants, expressed itself in favour of the principle of equality between the sexes, and the Minister of Finance approved its conclusions. Finally, in *Mexico* an extensive enquiry was undertaken by the Minister of Labour with a view to determining in what measure the principle of equal pay without distinction of sex, as laid down by the Labour Act, was respected.

On the other hand, various regulations or awards promulgated during the year in *Australia*, *Bolivia*, *Greece*, *Italy*, and *New Zealand* were based on the principle of different rates for male and female workers.

As regards the legal status of women's occupations, the following decisions tending to raise their status must be mentioned: *France*, a Bill adopted by the Chamber of Deputies relating to the organisation of the profession of certified nurse and male nurse; a Circular of February 1937 reserving to welfare workers and certified visiting nurses employment in the public administration and in State subsidised organisations; and a Decree of March 1937 organising a skeleton service of colonial nurses and midwives; *Germany*, Orders of October 1936 concerning the professional training of welfare workers, and of April 1937 concerning the professional training of dietitians; *Great Britain*, Act of 1936 reorganising the profession of midwife; *Italy*, a Legislative Decree of 15 October 1936 relating to the organisation of schools of obstetrics and to

the juridical regulation of the profession of midwife; *Norway*, an Act of 19 June 1936 regulating, among other occupations, that of masseuse.

The measures examined above relating to the improvement of conditions of work in domestic service aim also at the raising of wages as well as at the betterment of other conditions. This remark is still more true as regards measures relative to home work¹, irrespective of whether they are intended to abolish home work and its depressing effect on the wages of women workers in workshops in the same branch, or aim directly at raising the wages of women workers working at home. However different the means used may be, the end envisaged remains the same: the improvement of the economic condition of a large body of women workers.

Protection of Children and Young Persons

The *I.L.O. Year-Book 1935-36* remarked on the tendency to enlarge the scope of laws regulating the employment of children and young persons, and to improve the provisions of these laws. This tendency persisted throughout the year 1936.

NATIONAL REGULATIONS

Australia. — In New South Wales the Factories and Shops (Amendment) Act, 1936, brought factory legislation up to date and reduced from 48 to 44 the working hours of boys under 16 years of age and of girls and women of every age employed in factories. All young persons under 16 years of age employed in factories are now required to produce certificates of fitness; this measure previously applied only to certain classes of factories specified by regulation. The number of days on which overtime may be worked by young persons was reduced from 30 to 24.

Canada. — In Manitoba the law relating to the employment of children in public entertainment undertakings was reinforced by an amendment of the Child Welfare Act, which provides that municipal by-laws may require licences for children so employed and that such licences may not be granted to children between 12 and 14 years old unless they obtain the written consent of a parent.

Finland. — The Child Welfare Act, which came into force on 1 January 1937, prohibits the employment of children under 16 years old in specified itinerant entertainment undertakings, and restricts their employment in street and itinerant trading. The employment of boys under 16 and of girls under 18 in

¹ See below, Chapter VIII, under "Home Work".

hotels and restaurants is also restricted, and special regulations are to be made governing the employment of young persons under 18 years of age in the sale or serving of alcoholic beverages.

France. — An Act to raise the statutory school-leaving age from 13 to 14 years was passed and the Labour Code amended accordingly, by raising the age for admission to industrial and commercial employment to 14 years. Exceptions, to be specified by Decree, will be allowed in certain cases and districts.

Legislation concerning the conditions of employment of children and young persons was passed in *French India*. It applies to factories, workshops, offices and stores, and deals with the minimum age for admission to employment, medical examination, hours of work, and night work. Similar legislation in *French Somaliland*, *French West Africa*, and *Madagascar* deals with night work and prohibits the employment of young persons in heavy work.

Germany. — The Government is considering new legislation to regulate the working hours, night work, and holidays of young persons. No exception to the 8-hour day will be allowed, whether for actual hours of work or for hours of attendance, for young workers under 16 years of age.

Great Britain. — The Employment of Women and Young Persons Act, 1936, came into force on 1 January 1937. It empowers the Home Secretary, on the application of the owner of a factory or workshop, to make an Order permitting the employment of women and young persons aged 16 years and upwards on a system of shifts between 6 a.m. and 10 p.m. from Monday to Friday and between 6 a.m. and 2 p.m. on Saturday. The length of each shift may not exceed, on the average, 8 hours.

The Education Act of 31 July 1936 raised the school-leaving age to 15 years, with exemptions at 14 years at the discretion of the local education authorities, for "beneficial employment" or domestic work at home. The coming into force of the Act is set at 1 September 1939 in order that the local education authorities may have time to secure the necessary additional teachers, provide accommodation, and revise curricula.

The Education (Scotland) Act of 1936 applies to Scotland substantially the same provisions as those contained in the English Act.

A Factories Bill was introduced in the House of Commons with the object of consolidating and amending the Factory and Workshop Act of 1901 and of bringing legislation into conformity with modern standards and conditions. Existing provisions make it possible for women and young persons to work up to 55½ hours a week in the textile industry and 60 hours a week in other industries, exclusive of intervals for meals. Greatly reduced hours will come into force under the new Bill, which lays down maximum normal hours of work of 48 per week and 9 per day and a maximum period of employment, including meal and rest intervals, of 11 hours.

Overtime is allowed, subject to certain conditions, for women and young persons of 16 years and over, but the Home Secretary is empowered to prohibit or restrict it for those employed in processes which he judges prejudicial to health. In general, overtime is limited to 100 hours per year, and prohibited altogether for young persons under 16 years of age. The Bill retains and perfects the system under which persons under 16 years of age must, on entering factory employment, present a certificate delivered by a "certifying surgeon". It is proposed that the new measure should come into force on 1 July 1938.

In *Northern Ireland*, the King's Speech referred to the introduction of a measure to consolidate the law relating to factories and workshops and to afford medical treatment for young persons entering employment. As regards education, the Parliamentary Secretary for the Ministry of Education stated that the Government of Northern Ireland is considering the introduction of legislation extending the school-leaving age (at present 14 years) without exemptions.

In *Hong Kong* legislation was passed to apply the Minimum Wage (Trimmers and Stokers) and Medical Examination of Young Persons (Sea) Conventions. In *Kedah* the Children Enactment of 1936 and Regulations made under it regulate the age of admission to industry and employment generally, and the hours and night work of young persons employed in industry.

Hungary. — The Ministry of Industry having invited the organisations concerned to express their views on the Unemployment (Young Persons) Recommendation, the Hungarian Trade Union Federation recommended, among other measures, legislation to protect the economic, moral, hygienic, cultural, social, and legal interests of young persons; to prohibit the employment of boys under 15 and of girls under 16 years of age; to raise the school-leaving age; to provide education free of charge; and to make attendance at continuation schools compulsory.

India. — The Central Provinces Act No. XXI, 1937, regulating conditions of work in unregulated factories (as defined) brings these factories within the scope of the Indian Factories Act, 1934. It prohibits the employment of children under 14 years of age without a certificate of fitness, which may be granted to children under 10 years old, and also their employment for more than 7 hours daily or between the hours of 5 p.m. and 8 a.m. In Hyderabad native cigarette (*bidi*) factories, in which the conditions of employment of children have given rise to much criticism in the past, were brought within the scope of the Hyderabad Factories Act. The provisions of this Act apply, however, only to factories employing not less than 20 persons simultaneously on any one day in the year.

Iran. — The Government approved a Factories and Industrial Establishments Regulation which, among other things, requires

employers to organise, in accordance with a programme to be drawn up by the Minister of Education, special classes for young factory workers under 18 years of age.

Iraq. — The Labour Act of 1936 regulates the conditions of work of young persons from 12 to 15 years of age. Their employment, or mere attendance, in certain specified industrial undertakings is forbidden, and may be regulated in other specified industries. They may not be employed on board ship, and if under 18 years old, must possess a medical certificate. No young person under 18 years of age may be employed as a trimmer or stoker on board ship.

Irish Free State. — The Conditions of Employment Act, 1936, to some extent codifies previous legislation relating to industry. The employment in industry (mines and transport excepted) of young persons between 14 and 18 years old for more than 8 hours daily or 40 hours weekly, is prohibited, though certain limited exceptions are permitted. The present tendency in certain branches would seem to be not to employ young persons under 16 years, and it is thought that this tendency will probably grow until ultimately young persons will not enter industry until they reach the age of 18. The problem of raising the school-leaving age was considered by an inter-departmental committee, which presented a report on the subject early in 1936. The general trend of this report was against any sudden changes. It proposed, however, that experiments in raising the school-leaving age should be made in one or two carefully-chosen areas where facilities for post-primary education are adequate. This education should be of a vocational character, the committee suggested, with obligatory full-time attendance for all unemployed juveniles between 14 and 16 years of age, and part-time attendance for those in employment. The report was accepted by the Executive Council, which is arranging to initiate the experiments advocated.

Italy. — A Royal Decree of August 1936 contains two lists of occupations in which the employment of young persons is forbidden or is permitted only on certain conditions. The list of prohibited occupations may be extended by Order of the Corporative Inspectorate.

Japan. — The Minister of Education submitted to the Cabinet a Bill to prolong the period of compulsory school attendance by two years. At present children in Japan are required to attend school for a period of six years, beginning at the age of 6. The Minister of Finance approved the Bill, upon which Parliament will be called to take a decision during 1937. The Bill, if voted, will come into operation during 1938.

Mexico. — A special Committee of Enquiry of the Labour Department, appointed to assist the Department in dealing with

urgent problems, was asked to draft measures for the protection of juveniles engaged in home work or employed in inns, cabarets, dance halls, and the like. A report was also asked for on the extent to which existing measures for the protection of children and young persons employed in industry were being observed.

New Zealand. — An amendment to the Factories Act reduced the hours which may be worked by boys under 16 years of age or by girls, irrespective of age, from 48 to 40 weekly and from 8¾ to 8 daily; the period which may be worked continuously was reduced from 5 to 4¼ hours. Other provisions prohibit the employment of boys under 16 years of age and of girls irrespective of age on overtime work on Sundays, holidays or half-holidays, and extend the period in which night work is prohibited to 8 a.m., instead of 7.45 a.m.

Norway. — The Workers' Protection Act, which came into force on 1 January 1937, raises the age for admission to employment in industry, commerce, offices, and land transport from 14 to 15 years.

Palestine. — A Bill to repeal and re-enact in an amended form the Ordinance of 1927 relating to the employment of women and children would extend the provisions of this Ordinance to non-industrial employment, including shops, hotels, restaurants and places of entertainment. It would also raise the minimum age for admission to industrial employment from 12 to 13 years, reduce from 8 to 7 hours the maximum working day for children in employment, and prescribe for them one day's rest in seven.

Switzerland. — An Act applying to the hotel industry which, recently came into force in the Canton of Ticino forbids the employment of young persons under 18 years of age in hotels and restaurants at night and on Sundays. Family undertakings, as defined, are not covered by the Act.

United States. — Trends in child and juvenile employment are shown by surveys made by the United States children's Bureau. These surveys indicate that the upward movement which immediately followed the invalidation of the N.R.A. Codes in 1935 continued and became more marked during 1936. Such figures as are available show that more than one-fourth of the total number of employed children and young persons were engaged in industry and commerce; that about one-fifth entered the messenger and delivery services; and that more than one-fourth left school for domestic service in their own or other households. The Secretary of Labour and Industry of Pennsylvania, however, reports a general decline in the number of employment certificates issued to children and minors. In the textile industry most manufacturers are said to be complying with the decision of the American Cotton Manufacturers' Association that no juveniles under 16 years of age should be employed.

The Child Labour Amendment to the United States Constitution, giving Congress power to limit, regulate, and prohibit the labour of persons under 18 years of age had, at the time of writing, been ratified by 27 States. Nine more ratifications are required before the Amendment can become effective. In the meantime, vigorous campaigns are being planned by the National Child Labour Committee and the American Federation of Labour—among other important bodies—to secure the desired number of ratifications in the course of 1937.

In the field of legislation the Government Contracts Act, which came into force on 28 September 1936, among other things prohibits the employment of boys under 16 and of girls under 18 years of age on work for Government contracts whose value exceeds 10,000 dollars. Among the more outstanding instances of the advance in State legislation is the passing in Rhode Island of a law establishing a minimum age of 16 years for the employment of children in factories and stores, and for their employment in any occupation in school hours; for work outside school hours in non-industrial establishments, the minimum age is 14 years; school attendance is compulsory up to the age of 16. Laws relating to or affecting the employment of children and young persons were passed during 1936 in Massachusetts, New York, Louisiana, South Carolina, and Virginia.

It is to be expected that the question of the employment of children and young persons will continue to occupy an important place in the legislative programmes of 1937. The following recommendations concerning the minimum standards of protection which should be laid down in child labour laws were made by the Third National Conference on Labour Legislation and the International Association of Governmental Labour Officials: a minimum age of 16 years for admission to gainful employment (with special provisions dealing with non-factory work outside school hours and street trading); a minimum age of 18 years for hazardous employment; the regulation of the hours of young persons between 16 and 18 years of age; the prohibition of night work for young persons under 18 years of age; and certificates of employment for all workers under 18 years of age.

In agriculture, the child employment question continues to present a serious problem. Under the Agricultural Adjustment Act child labour in certain branches of agriculture (e.g. in the sugar beet fields) was prohibited, but with the invalidation of the Act, this measure of protection ceased to be effective. An investigation made in 1936 showed that young children were again being extensively employed. It is believed that the only effective way of dealing with this situation is by ratification of the Child Labour Amendment and by stricter enforcement of the compulsory school attendance laws.

Venezuela. — The Labour Act of 1936 fixes a minimum age of 14 years for employment generally, and of 18 years for employment

in mines, in heavy work, and in dangerous or unhealthy work and work harmful to morals. Young persons under 16 years of age may not work more than 6 hours daily, and those under 18 may not be employed between 7 p.m. and 6 a.m.

INTERNATIONAL REGULATION

The Governing Body decided at its Seventy-sixth Session, in June 1936, to place on the Agenda of the Twenty-second (Maritime) Session of the Conference, in October 1936, the partial revision of the Minimum Age (Sea) Convention, 1920, with reference to the raising of the minimum age from 14 to 15 years, and on the Agenda of the Twenty-third (1937) Session of the Conference the question of the revision of the Minimum Age (Industry) Convention, 1919, and the Minimum Age (Non-Industrial Employment) Convention, 1932.

The Twenty-second Session of the Conference adopted in October 1936 the Minimum Age (Sea) Convention (Revised), 1936. This Convention, subject to certain exceptions, raises the minimum age for admission to employment at sea to 15 years, but it also provides, in Article 5, that the Convention shall not come into force until the Conference has adopted Conventions revising the Minimum Age (Industry) Convention, 1919, and the Minimum Age (Non-Industrial Employment) Convention, 1932.

The points in respect of which the partial revision of the Minimum Age (Industry) and Minimum Age (Non-Industrial Employment) Conventions were placed on the Agenda of the 1937 Session were defined by the Governing Body at its Seventy-seventh Session in November 1936. At the same Session it decided to set up a Tripartite Agricultural Committee and to consult that Committee on the question of the possible revision of the Minimum Age (Agriculture) Convention.

*Ratification and Approval of Conventions and Recommendations adopted by the International Labour Conference*¹

Convention No. 5: Minimum Age (Industry), 1919

Austria. — Ratification registered on 26 February 1936.

Norway. — A Bill proposing ratification was submitted to the Storting in March 1937.

Peru. — By Decree of 6 March 1936 the President of the Republic approved the Convention and submitted it to Congress for ratification.

U.S.S.R. — Submitted to the competent authorities.

Convention No. 33: Minimum Age (Non-Industrial Employment), 1932

Brazil. — Ratification recommended to Congress.

¹ The information given here relates only to the period 16 March 1936-15 March 1937. See the tables at the end of the volume for the general situation as regards the Conventions concerning the employment of children.

Hungary. — The Chamber of Deputies approved on 26 April 1936 a report in which the Minister of Commerce and Transport pointed out that existing legislation required compulsory school attendance only for children under 12 years of age. If the Convention were ratified, most children between 12 and 14 years would have no regular occupation and would be left unsupervised, which would be morally prejudicial to them. The Minister therefore proposed that Parliament should take note of the Convention and take no action on it.

Poland. — The Senate decided on 15 January 1937 to postpone ratification.

U.S.S.R. — Submitted to the competent authorities.

Recommendation No. 41: Minimum Age (Non-Industrial Employment), 1932

Communications to the Secretary-General of the League
of Nations

Rumania. — Approved by the Council of Ministers on 17 April 1935 (9 April 1936).

Switzerland. — In a report submitted to the Federal Assembly on 25 April 1935 the Federal Council had explained why Switzerland could not at present ratify Convention No. 33. The whole subject is to be dealt with in the industrial and commercial legislation now being drafted; at the same time a particular difficulty arose from the fact that domestic work is also included in the regulations for which the Convention provides, whereas the Confederation is not competent to legislate for domestic employment. The legal and constitutional situation had not changed since the report was submitted to the Federal Assembly and approved by it. In view of the close relation existing between the Convention and the Recommendation, it was already superfluous to adopt a special attitude in respect of the Recommendation. The Federal Council therefore took no legislative action on the main lines of the Recommendation.

As regards the work of children in non-industrial occupations, conditions in Switzerland correspond in the main to the requirements of the Convention without any necessity for the Federal Legislature to intervene by means of legal provisions. This situation is safeguarded by compulsory elementary education, which was introduced throughout the country in conformity with the Federal Constitution and which may be terminated before the completion of the fourteenth year in five only of the Cantons. Even in these Cantons, however, the population of which is barely one tenth of the whole Swiss population, the greater number of the children go to school until the age of 14 years or more. It is obvious that during the period of compulsory education it is possible to work in non-industrial occupations, but only to a very limited extent. (23 December 1936.)

Other Information

U.S.S.R. — Submitted to the competent authorities.

Convention No. 6: Night Work (Young Persons), 1919

Peru. — By Decree of 6 March 1936 the President of the Republic approved the Convention and submitted it to Congress for ratification.

U.S.S.R. — Submitted to the competent authorities.

Factory Inspection

General Inspection

Australia. — The factory inspection regulations were amended by a Proclamation of 14 February 1936.

Cuba. — The Labour Inspectorate was reorganised by a Decree of 3 November 1936.

Estonia. — A Labour Inspection Act was promulgated on 16 September 1936.

France. — Two Decrees, of 22 and 23 May 1936, regulate labour inspection in French Somaliland and the French Settlements in India respectively. In French Equatorial Africa an Order of 24 July 1936 set up a Labour Inspectorate for Native labour. In Morocco the labour inspection districts were defined by an Order of 15 June 1936.

India. — Existing legislation was amended by a Notification of 29 October 1936.

Norway. — The Workers' Protection Act of 19 June 1936 contains provisions concerning labour inspection.

Peru. — A Decree of 23 March 1936 contains details concerning the Health and Safety Department of the Ministry of Labour.

Turkey. — The Labour Code of 8 June 1936, which laid the foundations for a comprehensive body of social legislation, also provides for the organisation of factory inspection.

U.S.S.R. — The rights and obligations of inspectors were defined by an Order of 8 July 1936.

Venezuela. — A National Labour Office was set up by a Decree of 29 February 1936. The Labour Act of 15 July 1936 deals in greater detail with the work of the inspectors, and a Decree of 22 August 1936 attached special technical services to the National Labour Office.

Special Branches of Factory Inspection

Belgium. — A Royal Order of 4 December 1936 defined the number, area and boundaries of the districts covered by the mines inspectors.

Ecuador. — Regulations of 14 February 1936 amended the existing provisions concerning mines inspection.

France. — A Decree of 1 December 1936 in Indo-China defines the persons with competence to record contraventions of the regulations concerning explosives. A Decree of 14 February 1937 and an Order of 15 February 1937 amended existing legislation concerning the recruiting and titles of shipping inspectors.

Mexico. — Regulations concerning the inspection of steam boilers were published on 27 August 1936.

Norway. — An Order of 5 December 1935 defines the kinds of electrical apparatus that are liable to inspection, and an Act of

7 May 1936 contains instructions concerning the inspection of electrical equipment.

United States. — An Act of 23 June 1936 amended the existing legislation on shipping inspection.

U.S.S.R. — The inspection of coal mines and other mines from the point of view of safety is dealt with in two Orders of 27 February and 3 March 1936, and the inspection of salt mines in an Order of 27 May 1936.

Yugoslavia. — The technical supervision of steam engines and steam-driven vehicles was defined in detail in regulations of 10 June 1936.

CHAPTER III

SOCIAL INSURANCE

INTRODUCTION

Social insurance, established in the interest of the workers and their families, serves also as a huge national reservoir in which labour not required by industry is retained, and from which industry can draw the additional labour it may need. When the rate of production and exchange increases, calls for new labour become more frequent, and the burdens of social insurance are alleviated. Thanks to the economic revival, such a process is now taking place, as the events recorded in the following pages repeatedly show.

In an annual review covering so many countries, all the changes introduced during the year cannot be described. As in previous issues, this chapter of the *Year-Book* will merely examine the essential features of the legislative action taken or proposed, and quote a few outstanding facts and figures to bring out the progress towards a sounder position that has been made in most countries. Indeed, the signs of improvement are unmistakable, and justify a favourable view of future development. Social insurance is consolidating its position and widening its scope; the services it can render to the cause of general recovery are better understood to-day than in the past; and countries in widely different stages of industrial growth are showing the same interest in perfecting their social defence.

NATIONAL SCHEMES

Argentina. — One new piece of legislation calls for special mention—Decree No. 80229 of 15 April 1936, containing regulations for administering the Compulsory Maternity Insurance Act. Under this Decree, maternity insurance is compulsory for all women between 15 and 45 years of age, whether married or single, who are employed as workers or salaried employees in industrial or commercial undertakings or branches thereof, of whatever kind. The scheme is administered by a Maternity Fund, which is a section of the National Pension Fund. The contributions of insured women vary according to wage class (of which there are six) between 1.20

and 3.20 pesos a quarter-year; the contributions of the employer and the State are each equal to the insured woman's contribution. The right to benefit is acquired on condition that the insured woman was actually employed in an industrial or commercial undertaking nine months before her confinement and has paid contributions for that period, or that she has paid contributions for eight periods of three months in the course of the three years immediately preceding that period. Apart from a cash allowance, which varies between 75 and 200 pesos according to wage class, benefit includes free treatment by a doctor or midwife. The new scheme is estimated to cover about 100,000 women.

The movement in favour of additional or improved protection for workers against social risks has given rise to two Bills and a petition to Parliament.

The Socialist Party introduced a Bill in the Chamber of Deputies to extend the workmen's compensation scheme to all agricultural workers. At present, under the relevant Act of 11 October 1915, the scheme covers workers whose annual remuneration does not exceed 3,000 pesos and who are employed on transport or the handling of machines in forestry and agriculture. The adoption of the Bill would enable all agricultural workers to benefit by the accident compensation scheme on the same footing as industrial workers and Argentine legislation would be brought into line with the Workmen's Compensation (Agriculture) Convention, 1921.

A petition calling for the introduction of sickness insurance was submitted to Parliament by the Federation of Catholic Salaried Employees' Associations.

The lack of a Federal old-age pension scheme led to the introduction of a Bill in the Provincial Diet of La Plata. It proposes to introduce non-contributory old-age pensions for persons aged 60 years who have resided in the Province for 30 years and have incomes not exceeding 45 pesos a month. The pensions, amounting to 45 pesos a month, will be paid by the Provincial Government out of the yield of a supplementary tax on gifts and bequests.

The position of the special institutions for invalidity, old-age, and widows' and orphans' insurance continues to be difficult. It is true that the number of insured persons increased in 1935, membership of the Railwaymen's Pension and Superannuation Fund rising from 135,837 in 1934 to 141,632 in 1935, and that of the Bank Employees' Pension Fund from 9,098 to 9,313. On the other hand, total contributions fell sharply from 38,360,000 pesos to 31,440,000 for the Railwaymen's Fund and from 6,420,000 pesos to 6,300,000 for the Bank Employees' Fund.

Australia. — Further steps are being taken to prepare the way for social insurance. A report on social insurance schemes abroad was submitted to Parliament early in 1936 by the former Under-Secretary for Re-employment, Sir Frederick Stewart. The Government has recently been giving further consideration to the question, and the actuarial data on the subject have been reviewed and

brought up to date in the light of present-day conditions. As it was considered that a scheme of national insurance somewhat on the lines of that in operation in Great Britain would be most suitable for the needs of the Commonwealth, the Government of the United Kingdom was asked to make available the services of experts to make a survey of Australian conditions and report on the matter. This was done, and an insurance scheme is now under consideration. It is expected that insurance will extend to health, pensions and unemployment.

As a symptom of a general tendency in British Dominions, it may be noted that the Victoria British Medical Association has recommended a compulsory contributory scheme, providing for cash payments towards the cost of medical and hospital care, as a first step towards a national insurance service which might eventually be incorporated in a Commonwealth scheme.

Pending the introduction of social insurance, the scale of non-contributory old-age and invalidity pensions, making rates dependent on the price index number of food and groceries, was revised. The immediate effect of the change was to bring the rate from 18s. to 19s. a week, with a corresponding increase in the income limit from 30s. 6d. to 31s. 6d. a week. The advantage of this increase to the pensioner is all the greater as costs of food items, rent and clothing have considerably declined since 1929. Maternity allowances were also increased.

Owing to the steady rise in the number of pensioners, from 83,000 in 1911 to 274,000 in 1935 and 287,000 in 1936, and the more liberal legislation of recent years, expenditure on old-age and invalidity pensions is rapidly rising. The restrictive measures taken in 1931 and 1932 had brought the upward trend to a standstill in 1932 and 1933, but expenditure rose again to £10,960,000 in 1934, £11,760,000 in 1935, £12,800,000 in 1936, as compared with £1,850,000 in 1911. The average weekly pension in 1936 was 17s. 4d.; and the percentage of the population in receipt of pensions was 4.24, of whom 3.05 were old-age pensioners. Expenditure on maternity allowances was £335,500 in 1935-1936 as compared with £329,300 in the previous year.

In Victoria a Parliamentary Select Committee representing all parties, after conducting an enquiry, recommended a system of widows' pensions and child endowment.

On the other hand, workmen's compensation legislation, though in most States covering the vast majority of workers whose income is below a fixed limit, is still considered incomplete in some respects. Insurance is compulsory but employers are left to insure with private profit-making companies or the State Insurance Office, if any, except in Queensland, where insurance is administered by a single State institution. Pension payments are limited by the fixing of a maximum aggregate amount of compensation and may in most States be redeemed for a lump sum by agreement between the parties. Claims not settled by agreement are dealt with by arbitration or the law courts, only New South Wales having estab-

lished a special workmen's compensation commission. In Victoria a proposal to establish a workmen's compensation board representing the insurance companies, the workers' organisations, and the judicial authorities was again under consideration. The board was to settle all disputed claims and to receive and accept or refuse agreements for redeeming weekly payments by lump sums. One of the main objects of this proposed special jurisdiction was to ensure that workers would not be induced to accept by agreement less than they were legally entitled to receive. The proposal, however, was again defeated in the Legislative Council, as in 1935. Other measures proposed include provision for a temporary pension payable during total incapacity, i.e. during the period of recovery, the amount of which may not, as at present, be deducted from the lump sum to which the worker is entitled in the case of specified permanent injuries. On the other hand, both in Victoria and Queensland compensation is to be increased.

Austria. — The reform of social insurance introduced in 1935 and described in the previous issue of the *Year-Book*,¹ necessitated a number of administrative measures, to which attention is now being given.

Reference should be made first of all to the establishment of the National Federation of Sickness Insurance Institutions, as required by the Act of 30 March 1935. The following institutions are *de jure* members of the Federation: the Union of Workers' Sickness Funds, the Union of Salaried Employees' Sickness Funds, the Central Workers' Insurance Institution (accident and old-age insurance), the Salaried Employees' Insurance Institution (accident, invalidity, old-age, and survivors' insurance), and the special insurance institutions for journalists and pharmacists. The Federation is empowered to represent its affiliated members in matters of common concern to them, to issue guiding principles for collaboration between them and for the administration of insurance, to give its opinion on social insurance questions, etc.

One of its most important duties is to lay down general regulations governing the social insurance medical services. With this object, a commission was set up to prepare for the establishment of the National Medical Board prescribed under the Act. The Board will have control over the medical committees which are to be attached to the provincial associations of insurance funds. Each such committee will be composed of representatives of the funds belonging to the association concerned and of the competent medical organisation, in equal numbers, with an official as chairman; its function will be to provide a medical service. Failing agreement in a committee, the disputed point will be settled by the National Medical Board.

The recently established Preparatory Commission drafted "instructions for social insurance doctors", containing full pro-

¹ Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1935-36*, pp. 217-220.

visions relating to medical services and, in particular, governing the admission of doctors to the service of the insurance institutions, the rights and duties of insurance doctors, and the settlement of disputes. Henceforth insured persons may obtain medical assistance only from approved doctors. They may choose their doctor from the panel of approved doctors in the district where they live. All doctors of Austrian nationality who have been in practice for 4 years, including 3 years' hospital work, may be on the panel. The number of approved doctors in any district is fixed by the National Medical Board; applications for approval must be submitted to the medical committees. Approved doctors are required to follow the instructions drawn up by the National Association concerning medical treatment and economical prescribing. They are paid on the basis of services rendered. The medical committees fix each year the money value of the units of pay, the number of units of pay corresponding to each of the different forms of medical attendance. The total expenditure for medical treatment may not exceed a specified percentage of the sickness funds' income.

Other measures to administer the Act of 1935 concern the autonomy of the insurance institutions. The Government commissioners attached to most of these institutions after the political events of February 1934¹ have been withdrawn, and representatives of the insured persons and their employers now administer the funds instead. These representatives are nominated by the Federal Minister of Social Administration on the basis of proposals from the occupational organisations concerned.

The Act of 30 March 1935 made provision for a large decrease in expenditure, to be obtained by reducing cash payments and attaching stricter conditions to the grant of benefit. In order to alleviate resulting hardship, it was proposed in 1936 to reduce the qualifying period under the salaried employees' old-age insurance scheme from 180 to 120 contribution-months, to abolish the three-day waiting period introduced in sickness insurance in 1935, and to raise the wage limit below which home workers may insure. These proposals, however, have not yet become law.

The same applies to a reform for which the Union of Private Railway Employees pressed during the year, on the ground that the Act of 1935 does not apply to railway staffs and that, during the years 1930-1935, the different special insurance schemes for these staffs showed a decrease of 20 per cent. in insured membership and an increase of 175 per cent. in the number of pensioners.

Another proposal for reconstruction contemplates extending the railwaymen's insurance scheme to the staffs of road transport undertakings.

On the other hand there was a reform of the insurance scheme for salaried employees in agriculture and forestry. Act No. 31 of 1937 modifies contributions and benefits in this insurance scheme

¹ Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1934-35*, pp. 207-208.

to fit in with the requirements of the 1935 Act, which covers insurance in industry and commerce.

The improvement in the financial position of the insurance institutions, expected as a result of the 1935 reform, has occurred. The Salaried Employees' Insurance Institution, for instance, registered both a slight rise in insured membership (from 183,323 at the end of 1934 to 185,222 at the end of 1935) and an increase in average contributions per insured person (from 23.04 to 26.67 schillings).

Belgium. — The principal legislative measure in the field of social insurance was the Royal Order of 30 March 1936 establishing an Endowment Fund to meet the expenditure under the transitional provisions (relating to free pension bonuses to persons who were above a certain age when the pension scheme came into operation) of the old-age and widows' and orphans' pension scheme, on the lines of the proposal described in the previous issue of the *Year-Book*¹.

The Fund will receive from the State: (1) an annual grant of an amount equal to one-third of the free State pension bonuses granted during the year to pensioners coming under the transitional system; (2) a fixed annual subsidy of an amount sufficient to pay off in 99 years a capital sum equal to two-thirds of the present value of the probable charges of the Fund.

As long as these resources remain insufficient, the Endowment Fund will obtain the sums necessary to meet the difference between its receipts and its expenditure by borrowing from the General Savings and Pensions Fund. The latter will be bound to make such loans, the term of which will in all cases extend to 31 December 2034. The Endowment Fund may also receive payments from the State supplementing the annual subsidy, in order to reduce the amount of the subsidy in the future either by the repayment of unexpired loans or by the constitution of reserves.

An Act of 30 December 1936 abolished the 5 per cent. cut introduced by the Order of 31 May 1933 in the free pension bonuses which are granted to beneficiaries of the transitional system in order to compensate for the deficiency of their own contributions. The same Act also abolished the cuts made in miners' pensions at the beginning of 1935. The rates of benefit payable under the workers' compulsory old-age and survivors' insurance scheme and the miners' insurance scheme are thus restored to the original amounts laid down in the Act of 14 July 1930 for the general scheme and in that of 1 August 1930 for miners' insurance.

In the field of voluntary sickness insurance, the rules governing the payment of State subsidies were amended with a view to promoting the development of mutual aid funds of proved stability. An Order of 30 June 1936 introduced new regulations relating to the minimum membership that makes a fund eligible for a State

¹ Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1935-36*, pp. 220-221.

subsidy, and fixed the rates of the subsidies payable to those funds which combat cancer, organise preventive medicine, and grant subsidies in case of marriage and allowances in case of death.

The Superior Labour Council continued to study the reforms to be made in the workers' old-age and widows' and orphans' insurance scheme in order that this may play its part in carrying out the policy of re-employment. The Government, both in a general statement and in the debate on the Ministry of Labour estimates, reaffirmed its desire to have established, as soon as possible, the list of unhealthy industries in which workers will become entitled to pensions at 60 years in accordance with the Act of 14 July 1930. It also explained that, after examination by the competent services, the Royal Order enumerating the unhealthy industries in which the pensionable age was to be reduced from 65 to 60 would attach one condition to the granting of this concession: the workers who benefited by it would have to abstain from taking any other employment, so as to provide openings of employment for the unemployed.

The Government also announced its intention, for similar reasons, of granting the special old-age pension bonus to all industrial workers who, at 65 years, agree not to take a post in industry or elsewhere which can be filled by unemployed persons, and of thus abolishing the present means test governing the grant of the bonus.

Bolivia. — With a view to substituting an insurance scheme for that of compulsory saving hitherto in force, a committee set up by the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare submitted to the Government a draft Decree providing for the establishment of a compulsory National Insurance Fund, to cover all workers in public or private employment and persons working on their own account.

Brazil. — Year by year since 1931 a succession of schemes of compulsory invalidity, old-age and survivors' insurance have been instituted for manual and non-manual workers in different occupations: public utility undertakings, shipping, and commercial undertakings, to mention only the more important. During 1936 much thought was given to the establishment of a similar scheme for the benefit of the two million workers in industrial undertakings. In September a Bill for this purpose was submitted to the Social Legislation Committee of the Chamber.

The scheme proposed for industrial workers bears a general resemblance to that already established for commercial workers: it provides for invalidity, old-age, and widows' and orphans' pensions proportional to wages, a triple contribution shared equally by the worker, the employer and the State, and a centralised autonomous administration. On the other hand, there are certain important differences. Thus provision is made for sickness benefit in cash as well as in kind, and the choice of investments for the pension reserves is to be determined by considerations, not only

of security and interest yield, but also of the welfare of the community and the insured population in particular.

The Bill is a mere outline and all details are left to be settled by regulations. It provides for a preliminary period of organisation, during which the administrative machinery will be set up and a census of industrial workers will be taken, with the object of drawing up a plan of contributions and benefits. Only on the completion of this task, which will last six months or more, will the regulations be issued and the scheme come fully into operation.

An interesting development in workmen's compensation began in 1936 and seems likely to continue. The Workmen's Compensation Decree of 1934 entrusted to the competent trade unions the duty of arranging for the accident insurance of workers whose employment is of a casual nature or who are not permanently in the service of one employer. The trade union collects from the employer the accident insurance premium prescribed by regulation for the occupation in question, re-insures with an insurance company the risks of permanent incapacity and death, and itself provides benefits for temporary incapacity. The union is in a position to check, by means of mutual supervision, any tendency to malingering among its members. It has already been found that the union is able to economise a substantial part of the premium, and the saving is utilised for the provision of higher compensation or of additional benefits such as a general medical service for members and their dependants, but may in part be applied to the abatement of premiums. This system has given such successful results among the casual workers for whom it was originally intended that a much wider application is now contemplated for it in virtue of collective agreements between employers' and workers' organisations.

Bulgaria! — The Social Insurance Fund, which administers sickness and maternity, industrial accident, and invalidity and old-age insurance, is still suffering from the effects of economic depression. The total insured membership declined from 250,000 in 1935 to about 200,000 in 1936, and the total contributions received in respect of sickness insurance and old-age and invalidity insurance also fell. Further, the Treasury was unable to pay more than one-sixth of the subsidy due from it, which is fixed by the Act at one-third of the total contributions due in respect of insurance against sickness and maternity, invalidity and old age.

The collection of insurance contributions by means of stamps, which had been tried for sickness insurance and for invalidity and old-age insurance, was extended to industrial accident insurance in 1935. The results obtained from this new method of collection appear favourable, and it has facilitated the administration of accident insurance.

An investigation with a view to establishing a special insurance scheme for salaried employees in private undertakings was begun in 1936. At present these employees are members of the Social Insurance Fund on the same footing as other employed persons.

According to an enquiry undertaken by the Statistical Office in June 1936 they numbered 15,326 (13,372 men and 1,954 women).

A Bill has been prepared by the Directorate of Labour to make the Social Insurance Fund an independent institution (it is now a part of the Ministry of Economic Affairs). The Fund would be incorporated, and its administration entrusted to a tripartite board composed of representatives of the insured persons, their employers, and the State.

Canada. — As will be remembered, Alberta was the first Province to introduce health insurance legislation in Canada, in 1935; it was left, however, to the electors of districts formed for this purpose to decide in favour of compulsory sickness insurance of all income earners, providing for medical benefits to the whole resident population.

British Columbia, after elaborate preparations completed in 1935, has now followed suit, but the British Columbia scheme, while making insurance compulsory, is far more limited in scope. Contrary to the original plan to include all workers, the scheme adopted is restricted to non-agricultural employees, subject to an income limit lower than that provided for in the original draft Bill (1,800 dollars instead of 2,400 dollars). Moreover, various classes of workers such as domestic servants, casual labourers, and workers in specified industries or areas may be excluded. As under the Alberta scheme, and contrary to the original intention, only medical benefits are provided for. Benefits are granted after a qualifying period of four weeks and include surgical and specialist services, maternity treatment, pharmaceutical supplies, laboratory services, and diagnostic aid; hospital treatment is granted for a limited period. Both the insured person and his dependants are entitled to benefits, the duration of which is limited only when the insured person has ceased to contribute. In principle, free choice of doctor is provided for; doctors may be remunerated according to three alternative methods or a combination of any of these—salary, capitation fee, or payment for services rendered. Funds are obtained from contributions of employers and insured persons, amounting to 2 per cent. of the remuneration for the employee and 1 per cent. for the employer. The provision for a State subsidy proposed in the original draft appears to have been omitted. The Province will contribute only towards the initial expenses of organisation. An independent Commission, appointed by the Lieutenant-Governor in Council, is in charge of the scheme. No right of representation has been granted to insured persons and employers by the Act. The Commission, which is assisted by a technical advisory council and officers, has exclusive jurisdiction under the Act. The enforcement of this law, however, met with difficulties of a practical kind. The medical profession opposed the system suggested, among other reasons because it did not apply to the poorest people and other classes in special need of help, and because the conditions of service and payment offered

by the Insurance Commission would not be acceptable to doctors. They also demanded that the Province should bear part of the expense of medical treatment.

Reference may also be made to a tendency on the part of the medical profession to anticipate insurance by establishing voluntary medical schemes under the auspices of the profession. Such a scheme has been introduced in Ontario.

Further progress in the field of social insurance may be reported for Quebec and New Brunswick; these Provinces have now joined the others by participating in the non-contributory old-age pension scheme. The Dominion contributes 75 per cent. of the sums paid in pension by any Province in conformity with the Dominion Act. Pensions are granted to persons of 70 years of age, subject to an income limit of 365 dollars a year (including the pension) and a maximum pension rate of 240 dollars. The schemes are generally administered by public bodies under Provincial and Dominion Government control. On 30 June 1936, 109,696 persons were in receipt of old-age pensions, as compared with 101,051 on 31 March 1935. Labour is requesting a lowering of the pensionable age to 60 years and increases in pension rates. A proposal to extend non-contributory pensions to blind persons at the age of 40 or over was adopted by the Dominion Parliament.

Among other measures, maternity allowances have been extended to deserted women in Alberta, and to mothers who were British subjects before their marriage in British Columbia.

As in previous years, workmen's compensation legislation was amended in many Provinces without changes in the fundamental structure of the schemes, which, though covering specified industries only, provide for rather substantial pensions and medical benefits. Employers contribute to an accident fund administered by a public body and industries are assigned to classes each bearing its own risk. The amended legislation in Alberta now provides for a further differentiation of rates of contribution for different kinds of employment within a class. In Manitoba the Workmen's Compensation Board was given power to exclude undertakings employing only a small number of workers, and the right to compensation was extended to cases of silicosis in specified occupations. In Alberta and Nova Scotia greater facilities for reporting accidents were granted, and in Nova Scotia provision was made for the re-hearing of claims on presentation of new evidence. In Quebec it is proposed to allow the injured workman a common-law recourse against a third party in addition to compensation.

Chile. — The policy followed by the Compulsory Insurance Fund in the investment of its reserves has for some years avoided fixed-interest securities, as being subject to the effects of monetary depreciation and given preference to land and industrial securities. This policy, which led the Fund to enter into competition with private enterprise in various fields, has encountered strong opposition. It also hindered the Fund from co-operating in a Govern-

ment scheme to float a housing loan. In these circumstances the general manager of the Fund resigned in the autumn of 1936, and it seems that an investment policy will be followed which does not involve direct participation in industry.

There were no changes in social insurance legislation in the course of the year, but new regulations were issued for the administration of maternity benefit under the Compulsory Insurance Act. These regulations make detailed provision for the care and assistance of working mothers and of their babies up to the age of 2, it being the opinion of the Fund that a concentrated effort of a medico-social character in this field would be likely to render more valuable results than in any other of the many fields of curative and preventive work available to it.

China. — There was no material change in legislation on social insurance during 1936; workmen's compensation is still regulated by the Factory Act of 1929.

Some progress was made, however, in defining the classes of workers to whom compensation is due. Section 11 of the Mines Act of 25 June 1936 stipulates expressly that miners are to be included among the persons benefiting by the Factory Act; they are therefore entitled to medical treatment and to the lump sum payments to be received either by the injured persons themselves or by their survivors.

Colombia. — On 31 March 1931 Congress passed a Compulsory Savings Act to take effect on 1 January 1937. This Act is to apply to all salaried employees and workers of Colombian nationality employed in the country. The compulsory savings system is to be administered by the Section for Savings and Social Welfare in the Savings Bank. But by Act No. 199 of 15 December 1936 Congress decided to postpone the application of the Compulsory Savings Act until 1 July 1937. At the same time it set up an Inter-Parliamentary Committee to study the social insurance scheme submitted to Parliament by the Minister for Industry and Labour.

This scheme will cover all workers whose annual earnings do not exceed 2,400 pesos. Insurance will be administered by the Colombian Social Insurance Fund and its resources will be obtained from contributions equal to 5 per cent. of wages (3 per cent. being paid by the insured person and 2 per cent. by the employer). Insurance will be introduced by stages; sickness insurance will come first and will begin with providing benefits in kind for insured persons and their families. The scheme will begin to operate in the departmental capitals and will only be extended gradually to the whole country.

Costa Rica. — Apart from a scheme of compensation for industrial accidents, the only social insurance measures now in existence are an old-age pension scheme for persons employed at the National

Printing Works¹, and two invalidity, old-age and widows' and orphans' pension schemes for teachers and for national telegraph and telephone staffs. The introduction of a general social insurance scheme is, however, being studied, and it was announced that the Government would submit a Social Insurance Bill to Congress early in 1937.

Cuba. — There has been a marked difference during the last few years in the development of the two main groups of social insurance schemes—on the one hand the two compulsory schemes insuring all employed persons against accidents and against maternity respectively, and on the other, the various compulsory schemes of insurance against invalidity, old age and death for certain groups of workers, e.g. transport workers. The consequent striking contrast in the financial position of the two groups of institutions induced the Government to take action or to propose that Parliament should do so, with the object either of avoiding new financial difficulties (accident insurance), or facilitating a better covering of the risk (maternity insurance), or, again, reconstructing a scheme which had ceased to be able to meet its liabilities (pension insurance for seamen and assimilated persons).

As regards the accident compensation scheme, new regulations were issued in 1936 to govern the supervision of insurance companies' operations and to protect their creditors; the system hitherto in force—compulsory insurance with free choice of insurance carrier—is retained, but Decree No. 3093 of 11 November 1936 amends the regulations governing the composition, duties and procedure of the board which fixes the minimum premiums that insurance companies must demand.

In maternity insurance, the Government, having regard to the favourable financial position of the funds, requested them to devote a large proportion of their surplus receipts to the establishment of medical services. In this connection the six institutions which administer sickness insurance for the whole country have received free of charge sites belonging to the Government in order that they may build special hospitals or maternity clinics. Further, the rules for allocation of benefit have been made somewhat less strict; Order No. 197 of 30 October 1936 places periods of incapacity to earn caused by an industrial accident on the same footing as periods of actual contribution.

The compulsory invalidity, old-age and widows' and orphans' insurance schemes for certain groups of persons (particularly for transport workers) are on the other hand suffering from the very easy conditions on which benefit is granted. Periods of employment before the compulsory scheme came into force are counted, as regards eligibility for a pension, on the same basis as periods spent under the scheme and in respect of which contributions were paid. This system, together with the effects of the economic depression

¹ Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1935-36*, p. 229.

(decline in receipts and depreciation of the funds' assets) involved the older of these pension schemes—i.e. those with the heaviest present liabilities—in unceasing and indeed constantly growing financial difficulties.

In 1936 the Maritime Transport Workers' Pension Fund, having in vain attempted to increase its income by raising insured persons' and employers' contributions, once more appealed to the Government for such aid as would permit it to resume the payment of pensions. The Government responded by asking Parliament for authorisation to hand back to the Fund 100,000 dollars' worth of foreign-debt bonds, which the Fund had previously deposited with the Treasury as security for a loan contracted to meet earlier difficulties. At the same time the Government prepared a Bill to place the finances of the Fund on a sound footing, both by seeking new permanent sources of income and by establishing a stricter relation between the amount of guaranteed benefit and the actual contribution period. The Bill passed the House of Representatives on 30 August 1936 and is now before the Senate.

Czechoslovakia. — The two general insurance schemes which operate under the auspices of the Central Social Insurance Institution (workers' sickness and maternity insurance and invalidity, old-age and survivors' insurance) continued to benefit by the effects of the business recovery. Most of the sickness funds were able to close their 1935 accounts without showing a deficit. The return to normal economic conditions was evidenced by an increase in the total number of persons contributing. The 296 funds supervised by the Central Institution were able to show a total of 2,120,000 contributing members for May 1936; this was 124,000 higher than the figure for the previous month, and 142,000 higher than that for May 1935. The upward trend continued during the second half of 1936, and the average number of persons contributing for the year as a whole seems likely to be 10 per cent. above that for 1935, though it will still be well below the yearly average recorded in 1930.

The number of persons insured under the workers' invalidity, old-age and survivors' insurance scheme, which celebrated its tenth anniversary in July 1936, was also about 10 per cent. higher than in 1935, there being no change in the yearly average contribution per insured person, which amounted to 233 kč. The number of pensions in course of payment during June 1936 was 221,000, including 137,000 invalidity, 30,000 old-age, and 54,000 widows' and orphans' pensions. The amount of the pensions will necessarily increase as the scheme grows older. Thus, between 1933 and 1935, the monthly average rose from 111 to 138 kč. in the case of invalidity pensions and from 110 to 151 kč. in that of old-age pensions.

In 1936 the General Pension Institution which administers invalidity, old-age and survivors' insurance for salaried employees recorded the biggest increase since 1930 in the number of persons insured, the figure being 352,641 for December, as against 328,681 for the same month in 1935 and 309,751 in 1930. The substantial

changes introduced during 1934 in this scheme, and more especially the provision that elderly employees suffering from protracted unemployment might claim a pension, were attended by the results which had been anticipated.

During the summer session of 1936 Parliament approved the proposals reorganising the pension scheme for miners' which had been made by a committee consisting of social insurance experts and representatives of the employers and workers concerned¹. The Act of 3 July 1936 confirms the autonomy of the Central Mining Fund, which, however, must re-insure part of its liabilities with the Central Social Insurance Institution. The invalidity pension is payable, after a qualifying period of 24 contribution months, to insured persons who are unable to continue in employment as miners. The old-age pension is payable, after 360 contribution months, to insured persons who have reached the age of 55 and are no longer employed as miners. Insured persons who have paid only 180 monthly contributions may claim a pension at the age of 60.

The reform thus introduced met the chief claims made by the miners' unions. The reserves of the Central Miners' Benefit Fund had been exhausted for some years past, and current receipts only amounted to about half the annual expenditure on pensions, which totalled some 200 million kč. In order to allow of building up technical reserves without diminishing the rights of present and future pensioners, the Central Fund will receive throughout an initial ten-year period ending in 1946, in addition to the normal monthly contribution of 87 kč. per insured person, substantial special resources which will enable it to write off half the actuarial deficit. These special receipts will include a supplementary employer's contribution amounting to 2.5 per cent. of the wages actually paid, a supplementary worker's contribution equal to 1 per cent. of the basic wages taken into account for sickness insurance purposes, the proceeds of a tax on national or imported mining products, and an annual State subsidy of 90 million kč.

This plan for financial reorganisation which was approved by the Act of 3 July 1936, and to which all the parties concerned have agreed, has dispelled any anxiety that the miners may have felt about the stability of their insurance scheme.

The question of making insurance compulsory for persons working on their own account has come to the fore. The traders, craftsmen, peasants and small farmers are all in favour of this measure. At the request of the parties concerned, an Act which was passed some years ago concerning compulsory invalidity insurance for persons engaged in an independent occupation was not enforced. These independent workers, however, seem to have changed their minds, since they are now urging that the Act should be revised and that no time should be lost in making insurance compulsory. The negotiations which have been opened in this connection bear

¹ Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1935-36*, pp. 230-231.

mainly on the following points: whether the insurance scheme for independent workers should cover only invalidity, old age and death, or also occupational accidents and diseases; whether separate schemes should be organised for traders and craftsmen on the one hand and for rural occupations on the other; whether the contributions and pensions should vary with the insured person's income or be fixed at a uniform rate. The procedure for collecting contributions is also under discussion, but no final decision has been taken.

Denmark. — Under the Social Insurance Act of 20 May 1933, a non-contributory old-age pension is payable to every Danish citizen who has reached the age of 65 years and fulfils certain specified conditions.

On 10 February 1937 the Government introduced in the Rigsdag a Bill to amend the Social Insurance Act on a number of heads, the most important being a reduction of the pensionable age under the non-contributory old-age pension scheme from 65 to 60 years. In requesting the Rigsdag to adopt this amendment, the Minister of Social Affairs pointed out that the experience of recent years had shown that it was becoming more and more difficult for elderly persons to earn their living by work. Their position was now precarious, the reason lying much more often in the impossibility of their finding employment than in any inability to continue their work. The number of persons who would benefit under the proposed amendment is estimated at 29,000, and the resulting cost to the State at 7,600,000 kroner a year.

Another amendment makes provision for financial facilities for communes which undertake the building of cheap dwellings specially intended for persons in receipt of an old-age pension.

The Government Bill further provides for an increase of 2.40 kroner a year in the contribution to compulsory invalidity insurance and an increase in the contribution payable by "contributing" members (i.e. not full members) of recognised sickness insurance funds. This last increase was suggested by the Federation of Associations of Danish Sickness Funds, the object being to diminish the number of contributing members of funds and increase the number of full members; the latter figure had increased by about 366,000 during 1933 and 1934, but had fallen again by 16,000 in 1935. On 17 April 1937 the Rigsdag passed the Bill substantially in the form proposed by the Government.

Ecuador. — The Social Insurance Act of 2 October 1935¹ has now been carried into effect. A Decree of 16 April 1936 provided for the establishment of the National Insurance Institute on the following 1 May, while an Order of 8 June 1936 contains regulations providing for the compulsory registration with the Institute of all persons covered by the Act of 1935 and defines the scope of the Act.

¹ Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1935-36*, p. 232.

The new scheme of accident, sickness, old-age, and widows' and orphans' insurance applies to persons of either sex who were not less than 14 nor more than 65 years of age on 31 December 1936 and were gainfully employed by some other person in any of the occupations mentioned in the Order. The list includes salaried employees in commerce, in industrial undertakings of all kinds and in mining, transport, printing, and building undertakings; office, hotel, and restaurant employees; domestic servants; and workers of all kinds, whether employed in industry, commerce or agriculture. A Decree of 29 January 1937 exempts foreign workers from compulsory insurance. However, their employers are required to deposit the sum of 100 dollars with the insurance institution. This deposit is returned to the employer if the worker leaves the country. If he remains in Ecuador, the contributions which should have been paid are deducted from the deposit.

Pension insurance for journalists is being studied. In April 1936 the Minister of the Interior instructed a committee to draft a Bill relating to retiring pensions for the editorial staff of newspapers and proof-readers.

Egypt. — During the year Egypt took the first step in social insurance legislation with the enactment of a workmen's compensation law, and further measures are already under consideration.

The workmen's compensation law of 14 September 1936 covers all workers employed in industrial and commercial undertakings. The cash compensation consists of half-wages during temporary incapacity not exceeding twelve months, a lump sum not exceeding 1,000 days' wages in case of permanent incapacity, and a lump sum of 800 days' wages in case of death. Medical aid is, as a rule, to be given free of charge in Government hospitals, and only when accommodation there is not available will the employer be liable for medical expenses. The employer may insure his liability with an insurance company, but is not obliged to do so. The Department of Labour must be informed of every accident, and of the terms on which the claim was settled.

In June 1936 the Minister of Commerce appointed a committee to study the problem of establishing a social insurance scheme and to prepare a report which would serve as a basis for legislation.

Estonia. — Reference was made in the previous issue¹ of the *Year-Book* to the Legislative Decree of 5 January 1936 introducing accident insurance for agricultural workers, the cost of which is borne principally by the State. This scheme, which came into force on 1 May 1936, provides agricultural workers with protection equivalent to that enjoyed by persons employed in other industries.

The voluntary Pension Insurance Fund for Professional Workers, the rules of which were published in January 1935, has issued its

¹ Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1935-36*, p. 232.

first annual report. On 1 April 1936 the Fund had 469 members, including 215 actors and 119 journalists.

Attention continues to be given by the parties concerned to the proposed general scheme of invalidity, old-age and widows' and orphans' insurance. On 9 February 1936 the National Conference of Works Councils and Workers' Delegates voted a resolution requesting that such a scheme should be introduced for employed persons in all occupations; the pensionable age, the resolution continued, should be 55 years for men and 50 for women; invalidity pensions should be paid in case of total or partial incapacity to earn; and there should also be pensions for widows and for orphans under 18 years of age.

Finland. — On 22 September 1936 the Minister of Social Affairs submitted to Parliament a Bill for the introduction of compulsory invalidity and old-age insurance for the whole population. This is on the whole in conformity with the proposals made by the special committee in 1935. The new Government Bill, however, departs from the committee's draft on a number of points: it proposes to place the pensionable age (old-age pensions) at 67 years, instead of 65 as the committee had suggested; secondly, in order that the contributory part of the invalidity pension may not be too low if an insured person becomes incapable of working when still young, the Bill increases the rate of invalidity pension in these cases, the cost being borne out of levy on all contributions; and thirdly, the Government provides for the payment of pensions to orphans up to the age of 16 years, if they were dependent on the deceased person. The Bill was referred to a parliamentary committee, which had not reported at the end of the 1936 session; this committee has now resumed work, with a view to the early adoption of the measure.

On 2 February 1937 the Government submitted a Bill to introduce maternity insurance for women whose annual income, including that of the husband, does not exceed 6,000 marks, or 8,000 marks in districts where the cost of living is high. In case of childbirth such women will be entitled to an allowance of 250 marks, with a further 200 marks in the case of working women who are forbidden by law to work during a certain period after their confinement. According to estimates, maternity benefit will be payable in respect of about 42,000 births a year, and the annual cost will amount to some 13 million marks.

France. — Such changes as were made in the various social insurance schemes were designed to adjust these to movements in wages and prices.

The Social Insurance Act originally covered all workers earning less than 15,000 francs a year against the risks of sickness, invalidity, old age and death, besides making provision for family responsibilities and maternity. The wage limit was fixed at 18,000 francs a year in certain industrial areas. This amount was further increased

by 2,000 francs for persons with one dependent child, and by 4,000 francs for those with two dependent children. In the case of persons with three or more children, the limit was raised to 25,000 francs.

As a result of the general increase in wages, the remuneration of a large number of insured persons has risen beyond these limits.

The Act of 26 August 1936 aims primarily at maintaining the advantages of the general social insurance system for wage earners whose remuneration now amounts to more than 15,000 or 18,000 francs a year. Insurance is henceforth compulsory for all wage earners whose total yearly earnings, exclusive of family allowances, do not exceed 21,000 francs. This limit is raised to 25,000 francs in the case of persons with at least one dependent child.

The Act also adjusts the method of assessing contributions and benefits to the new rates of wages. Formerly, contributions were based on wages up to a maximum of 12,000 francs a year (the maximum insurable wage); benefits were also based on a maximum wage of 12,000 francs. A worker earning more than 12,000 francs a year was covered only up to that amount. The new wage limit for the assessment of contributions and benefits, in particular the daily allowances granted in cases of sickness or maternity, is fixed at 15,000 francs a year.

These provisions came into force on 1 January 1937.

At that date the temporary reduction in the amount of the social insurance contribution ceased, under the terms of the Decree which had instituted it¹, to be applicable. Accordingly, since 1 January 1937 the normal rate of contribution, that is, 8 per cent of wages, has once more applied to actual earnings up to the maximum insurable amount, i.e. 15,000 francs a year.

As regards industrial accidents, the Act of 7 August 1936 extended to workers in general the supplementary allowances previously confined to persons injured in accidents prior to 9 January 1927.

The supplementary allowances granted in France since 1922 to compensate for the loss in value of accident pensions which resulted from the fall in the purchasing power of the currency had so far been confined to persons injured in accidents prior to 9 January 1927 (the date on which the maximum wage to be taken into account for the assessment of pensions was increased from 4,500 francs to 8,000 francs in virtue of the Act of 8 July 1926). For persons injured in accidents after 9 January 1927, pensions were based on the actual wage earned by the worker during the year preceding the accident.

As a result of the economic depression and consequent unemployment, accident pensions were thus assessed in a large number of cases on annual remuneration considerably lower than that which the worker might normally expect to receive for his services.

It was recently admitted by the Court of Cassation that unemployment due to the stagnation of business should be considered

¹ Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1935-36*, pp. 236-237.

as involuntary and exceptional, and should consequently be ignored in assessing basic wages, so as to prevent the amount of such wages from being unduly lowered. The decision in question, however, applied only to one of the results of the depression, namely, unemployment occurring during the period taken for the assessment of the basic wage, and did not cover reductions in wage rates or transfers to lower wage classes arising out of the economic depression or difficulties experienced by workers in finding employment.

Pending better terms, many workers have had provisionally to accept wage conditions which do not in any way correspond to the remuneration they might normally expect to receive for their work. In order to prevent compensation granted to them in the event of an industrial accident from being assessed on abnormally low wages, the Act of 7 August 1936 extended to workers in general the supplementary allowances hitherto confined to persons injured in accidents prior to 9 January 1927. The allowance payable to the victim of an industrial accident is fixed at 4,735 francs a year in case of total incapacity and decreases with the degree of incapacity until it reaches 300 francs a year for incapacity of 20-24 per cent.

Consorts, relatives in the ascending line, and orphans are now entitled to a supplementary allowance equal to their pension, such allowance not to be less than 1,600 francs a year for widows, relatives in the ascending line, and orphans who have lost both parents.

The pension together with the allowance may in no case exceed the rate corresponding to a wage of 8,000 francs a year.

Persons injured in an industrial accident who require the constant attendance of another person receive a special annual bonus of 3,000 francs.

The legislation concerning invalidity, old-age and survivors' insurance for miners was likewise amended by an Act of 26 August 1936, which raised the rate of pensions and allowances payable to miners and their dependants. The minimum pension guaranteed to insured persons who have completed 30 years' service in the mines is raised from 5,500 to 6,000 francs a year. An equivalent increase is made in the proportional pensions paid to miners who have completed 15 to 25 years' service in the mines. The rate of the invalidity pension is raised from 4,000 to 4,300 francs a year and there is also an increase in orphans' pensions and lump-sum payments at death.

Finally, the Finance Act of 31 December 1936 cancels what remained of the restrictions placed in 1934 by legislative decree on the amount of pensions paid to workers employed by the State and to railwaymen employed by the main railway systems of general importance. The same Act also cancels the reduction of 5 per cent. made, under Decrees dated 5 May and 30 June 1934, in the invalidity, old-age and survivors' pensions payable by the Invalidity and Old-Age Insurance Institute of Alsace-Lorraine.

Germany. — There was no substantially new legislation in 1936, but further progress was made with the consolidation of the various

social insurance schemes. The object of most of the measures introduced was to apply the Act of July 1934 concerning the reorganisation of the social insurance system. The provisions of this Act can only be put into effect gradually.

The number of persons insured under the sickness and maternity scheme rose from 18.6 million in October 1935 to 19.8 million in October 1936. Total receipts and expenditure for all sickness funds in 1936 balanced at about 1,300 million RM., whereas in 1935 there had been a deficit of 57 million. In order to make good this deficit a fairly large number of funds had to raise the rate of contribution, and accordingly the average monthly contribution for 1936 was 3 RM. more than that for the preceding year.

Under the Act of 1934 each insurance institution is managed by a responsible head, who is assisted by an advisory council. The duties and the privileges of the advisory council were defined by an Order of 25 April 1936. The person responsible for the management of the insurance institution may ask the council for an opinion in regard to any matter, and he must do this whenever he has an important decision to take. The council must be consulted before any rules are adopted or amended and before the budget of the institution is drawn up. When the council and the responsible head do not agree in such matters, the decision lies with the supervisory authority. The advisory council is also responsible for approving the yearly accounts of the institution and releasing the head from all responsibility in respect to these; any disagreement as to the accounts must likewise be referred to the supervisory authority.

The administrative concentration of sickness insurance continued in 1936, various funds being amalgamated. From October 1935 to October 1936 the number of funds was reduced from 5,600 to 4,662.

The organisation of the substitute funds, which are incorporated as mutual associations under civil law, was altered in important respects. In 1934 the membership of these funds included about one-tenth of the total number of insured persons, but persons who did not come within the scope of the Social Insurance Code could also be members. Since 1 January 1936 membership of the substitute funds is open only to persons for whom social insurance is compulsory and the funds are supervised by the social insurance offices. As a result of the measures taken in regard to the substitute funds, social insurance is now quite independent of private sickness insurance.

The total number of contributions collected under the workers' invalidity, old-age and survivors' insurance scheme rose from 940 million RM. in 1935 to 1,044 million RM. in 1936. The total amount of the weekly contributions paid during the year was 746 million RM. as against 703 million RM. in 1935. The number of pensions in course of payment reached the level of 3.4 million, while the annual cost of pensions rose from 1,185 million RM. in

1935 to 1,195 million RM. in 1936 including 434 million and 436 million RM. respectively borne by the Reich. At the end of 1936 the assets of the insurance institutions amounted to 1,950 million RM. as against 1,669 million RM. at the end of 1935, but in spite of this increase the actuarial deficit is still very considerable. The system of collective accumulation has not so far been restored, as provided by the Act of December 1933, and this measure will only be taken when a corresponding reduction can be made in the rate of unemployment insurance contributions.

As has been stated in previous editions of the *Year-Book*, certain activities which are common to all sickness insurance funds in a particular area had been handed over to the competent invalidity, old-age and survivors' insurance institution for that area. These activities have now been assigned to a special department of the said institution. Each sickness fund in the area is represented in the department, the functions of which include the following services: joint administration of hospitals, sanatoria, curative establishments and convalescent homes; preventive measures; medical control service; joint administration of the sickness funds' reserves; and financial supervision of the funds.

Among the measures taken in 1936 with a view to centralising the administration of affairs which are common to the sickness funds of a given area, mention should be made of those dealing with the medical control service. This service, which was first instituted voluntarily by the funds, was made compulsory in 1930. An Order issued by the Federal Minister of Labour on 20 March 1936 regulates the operation and functions of the control service and the rights and privileges of the medical controllers, while an Order issued by the National Social Insurance Office on 15 July 1936 lays down rules for the appointment of medical controllers and defines their conditions of service. The duties of medical controllers include the supervision of incapacity for work and of panel doctors' prescriptions, and the drafting of reports with a view to facilitating the application of curative and preventive measures in regard to social diseases. The medical control service in each territorial invalidity, old-age and survivors' insurance institution is directed by a chief medical officer appointed by the head of the institution in agreement with the sickness fund concerned. The chief medical officer must have considerable clinical knowledge and have had several years' experience as a medical officer. The medical controllers are appointed by the chief medical officer, their status being the same as that of State officials. They are therefore materially and morally independent, both of the medical practitioners and of the sickness funds.

The accident insurance scheme is still run, so far as industrial workers are concerned, on an occupational basis. The financial system is that of assessment to meet annual expenses, which in 1935 totalled about 330 million RM. In 1936 expenses tended to increase in sympathy with growing industrial activity.

By December 1936 the scheme instituted by the Invalidity, Old-Age and Survivors' Insurance Act for salaried employees had been in existence for 25 years. In 1913 there were 1.7 million insured persons; by the end of 1936, that number had doubled. In the course of 1936 the Salaried Employees' Insurance Institution, which is alone responsible for operating this scheme, collected contributions amounting to 406 million RM. as against 357 million RM. in 1935. The cost of the pensions amounted to 240 million RM. in 1936 as against 221 million RM. in 1935. The total assets of the Institution rose from 2,588 million RM. at the end of November 1935 to 2,937 million RM. at the end of November 1936; but the actuarial deficit of the salaried employees', like that of the workers', scheme is still substantial. As in the case of the workers' scheme, the return to collective accumulation has been postponed until a corresponding reduction can be made in the unemployment insurance contributions.

Since 1 January 1936 the Labour Front, which includes nearly all workers, is responsible for representing insured persons and pensioners in dealings with insurance institutions and supervisory authorities. To this end the Labour Front has consulting offices where claimants can obtain information as to their rights and duties under social insurance schemes. If required, these offices represent claimants in dealings with the insurance institutions or offices. Under an Act of 23 December 1936, invalidity or old-age pension claims lodged with one of the Labour Front's consulting offices are treated as if they had been lodged with the competent insurance institute. Further, the Labour Front has set up a welfare service which may, under certain specified conditions, supplement social insurance benefits.

Great Britain. — The two social insurance measures which the Government announced at the end of 1935 did not come before Parliament in 1936. They figure, however, on the legislative programme for 1937. The first of these measures is the establishment of a scheme of voluntary old-age and widows' and orphans' insurance for persons of limited means who are not liable to insurance. The second is the reduction of the age of entry into national health insurance so as to coincide with the school-leaving age, thereby securing continuity of medical care at the transition from school to employment. The Government also proposes to assist the blind by granting them a non-contributory pension at the age of 40, instead of 50 as at present.

The proposed voluntary pension insurance scheme will provide old-age pensions at the age of 65 and widows' and orphans' pensions, at the same rates as those granted under the compulsory scheme. Persons entering during the first year for which the scheme is in force will be insured under very favourable conditions: they will be accepted at any age up to 55, and pay a low uniform contribution. A large proportion of the benefits of these initial entrants

will fall to be borne by the State. Persons entering afterwards will only be admitted up to the age of 40, and will have to pay contributions proportionate to their age at the date of entry. The scheme is intended for small shopkeepers, farmers, dressmakers and other persons working on their own account and also for persons of small independent means.

The proposal to lower the age of entry into health insurance is in harmony with the Government's recent decision to follow a vigorous policy for the improvement of the nation's physique and may perhaps be an earnest of further steps to improve the preventive and curative efficacy of the health insurance scheme.

Any improvement, however, would require additional resources. In this connection the steady fall in the level of unemployment is very helpful. It would seem that from this cause the contribution-income of health insurance in 1936 will be found to have exceeded the 1935 figure by at least £750,000. Meanwhile voluntary effort is beginning to fill one of the gaps in the curative benefits of health insurance: some two million persons now contribute under a scheme of insurance which secures them free hospital treatment.

A movement to make the old-age pension an instrument for reducing unemployment has been active for some years past. The demand is for a higher rate of pension to be granted on condition of retirement from industry and if possible at the age of 60 instead of the present age of 65.

At the Labour Party Conference in 1936 a resolution to this effect was unanimously adopted. The Government's view, however, is that the grant of a higher pension at a lower age would be uneconomical as a remedy for unemployment: the pension would in practice have to be granted, not only to persons of pensionable age now employed who consent to retire, but also to all those who have already left industry and to those who would have retired under present conditions of their own accord; furthermore, those consenting to retire on pension would be replaced by a smaller number of younger persons.

Without waiting for State action, however, the more prosperous firms and industries are themselves setting up pension schemes to supplement the benefits of the general compulsory scheme. At least 500,000 industrial workers are covered by such schemes, the number of which continues to grow year by year. Among those introduced in 1936 may be mentioned that of the United Steel Company with 20,000 workers and that of Imperial Chemical Industries with 43,000.

Greece. — The application of the General Social Insurance Act of 1934 was prepared by the Managing Board of the Central Insurance Institution, which under the Act is to administer sickness, accident, invalidity, old-age and survivors' insurance for all persons covered by the scheme. The Social Insurance Council, which has to ratify the rules for the application of the Act, was

appointed, but although the rules have already been drawn up, the application of the Act is still in suspense and will probably only be carried out gradually, beginning with the more important towns.

Meanwhile, the Government extended the scope of several social insurance bodies instituted under previous legislation. It also set up, under that legislation, new funds for certain categories of workers. It appears from a statement made by the head of the Government in November 1936 that the general insurance scheme which was introduced by the Act of 1934 and was to take over the existing funds, will cover only such persons as are not affiliated to one of the occupational schemes already in operation.

The financial results of these schemes for 1935 are surveyed in the *Greek Statistical Year-Book* published in June 1936. Membership increased from 209,000 in 1934 to 244,200 in 1935, and income from 1,000 million drachmas to 1,100 million. Expenditure, which amounted to 500 million drachmas in 1934, rose to 693 million in 1935. At the end of 1935 the assets of the occupational funds stood at 3,400 million drachmas as compared with 3,000 million at the end of 1934.

In order that independent workers with small means may be protected by social insurance, the Government has helped to organise an insurance fund for craftsmen and small traders. This fund, which covers the risks of invalidity, old-age and death, already has a membership of more than 40,000 insured persons though it has only been in existence for a few months.

Hungary. — The highly centralised organisation of compulsory insurance for industrial and commercial workers has proved effective. The National Social Insurance Institution covers the risks of industrial accidents and invalidity, old-age and death, while sickness and maternity benefits are paid by the Institution's local organisations, the departmental and the works funds.

Statistics for the two sickness and maternity sections of the National Institution (general section and domestic servants' section) show an increase in the yearly average number of insured persons in 1936 as compared with 1935. The minimum monthly average total for the two sections was 666,000 in January, while the maximum was 775,000 in November, an increase of 8.3 and 5.5 per cent. respectively as compared with the corresponding months in 1935. These figures do not include the various special sickness and maternity schemes established for salaried employees in industry and commerce, miners, railwaymen, and workers employed by the tobacco monopoly and in inland navigation. There was likewise an increase in the number of persons insured under the invalidity, old-age and survivors' insurance scheme for workers in industry and commerce and the pension scheme for salaried employees in industry and commerce.

An Order issued by the Minister of the Interior on 4 February 1936 lays down rules for the preventive and curative activities of the

National Social Insurance Institution. These activities are intended to supplement and intensify the treatment and care to which insured persons and their families are entitled under the sickness insurance scheme.

The purpose of the preventive measures is to forestall or at least to postpone premature invalidity among insured persons and among the members of their families who might claim a pension if the head of the family died. Preventive measures are, in the first place, to be taken against the social diseases which are common among the wage-earning population covered by compulsory insurance. The preventive activities of the Institution are designed to maintain the physical and mental ability and to improve the health of insured persons and their families. They include: systematic supervision of health conditions; the education of the masses in matters concerning health; eugenic protection; assistance for children and young persons; social and sanitary aid; regular medical examinations; and various facilities for vocational retraining.

Curative assistance is granted either on the initiative of the Institution or at the request of the person concerned or his family. It includes hospital treatment, general and specialised medical assistance, pharmaceutical aid, residence in the country, and convalescent and fresh-air cures. Assistance is preferably granted in the form of hospital treatment in a curative establishment or sanatorium.

The cost of preventive and curative treatment is covered by a special fund, the resources of which are provided by appropriations from invalidity, old-age and survivors' insurance contributions. The budget of the fund contains special items for preventive and curative treatment respectively. The amount available for curative treatment is divided among the departmental funds in proportion to the number of persons insured during the previous year.

Under the Act of 23 December 1936 a special compulsory invalidity, old-age and survivors' scheme was instituted for non-manual workers in large and medium-sized agricultural undertakings, the same protection being afforded as to salaried employees in industry and commerce.

In virtue of this Act, salaried employees in agriculture are divided into 9 salary classes. The weekly contributions for each of these classes (72 to 360 pengös) are to be shared equally between the insured person and the employer. The State contribution will be fixed each year in the budget. After 20 half-yearly contributions have been paid, insured persons are entitled to old-age pensions at the age of 65 (this can be altered to 60 years at the discretion of the Ministry of Agriculture) and to invalidity pensions (for incapacity of not less than $66\frac{2}{3}$ per cent.). The pension consists of a basic amount of 120 pengös a year and a variable sum equal to 19 per cent. of the contributions paid, together with an allowance for children (at the rate of 5 per cent. of the pension in respect of each child, if there are 3 or more). At the death of the pensioner or the insured person who has completed the necessary number

of contributions, his widow is entitled to a pension equal to half the pension to which he was or would have been entitled; this pension is increased by a supplement for each child (30 per cent. of the widow's pension but not exceeding 100 per cent. in all). The pension for an orphan having lost both parents is 60 per cent. of the widow's pension which would have been due to his mother but the total for orphans in one family may not amount to more than 200 per cent. altogether. Insurance is administered by the National Agricultural Insurance Institution.

In the course of the year small traders and craftsmen on several occasions urged the introduction of compulsory old-age insurance financed by supplementary contributions from the members of the Chambers of commerce and crafts. During the negotiations opened in this connection it was proposed that old-age insurance for independent workers should be administered by a special section of the Industrial and Commercial Employees' Insurance Institution.

Iceland. — On 1 February 1936 an Act was promulgated to amend and consolidate the provisions concerning social insurance schemes and to set up a Central Insurance Institute with a separate section for each scheme.

As regards workmen's compensation for accidents, the Act, in substance, merely confirms the existing legislation covering seamen, dockers, and every category of worker employed in towns.

Under the new provisions concerning sickness insurance, all persons domiciled in a commune where there is a sickness fund must become members of that fund, but only members with an annual income of less than 4,500 crowns are entitled to benefit. A sickness fund must be set up in every urban centre and in rural communes where the majority of the electors vote for these measures. Rural funds are to refund 75 per cent. of medical and pharmaceutical expenses and the full cost of hospital treatment. Urban funds are also required to pay daily cash benefit to sick persons or family allowances. The State and the communes pay the funds subsidies amounting to 50 per cent. of total contributions, subject to a maximum of 9 crowns a year per insured person.

The Act confirms the old-age insurance scheme which has been in existence since 1909 and in virtue of which there is in each commune a pension fund receiving contributions from all inhabitants between 18 and 60 years of age and a subsidy from the public authorities. These funds pay pensions to persons over the age of 60 who are in need and are considered to be deserving by the communal authorities. The Act provides, however, that a Pension Fund shall be set up, which shall eventually pay pensions to persons of not less than 75 years of age and persons suffering from permanent incapacity for work. All citizens of Iceland between the ages of 16 and 67 are required to pay into this Fund a yearly contribution of 5 to 7 crowns plus an amount equal to 1 per cent. of their taxable income. The Fund will take over the assets of

the existing pension funds for civil servants and teachers and of the communal old-age pension funds as soon as these cease to operate. The communal funds will remain in operation until the Pension Fund is ready to begin paying benefits. The date when this will take place and the rate of benefit are to be fixed by subsequent legislation.

Iraq. — The Labour Act of 25 April 1936 embodies a chapter on workmen's compensation. These provisions, which have the same scope as the rest of the Act, apply to persons employed in manufacture, mining, building, and transport, and cover the risks of occupational disease as well as of accident. Compensation in case of death or permanent total incapacity takes the form of a lump sum and is equal to two years' wages. The worker receives an allowance at a maximum rate of half wages for a period not exceeding two years in case of permanent partial incapacity or one year in case of temporary incapacity. The employer is liable also for the cost of medical treatment. Insurance on the part of the employer is optional. Foreign workers and likewise their dependants are entitled, irrespective of place of residence, to compensation on the same terms as 'Iraqi workers if the State of which they are nationals has ratified the Equality of Treatment (Accident Compensation) Convention.

Irish Free State. — In virtue of an Act passed earlier in the year, the administration of the national health insurance scheme was, in July 1936, handed over to a committee of management representative of all the interests concerned, in succession to the provisional committee which had been in charge during the transitional period of unification. The new committee consists of a chairman, three trustees, and three employers' representatives, all appointed by the Minister for Local Government and Public Health, three members appointed by the Trade Union Congress, and five insured persons' representatives elected by a council nominated by the local authorities.

The last valuation of the assets and liabilities of the 65 approved societies which administered health insurance until the end of 1933 revealed a deficiency of £46,000. As a result of unification, which has been accompanied by more efficient supervision of claims, it is expected that the financial position of the scheme will steadily improve.

The Widows' and Orphans' Pension Act, 1935, which was described in the last issue of the *Year-Book*¹, came into operation in January 1936, when some 6,000 non-contributory pensions were immediately granted; by the end of the year the number of beneficiaries of contributory and non-contributory pensions was about 28,000. The Government has announced its intention of reducing the minimum age for the award of a non-contributory widow's

¹ Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1935-36*, pp. 245-246.

pension from 60 to 55 years in the case of childless widows, and of raising from 14 to 16 years the age of the children in respect of whom allowances or pensions are payable.

Italy. — The reform of the compulsory accident insurance scheme for industry and commerce which was described in the last issue of the *Year-Book*¹ came into force on 1 April 1937. The average number of insured persons increased from 2,853,865 in 1934 to 3,150,825 in 1935, the total amount of contributions collected rising from 280.49 million lire to 348.92 million lire.

A Decree of 17 September 1936 set up the Fascist National Federation of Mutual Aid Funds for Accidents in Agriculture; it is called upon to co-ordinate the activities of 18 mutual aid funds and to draw up general instructions for their management. The total contributions received under the agricultural insurance scheme rose from 73.29 million lire at the end of 1935 to 73.85 million at the end of 1936.

As forecast in the *Year-Book* for 1935-1936, compulsory insurance against tuberculosis was extended to tenant farmers and share farmers. A Royal Decree of 16 March 1936 provides that benefits in kind shall be granted under this scheme not only to tenant farmers and share farmers, but to all members of their families, including wives, children, brothers and sisters under the age of 15, and relatives in the ascending line. The rate of contribution is fixed at 12 lire a year and is payable in respect not only of the insured farmer himself but of every member of his family over the age of 12, the contribution being shared equally by the farmer and his landlord.

Compulsory maternity insurance was likewise extended to workers in agriculture. A Legislative Decree of 7 August 1936 makes insurance compulsory for all women between 15 and 50 years of age who are gainfully employed in agriculture and for women belonging to the families of share farmers and tenant farmers. The rate of contribution is fixed at 7 lire a year, 5 lire of which are payable by the employer. Women who have paid contributions for two years before childbirth are entitled, in that event, to an allowance of 100 lire (75 lire in the event of an abortion occurring spontaneously or artificially produced for therapeutic reasons), 40 lire of which are paid out of a State subsidy. As a result of this extension, the number of women covered by maternity insurance was estimated to increase by about 600,000.

As regards sickness insurance, mention should be made of an agreement concluded on 1 July 1936 by the Fascist Confederation of Italian Industry and the Fascist Confederation of Industrial Workers, setting up a sickness insurance scheme for salaried employees in industrial, handicraft or co-operative undertakings. In principle, the scheme is administered by inter-occupational provincial funds with headquarters at the office of the union of

¹ Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1935-36*, pp. 247-248.

industrial workers in the province concerned. Each fund is managed by a board consisting of 6 or 8 members, half of whom are appointed by the Fascist provincial association of manufacturers and the other half by the Fascist provincial union of industrial workers. The chairman of the fund is one of the directors appointed by the association of manufacturers, while the managing director is chosen among the workers' representatives on the board. The resources of the fund are derived from contributions payable in equal shares by the employer and the employee, the rate being fixed at a flat rate of 1 per cent. of the monthly salary. The benefits include medical, surgical and pharmaceutical aid for not more than four months in respect of each sickness, and hospital treatment, the cost of which is met by the fund in full up to an amount of 500 lire and thereafter at a rate not exceeding 50 per cent. Funeral benefit not exceeding 400 lire is also granted.

The administration of the sickness scheme for dockers was reorganised. The National Federation of Fascist Dockers' Unions decided to amalgamate all the existing dockers' sickness funds in a National Dockers' Sickness Fund. The six inter-provincial sickness funds were wound up on 31 May 1936. The management of the new Fund was provisionally entrusted to the National Welfare Institute for Land and River Transport Workers.

The number of undertakings affiliated to the National Sickness Fund for Commercial Employees rose from 110,467 at the end of 1934 to 118,841 at the end of 1935, there being no change in the total amount of contributions, which was about 34.7 million lire in 1934. The number of insured persons fell from 253,733 at the end of 1934 to 249,454 at the end of 1935.

A Royal Decree of 24 May 1936 approved the rules of the Relief Fund of the Fascist National Trade Union of Fine Arts. Membership of the Fund is open to all persons who apply and who satisfy the conditions required for membership of the inter-provincial trade unions of fine arts. Members join initially for a period of three years. If a member does not resign at least three months before the expiry of this period, his membership is tacitly renewed for a further period of three years. The Fund is administered by a managing committee, consisting of the secretary of the Fascist National Trade Union of Fine Arts as chairman, four representatives of that Trade Union, a representative of the Fascist Confederation of Artists and Professional Workers, and a representative of the Ministry of Corporations. The financial resources of the Fund are derived from contributions, the rate of which is fixed annually by the managing committee, and from a percentage levied on the price of admission to State museums, galleries, and monuments. The purpose of the Fund is to assist artists who are in want owing to incapacity for work, old-age, ill-health, family circumstances or any other cause. Assistance is granted in the form of subsidies, allowances, annuities, payment of the cost of curative treatment and medicines, and in any other form compatible with the financial resources of the Fund. Right

to benefit is acquired after a qualifying period of not less than six months. Annuities may be granted only to insured persons who have reached 60 years of age and are necessitous.

Japan. — Such proposals as were made with regard to social insurance aimed chiefly at extending sickness insurance to those sections of the population which are not covered by the compulsory sickness insurance scheme at present applying to a proportion of the industrial wage earners.

A draft Bill was prepared by the Bureau of Social Affairs, providing for the extension of sickness insurance to all salaried employees earning less than 1,800 yen a year. This would be achieved, not by enlarging the scope of the present scheme, but by instituting a special system for salaried employees, which would be financially and administratively independent of the workers' scheme.

Part of the economy secured by lowering the rate of interest paid on savings deposits was used in the 1937 budget to provide credits for a general sickness insurance system and for an anti-tuberculosis campaign. An estimate of 591,000 yen was included for the institutions which are to study methods of instituting a general sickness insurance scheme to provide medical benefit for farmers, craftsmen, and wage earners not at present covered by the compulsory scheme. The budget also includes an estimate of 4,531,000 yen for an anti-tuberculosis campaign.

According to figures for the year ending 31 March 1935, the financial position of the scheme under which a proportion of the industrial wage earners have, since 1926, been insured against sickness continued to be excellent. The number of insured persons rose from 2 million at 31 March 1934 to about 2.3 million at 31 March 1935, and although there was a substantial rise in the benefits claimed, expenditure having increased to .35 million yen during the financial year as compared with 31 million for the preceding year, the surplus receipts amounted to 6 million yen.

Voluntary group life insurance, administered by the Japanese Group Insurance Company¹, an institution which is not run for profit, has made great strides since it was reorganised in 1935. The number of insured persons rose from about 24,000 at the end of March 1935 to 167,000 at 15 October 1936. The average guaranteed capital per insured person is 410 yen, payable only at death in the large majority of cases (98 per cent. of the insured persons). In the case of rather more than half the insured persons (86,300 out of a total of 167,000), the insurance premium is payable jointly by the employer and the worker, but in the remaining 78,200 cases it is payable by the employer alone. Only a very small number of the insured pay the whole premium.

¹ Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1934-1935*, p. 235.

Latvia. — The Bill to reorganise social insurance and amalgamate various insurance schemes¹ has not yet been passed. Meanwhile, attempts are being made to improve the financial position of the sickness funds. It appears from information published in 1936 in the official sickness insurance bulletin that there was a surplus of 600,000 lats in the accounts of the funds for the first eleven months of 1935, as compared with a deficit in 1933 and 1934. Further, the number of insured persons, which at the end of 1933 was about 154,000, was estimated at 186,000 at the end of 1936. A Decree issued on 22 December 1936 provided that the Federation of Latvian Sickness Funds and the Association of Sickness Funds in Riga should be amalgamated.

Lithuania. — The workmen's compensation scheme instituted in 1903 was replaced, under the Act of 30 April 1936, by compulsory accident insurance for workers in industrial undertakings proper, forestry, building and certain transport undertakings. Insurance is voluntary for agricultural workers. The resources of the Accident Insurance Fund are derived from contributions payable by the employers. Victims of industrial accidents are entitled to cash benefit and to benefits in kind, including medical aid, medicines, surgical appliances, and other requisites. The cash benefit payable in the event of temporary incapacity amounts to two-thirds of the normal wage. In the event of permanent total incapacity, a pension is payable at the rate of 70 per cent. of the normal wage, a corresponding proportion of the full pension being due for permanent partial incapacity. In the event of a fatal accident, near relatives are entitled to pensions the total of which may not exceed three-quarters of the deceased's normal wage.

Luxemburg. — A Grand Ducal Order of 22 August 1936 extended the accident insurance scheme so as to cover accidents occurring on the insured person's way to and from his home or the place where he usually takes his meals. The same rule applies if the insured person goes from one place to another when authorised by the employer to interrupt his work, unless the purpose of the journey is strictly personal.

Another Grand Ducal Order of 30 May 1936 established a procedure of conciliation and arbitration in the dealings of insurance institutions not only with doctors, dentists, and midwives, but also with chemists and other persons supplying social insurance requirements. The Order provides that collective contracts concluded by sufficiently representative organisations shall be binding on all practitioners or traders in the district of that organisation. No contract to which the new provisions are applicable is valid until approved by a conciliation and arbitration committee consisting of a Government official and representatives of the interested parties. Failing an agreement as to the terms of the contracts to

¹ Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1935-36*, pp. 275-276.

be established, this committee may give an award which, if approved by the Government, binds the parties in the same way as a freely negotiated contract approved by the Committee. The Order further makes provision for an arbitration board to deal with disputes in regard to the application of duly approved contracts.

Mexico. — A Social Insurance Bill ¹ was introduced in Congress and was due to be discussed at the session which opened in September 1936.

A parliamentary group announced its intention of laying before Congress a Bill to establish a system of compulsory social insurance. This Bill would amend the present Labour Act, and is said to be based on proposals put forward by several workers' organisations.

Netherlands. — On 1 January 1936 an Act providing for reorganisation of old age and invalidity pensions for miners came into force. Previously miners were insured with the Miners' Fund under a special scheme and exempted from insurance under the general compulsory pension scheme as long as they were employed as miners. The mining industry thus did not benefit by the State subsidy granted to cover the deficit incurred in the early years of insurance (in respect of the first insured generation). The miners' scheme for insurance against old age, invalidity and death, contributory both for workers and for employers, granted old-age pensions at 60 years of age instead of 65, the pensionable age under the general scheme, and invalidity pensions in case of occupational incapacity. On the other hand, workers employed alternately in mining and in other employment were insured under two systems. If they had previously been insured in other employment under the general scheme, they remained covered by it while employed in mining, but no contributions were payable by the employer to the State Insurance Bank administering the general scheme. When a miner left mining employment, he ceased to be exempted, and the Miners' Fund had to pay a reserve value to the State Insurance Bank.

According to the new provisions the miners' pension scheme now completes the general scheme. Miners are insured under the general scheme while remaining members of the Miners' Fund, with the exception of those members who have never been insured under the general scheme. The Fund takes over the employer's obligations in respect of the members who are insured under that scheme, and pays contributions to the State Insurance Bank. The State now pays a special subsidy to the Miners' Fund towards the cost of insurance of those miners who joined the Fund when it was established.

The upward trend in the number of beneficiaries under the general pension scheme is still continuing; 52,003 persons were in receipt of invalidity pensions on 1 November 1936 as compared

¹ Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1935-36*, p. 250.

with 49,385 in the previous year, and the corresponding figures for other beneficiaries were 117,050 and 113,179 old-age pensioners; 34,653 and 31,450 widows, and 13,910 and 13,809 orphans in receipt of pensions.

Statistics of sickness insurance available for the year 1934 show fairly favourable results; the total wages sum insured diminished by 4½ million gulden only, as compared with 69 million in 1933 and 223 million in 1932. The number of claims granted for sickness benefit was approximately 14 per cent. lower, but the average number of days of sickness per case was higher than in 1933, the net result being a slight reduction of the amounts paid in benefit.

The compulsory sickness insurance scheme does not provide for benefits in kind, workers being left to obtain medical treatment by insuring with one of the numerous sickness funds carrying on voluntary insurance. As far back as 1920 a Bill was introduced proposing to make the recognition of sickness funds subject to statutory requirements and to introduce State supervision. The Bill was repeatedly amended and then again shelved, but was now re-introduced in an amended form. Representatives of labour and insured persons contended that the amended Bill made too many concessions to the medical profession, since it prescribed an income limit for admission to insurance, free choice of doctor, and extensive representation of doctors on the executive committees of the funds. On the other hand, no State subsidy is to be granted. In view of these objections the Bill was again withdrawn.

A reorganisation of the administration of accident insurance in industry and commerce is proposed in a Bill providing for the participation of joint associations formed voluntarily by central organisations of employers and of workers, on much the same lines as under the sickness insurance scheme. At present accident insurance in industry is administered solely by the State Insurance Bank, though the employer may transfer the risk to an insurance company. Under the agricultural accident insurance scheme the Bank and trade associations, and under the sickness insurance scheme, the Bank and the labour councils' and trade associations' sickness funds, are on the same footing as insurance carriers.

New Zealand. — The Labour Government is pursuing an active policy of social assistance and insurance. Thus it has pledged itself to introduce a Health Insurance Bill during the next session of Parliament. As will be remembered, a Government Committee had enquired into the possibilities of national insurance in 1935 and had come to a positive conclusion. During the year under review a questionnaire was submitted to all parties concerned, asking for their opinion on all important problems involved in health insurance.

Pending the introduction of health insurance, pension insurance, and unemployment insurance, and a general revision of workmen's compensation law, measures were taken to extend and improve

the non-contributory pension scheme and to amend the workmen's compensation scheme on certain important points.

The main feature of the pension reform is the introduction of invalidity pensions for persons of 16 years or over who are permanently incapacitated for work. They are now entitled to £1 a week plus 10 shillings for a dependent wife and 10 shillings for each dependent child. Amendments to the pension scheme include the extension of pension rights to all naturalised British subjects, also Asiatics, who had previously been excluded; the granting of miners' pensions to miners suffering from occupational diseases other than pneumoconiosis or from heart disease; the re-introduction of permanent pensions to widows of such miners; widows' pensions to deserted wives; more liberal qualifying conditions with regard to residence, income and property; and substantial increases in pension rates. Old-age pensions are raised by £13 a year to a maximum of £58 10s. with an income limit of £110 10s.; widows' pensions are augmented by 10 shillings to £1 a week, plus 10 shillings for each dependent child.

The number of pensions is still rapidly increasing. Old-age pensioners numbered 43,309 on 31 March 1936 as compared with 40,141 in 1935, 22,905 in 1926, and 11,285 in 1900. In 1936, 2.8 per cent. of the European population were in receipt of old-age pensions. Costs rose by approximately £200,000, from £1.5 million in the previous financial year to £1.7 million in the last financial year or to £1 3s. per head of the European population. In January 1937 the number of old-age pensions was 52,015, and their annual value was £2,975,000.

Workmen's compensation, as is generally admitted, is in need of a thorough revision. Employers are still individually liable for the payment of compensation and are not bound to insure; their liability for pension payments is limited to six years and may be redeemed by a lump-sum payment agreed upon by the parties. Usually, the employer insures with a private company, and it appears that not infrequently insurance companies bring pressure to bear on the worker to accept a lump sum in place of weekly payments by stopping these payments. As a first step towards the prevention of such abuses, the circumstances in which weekly payments may be terminated were specified by law, and independent medical committees were established as boards of reference. Moreover, the scope of the scheme was extended to cover share farmers and, subject to a minimum period of employment, all casual workers not employed for the employers' trade or business, who were formerly included only if employed in specific hazardous occupations. Maximum benefits were increased. A full working week's earnings at the time of the accident was substituted for average earnings during the year preceding the accident for the computation of compensation, in order to exclude the effect of periods of unemployment. Further, compensation claims are now given priority to the same extent as wages in case of bankruptcy of the employer.

Norway. — Important reforms were brought about during 1936 in the field of social insurance and assistance.

The Act of 16 July 1936 instituted a general scheme of non-contributory old-age pensions immediately applicable to Norwegian citizens over 70 years of age who fulfil the requirements of the Act. The scheme is administered by the Ministry of Social Affairs, local administration being assigned to the old-age pension committees established in each commune. One-half of the cost of pensions is to be defrayed by the State, one-eighth by the pensioner's commune of residence, and the remaining three-eighths by an Old-Age Pension Fund maintained from the proceeds of a special tax of 1 per cent. on taxable income of not less than 800 kroner in urban and 600 kroner in rural communes.

A pension will be payable, from the age of 70, to every Norwegian citizen whose income does not exceed certain limits and who has lived in Norway for not less than one-half of the period between his sixteenth birthday and the date of his application for a pension. The right to pension is further subject to certain moral conditions, but not to the payment of any minimum contribution to the Old-Age Pension Fund. The rate of pension is fixed for each commune by the Minister of Social Affairs, the minimum being 480 kroner a year in urban and 360 kroner in rural communes. These rates are increased by at least 50 per cent. for married persons. It is estimated that during the first few years of application the yearly cost of the scheme will be 40 million kroner. The number of persons over 70 years of age is at present 160,000; it is estimated to have increased by 40 per cent. in 1960 and to be about 290,000 in 1990.

Pending the introduction of general invalidity insurance legislation, the Storting passed a provisional Act granting non-contributory pensions to the blind and to certain categories of crippled persons. Pensions are payable to the blind from the age of 19 and to crippled persons from the age of 18, if the economic position of the claimant appears to justify the grant. The rate of pension is usually 480 kroner a year in urban and 360 kroner in rural communes.

An Act of 10 July 1936 made sickness insurance compulsory for the crews of foreign-going vessels. As a result of this measure, sickness insurance is now compulsory for workers in every occupation, the number of persons covered by the scheme being increased by some 25,000. A further increase of about 20,000 was obtained by raising the maximum wage limit for liability to insurance from 4,500 kroner to 6,000 kroner, this decision being taken by the Government on the proposal of the Committee on Social Affairs of the Storting.

Preparatory work for the introduction of a general invalidity insurance scheme is being actively pursued¹. The Committee which is responsible for these studies submitted an interim report in 1936, proposing that invalidity insurance should be connected

¹ Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1934-35*, p. 241, and *1935-36*, p. 257.

with sickness insurance and the latter made applicable to the whole population. The general meeting of the National Federation of Sickness Funds, held at Bergen in July 1936, adopted a resolution recommending that legislation should be introduced on these lines.

Palestine. — A Bill to amend the workmen's compensation scheme in Palestine was published in 1936, but the amendments proposed are not exclusively in the sense of an improvement.

The present scheme covers workers in specified industries. Insurance is not compulsory for the employer. Benefits in case of death consist of a lump-sum payment and, in case of incapacity, of weekly payments, which may, however, be commuted for a lump sum on application by the employer after six months. Cases not settled by agreement are settled by arbitration proceedings.

The proposed improvements consist in extending the scheme to non-manual workers employed by the Government of Palestine; providing compensation for specified industrial diseases; reinforcing penal provisions in case of failure to pay compensation; and increasing weekly payments from 50 to 66 $\frac{2}{3}$ per cent. of average weekly earnings.

On the other hand, serious restrictions are proposed. The payment of weekly pensions would be limited to a period of five years, whereas at present payments are continued as long as incapacity continues. Where, in case of permanent incapacity, a lump sum is paid in redemption of weekly payments, it would be made such an amount as would purchase an annuity for five years instead of a life annuity as at present; but the sum would be based upon the full amount, instead of 75 per cent., of the annual value of the weekly payment. These restrictions would evidently affect, in the first place, young workers who are permanently incapacitated, for they would not receive a pension for more than five years and the sum would not represent more than a five years' annuity.

Panama. — The Pensions Office submitted a memorandum to the Government urging that the scope of the public servants' old-age insurance scheme, which was introduced in 1935¹, should be extended to cover the teaching and administrative staffs under the Department of Education. Teachers in primary schools would be entitled to a pension, irrespective of age, after 20 years' service. The Office also suggested that the scheme should be extended to other groups of teaching staff, the pensionable age being fixed at 60.

Peru. — The Social Insurance Act passed by Congress was approved by the President of the Republic on 12 August 1936 (Decree No. 8433).

The Act makes provision for sickness, maternity, invalidity,

¹ Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1935-36*, p. 259.

old-age and survivors' insurance. It applies to workers under 60 years of age whose annual earnings do not exceed 3,000 gold soles and to persons working for their own account whose annual income does not exceed the same amount. In the event of sickness, insured persons who have paid four weekly contributions in the course of the 120 days preceding sickness, are entitled to medical and pharmaceutical aid, hospital treatment, and cash benefit equal to 50 per cent. of wages. Maternity benefit includes medical and obstetrical aid, daily cash benefit equal to 50 per cent. of wages for 36 days before and 36 days after confinement, and a nursing allowance equal to 25 per cent. of wages. The rate of invalidity pension varies between 40 and 60 per cent. of the average wage, according to the time spent in insurance. The qualifying period is 200 contribution weeks; 100 of these contributions must have been paid during the four years preceding the claim. The old-age pension is calculated in the same way as the invalidity pension and is payable to insured persons of over 60 years of age who have paid 1,040 weekly contributions. In case of death, surviving dependants are entitled to a funeral allowance, and to a lump sum equal to one third of the average yearly wages of the deceased.

As soon as the Act was promulgated, administrative regulations were issued and a credit was granted to the National Social Insurance Fund, to cover the initial cost of establishment. The representatives of the insured persons and of the employers on the governing body of the Fund were appointed by a Decree of 24 December 1936. The Fund is conducting an active campaign with a view to making social insurance popular.

Contributions were to have been payable as from 1 September 1936, but collection was repeatedly postponed. Finally, the date was fixed at 1 March 1937 by a Decree of 30 November 1936.

Meanwhile the Directorate of Social Welfare prepared draft administrative regulations providing that insurance benefits shall be payable six months after the date fixed for the collection of contributions.

The sickness, invalidity and survivors' insurance scheme for teachers in public educational establishments was reorganised. The administration of the scheme is assigned to an executive committee consisting of 12 members of the Teachers' Mutual Aid Association. The financial resources are derived from entrance fees, monthly contributions graded with reference to the seven salary classes, and a percentage of examination fees. The surviving dependants of insured persons who have died are entitled to a lump sum varying between 5,000 and 8,000 soles according to deceased's salary class. From 1 January 1939 onwards, the insurance institution will pay 50 per cent. of the cost of hospital treatment for insured persons. If the financial situation permits, an invalidity pension equal to two-thirds of the beneficiary's last salary, but not exceeding 150 soles, will be payable to insured persons suffering from total incapacity.

Poland. — The administrative reorganisation which was decided on in 1934 may be considered as having been completed. The Central Social Insurance Institute covers the risks of invalidity, old age, and death and industrial accidents. Sickness and maternity insurance is assigned to territorial funds, one for each district. These funds pay sickness and maternity benefits and collect contributions in respect of all risks.

The territorial funds were able to close their accounts for 1935 without a deficit. The average number of insured persons rose in the course of the year to 1,679,000 (excluding Upper Silesia), a considerable increase as compared with 1934. In 1935 the average number of persons, excluding agricultural workers, insured against industrial accidents was 1,890,000, while the average number of workers insured against invalidity, old age, and death was 1,385,000 (again excluding Upper Silesia). The numbers continued to increase throughout 1936, and the monthly maximum, recorded in September, from 5 to 6 per cent. higher, according to the scheme considered, than the monthly maximum for 1935.

By a Legislative Decree of 14 January 1936, contributions to invalidity, old-age and survivors' insurance for industrial and commercial workers were reduced by 1 per cent. of the insured wage, while a reduction of 1.5 per cent. of salary was made in the rate of contribution to invalidity, old-age and survivors' insurance for non-manual workers. This reduction, which is a temporary measure, is to apply until 31 December 1937. A temporary reduction was likewise made, by Decree dated 24 January 1936, in the accident insurance contributions. The sickness and maternity rate remains the same, so that the total contribution payable by an industrial or commercial worker in 1937 amounted to 9.2 per cent. of the actual remuneration, while the rate for a non-manual worker was 11.1 per cent., not including the accident insurance premium.

The medical service of the sickness insurance scheme was reorganised, all the curative and preventive measures to be taken on behalf of the insured persons and members of their family residing in a given area being concentrated in the hands of a single practitioner, described as the family doctor. This practitioner attends the insured persons either at their homes or in his consulting-room and is further responsible for supervising their working and housing conditions. A service of visiting nurses is to be organised in each medical district under the responsibility of the family doctor, the duties of the nurses being to supervise sanitary conditions in the insured persons' homes and to indicate such preventive measures as may be necessary.

To complete the reorganisation of the sickness insurance medical service, a Medical Council was set up at the Central Social Insurance Institute by a Decree of the Minister of Social Welfare issued on 23 December 1936. Important advisory functions are assigned to the Council, which is responsible for recommending the curative and preventive measures to be adopted by the medical service of the

sickness insurance scheme in dealing with social diseases and for the protection of mothers and infants. The Council is also to supervise the training of insurance doctors in social medicine, to which end it is to have its own research and experimental centre. The Council includes representatives of the medical faculties, medical officers attached to social insurance funds, practitioners with expert knowledge of social medicine, and representatives of the national administrative authorities concerned.

Portugal. — By an Act of 27 July 1936 the laws relating to workmen's compensation, the earliest of which dates from 1913, were recast and brought into harmony with the present social organisation of Portugal.

All persons who normally work in a dependent position are given a right to compensation at the hands of their employers in case of accident or disease arising in the course of their employment. Compensation for permanent incapacity or death is paid in the form of pensions, which may be as much as two-thirds of wages. A special organisation is established for the purpose of restoring the working capacity of injured workers. Payment of compensation is secured by insurance, by the deposit of caution money, or by proof of ability to carry the risk. The guilds of employers may arrange with insurance companies to cover the liability of their employer members. Trade unions are made liable for the payment of compensation to their members who work in gangs for different employers; for this purpose they are empowered to collect the corresponding premiums from the employers concerned and to enter into arrangements with insurance companies to cover their liability.

The establishment of corporative insurance funds, covering the risks of sickness, invalidity and old age, proceeds methodically. Each collective agreement which is concluded between the guild and the trade union of an industry provides for the creation of an insurance fund fed by a joint contribution, usually at the rate of 10 per cent. of wages.

Rumania. — Normal progress is being made in applying the Social Insurance Act of 1933, which co-ordinated sickness, maternity, invalidity and old-age, and accident insurance throughout the country. As a result of the unification achieved by the Act, the number of insured persons rose from 605,000 to 759,000 between 1930 and 1935; the average number recorded in 1936 was 851,000 (excluding the insured persons' families); an increase of 12 per cent. as compared with the previous year. The budget of the Central Social Insurance Fund is expanding in consequence of the rise in the number of persons insured. In 1936 the receipts of the Fund amounted to 1,059 million lei and expenditure to 851 million lei. The Fund has nevertheless experienced some difficulty owing to the fact that the State subsidy of 100 million lei for 1936 was not paid within the prescribed period.

Spain. — Among the measures taken before the events of July 1936, reference should be made to the important Occupational Diseases Act of 13 July 1936, which is mentioned in a preceding chapter.¹ In case of occupational diseases involving permanent (total or partial) or temporary incapacity, workers employed in undertakings belonging to the industries enumerated in the Act are entitled to the benefits prescribed under the accident insurance scheme; if such a disease causes death, the worker's dependants have the same rights as the dependants of a person killed in an industrial accident. The owners of the undertakings concerned are obliged to insure their workers against the risks of permanent incapacity (total or partial) and death due to occupational disease. Foreign nationals are granted equality of treatment with Spaniards as regards benefits under this Act if they have resided in Spain for at least three years, or at once if their country of origin has granted reciprocal rights to Spanish nationals.

The authority responsible for social insurance (formerly the Ministry of Labour, Health, and Justice) is now called the Ministry of Labour, Hygiene and Welfare, the administration of justice having been transferred to a separate Ministry by a Decree of 19 February 1936. This change created a close connection between questions of labour, public health, and social insurance, and emphasised the Government's intention to secure close collaboration between public health services and social insurance institutions; the study of a plan to this effect was referred to an advisory committee for problems common to public health and social insurance.

The scheme for the unification of social insurance, prepared by the National Provident Institution and providing for compulsory sickness and invalidity insurance, was published on 25 May 1936, and the bodies concerned were asked to communicate their views.

Sweden. — The Government, being of the opinion that the improvements introduced in the national invalidity and old-age insurance scheme by the Act of 18 January 1935² did not go far enough, submitted, in 1936, a new Bill repeating certain provisions which had previously been rejected by the Riksdag. Under the Act of 1935 the fixed bonus payable in certain circumstances by the State and the communes in respect of each old-age or invalidity pension had been set at 250 kronor. The Bill introduced in 1936 provided that the bonus should vary with the cost of living in the commune where the beneficiary resided, being fixed at 250, 350 or 450 kronor a year. The opposition with which this proposal met in the Riksdag was one of the main reasons for the resignation of the Social-Democratic cabinet in June.

The new Social-Democratic and Agrarian cabinet, formed in September 1936 after the general election, retained the improvement of the invalidity and old-age pension scheme in its programme.

¹ See above, Chapter II, under "Industrial Medicine".

² Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1935-36*, pp. 264-265.

At the beginning of the 1937 session, the Government introduced a Bill to increase the pension bonus payable to beneficiaries resident in localities where the cost of living was high. This Bill was passed through the Riksdag on 14 April 1937.

Switzerland. — The position of the compulsory accident insurance scheme for salaried employees and workers in industry, crafts, transport and navigation continued to be satisfactory. According to the report of the National Accident Insurance Fund for 1935, 44,511 undertakings were insured in that year as compared with 44,343 in 1934. There was a slight decrease in the amount of contributions collected in 1935, the total being 46.3 million francs as compared with 49.1 million in 1934; income from investments was unchanged at 16 million francs. The number of accidents notified in 1935 was 157,691 as against 175,126 in 1934. Expenditure in respect of benefits likewise decreased, from 46 million francs in 1934 to 43.7 million in 1935. The accounts for 1935 closed with a surplus of 2.2 million francs as compared with 1.5 million in 1934, the capital cover amounting to 321 million francs at the end of 1935.

The number of persons insured by the approved sickness funds is steadily increasing and is close on 2 million, including children covered by the compulsory school insurance introduced in several cantons. Since 1924 the approved funds have received, in addition to the ordinary subsidy from the public authorities, an extraordinary Federal subsidy amounting to 1 million francs a year. In 1934, the last year for which complete figures are available, the income of the approved funds amounted to 85.3 million francs and the expenditure to 79.1 million francs. The insured persons' contributions brought in 61.1 million francs and the Federal subsidies 10.5 million francs; 43 million francs, or more than half the total expenditure, went to medical and pharmaceutical aid.

The supplementary tuberculosis insurance scheme instituted by the Federal Act of 13 June 1928 continues to operate satisfactorily. The number of persons insured by the eight institutions carrying on such insurance rose from 476,000 in 1934 to 674,000 in 1935. The total expenditure amounted to 1 million francs in 1934, one-fifth of this amount being covered by Federal subsidies.

The amendment of the sickness insurance provisions of the Federal Act of 13 June 1911 concerning sickness and accident insurance is under discussion. The object of the proposed reform is to arrest the steady increase in medical and pharmaceutical expenses. In its Message of 23 October 1936 concerning the maintenance of the extraordinary subsidy paid to approved sickness funds, the Federal Council mentioned by way of example the trend of expenditure on medical treatment in several funds, more especially in the " Helvetia " Fund, which has members in every canton. The expenditure of this fund on medical attendance per insured adult, which amounted to 20.85 francs in 1925, rapidly increased to 35.06 francs in 1930 and 38.24 francs in 1935. Pending

revision, the Federal Council decided on 22 June 1936 that the approved sickness funds should be asked to include a provision in their rules making it compulsory for insured persons to share in medical expenses to the extent of not less than 10 per cent. nor more than 25 per cent. This decision does not create an entirely new situation, since about half the 1,160 approved funds, covering nearly 60 per cent. of all insured persons, have for many years required members to share the cost of medical benefit.

Other problems which are likely to be discussed when the Act is amended include the facilities that will enable insured persons with small incomes to receive medical aid on more favourable terms than insured persons with larger incomes, and the related problem of the scaling of the Federal subsidy according to the financial means of the insured persons so as to give more substantial assistance to those with small incomes. The subsidy is at present fixed at a uniform rate for each category of insured persons.

Turkey. — The important Act of 8 January concerning the organisation of work in undertakings and establishments regularly employing not less than 10 workers lays down the principle that workers should receive social protection in the event of industrial accidents and occupational diseases, maternity, old age, unemployment, sickness, and death. Such protection is to be organised by the State in the form of a social insurance scheme administered by a Central Workers' Insurance Institute, which is to be set up not later than 8 January 1938.

The Act provides that accident insurance and maternity insurance shall be introduced first; Bills are to be submitted to the National Assembly not later than December 1937. The Bills are being drafted by the competent Government departments.

Union of South Africa. — In 1936 a non-contributory pension scheme for the blind was introduced in the Union. Under an Act promulgated on 7 April 1936 every blind person of white or Cape coloured race is entitled to a compensation if he has reached the age of 19 and his yearly income does not exceed a certain maximum (£64 for white people and £48 for coloured people). Aliens who have been resident in the Union for at least ten years in the course of the fifteen years preceding their claim have the same rights as nationals. The amount of the compensation is to be fixed in each case by a special Commissioner at the level he thinks reasonable, but at not more than £36 for white people and £24 for coloured people. An appeal lies from the Commissioner's decision to the Minister of Labour.

In virtue of an Amendment to the Workmen's Compensation Act of 1934, insurance is no longer compulsory for gold diggers. The same amendment lays down rules concerning the security to be deposited by employers who do not insure, and modifies some of the rates of incapacity assigned to various injuries.

The introduction of compulsory sickness and maternity insurance is still being considered by the Committee of Enquiry which the Government of the Union set up for this purpose. It would appear from a discussion which took place at a Congress of the Medical Association of South Africa, held in the summer of 1936, that the majority of the organised medical profession is in favour of compulsory insurance. The Congress gave its Federal Council full power to act in this matter on behalf of the medical profession. The Council was invited by the Committee of Enquiry to communicate its views on the capitation fee and on the question of specialist services. In its reply the Council suggested that insured persons should be divided into two groups, for the lower of which the capitation fee should be 9 shillings and for the higher 13 shillings. The Council further suggested that specialist services should be included in the scheme. Being unable to estimate the cost of such specialist services, it proposed that a pool should be established, into which 25 per cent. of the total amount of capitation fees would be paid, and that this pool should be devoted to the remuneration of specialists.

United States. — The flow of benefits under the Social Security Act began in 1936, for in February the Federal Government paid the first subsidies to the States possessing approved non-contributory pension schemes for the aged and the blind and for fatherless children. Four and a half million dollars were then distributed among 20 States in respect of 16 schemes for the aged, 11 schemes for the blind, and 12 schemes for dependent children. Additional States continued to qualify throughout the year, having brought the standards of their legislation and administration up to those prescribed in the Act. By the end of November, 43 States had qualified for subsidies, 23 of them for all three categories of schemes, and at that date the situation was as follows:

Type of scheme	Number of States qualified	Amount of subsidies (\$000's)	Number of beneficiaries (000's)
Old age	42	79,938	1,047
Blind	27	3,270	29
Children	27	9,587	338
		92,795	1,414

The effect of Federal aid has thus been to increase greatly the number of beneficiaries: the number of old-age pensioners more than doubled in the course of 1936. The average rate of pension, on the other hand, appears to have risen but slightly.

Meanwhile the Social Security Board has pressed forward in preparation for the application of the scheme of "Federal old-age benefits", viz. the pensions which will be payable out of Federal revenue to the industrial and commercial workers who, together with their employers, have contributed in the form of special wages taxes. These benefits, unlike the State non-contributory pensions,

are awarded irrespective of any conditions as to means, nationality or residence, and are proportional to the total earnings of the worker throughout his working life.

Though the first payments of "Federal old-age benefits" do not begin until 1942, the collection of the taxes from workers and their employers started already in January 1937. As soon as the elections were over, therefore, arrangements were put in operation for the registration of the 3½ million business concerns (5 million establishments) and their 26 million workpeople who are liable for the taxes.

The 45,000 post offices throughout the country distributed forms of application for registration to each establishment; from the particulars given on completed forms, they ascertained the number of workers in each establishment and distributed the corresponding number of application forms to the workers therein employed. The Social Security Board assigned to each business concern an identification number and to each worker an account number, the work of assigning the latter being delegated to 1,000 temporary offices set up for the purpose.

The initial rate of the taxes is 1 per cent. of wages from employer and worker alike. The employer deducts the worker's share from his wages, and pays the amount of the joint taxes monthly to the local collector of the Bureau of Internal Revenue. He is also to furnish quarterly a return bearing the identification number of the concern and the account number of the worker, and showing the wage paid to each individual. These returns will be transmitted to the Social Security Board. The latter, at a central office equipped with elaborate automatic machinery, will keep an account for each worker, showing the total of his wages, which determines the rate of the pension due to him on reaching the age of 65.

By the end of 1936 some 22 million workers, or 86 per cent. of the total number falling within the scope of the Federal old-age benefit scheme, had been duly registered. This satisfactory result must be attributed to the intensive educational campaign carried out by the Board and also to the co-operation of trade unions and employers' organisations.

The permanent administrative structure of the Federal old-age benefit scheme consists of a central record office at Baltimore, 12 regional offices and 108 local agencies or "field offices", of which 57 have already been established. The regional offices are intended also to facilitate co-operation between the States and the Board in regard to non-contributory pensions and unemployment insurance.

The Democratic and Republican Parties offered to the electors contrasting policies in the matter of social security: the former emphasised the contributory principle and the latter relied on the development of public assistance for the necessitous. This issue assumed great importance in the election campaign, and therefore the victory of the Democratic Party may be taken to indicate

that the public favours the contributory principle. The supporters of the Federal old-age benefit scheme have not claimed that it is perfect, but, whereas they wish to improve it constructively, the Republican Party would like to abolish it, while retaining the present non-contributory pensions for the necessitous aged.

The principal criticisms directed against the scheme are that it fails to cover agricultural, domestic and maritime workers, that the huge reserve fund contemplated under the scheme may tempt Congress into extravagance, that the tax on wages will increase unemployment, and that the worker cannot afford his share of the tax.

The Supreme Court of the United States has not yet had an opportunity of pronouncing on the constitutionality of the relevant provisions of the Social Security Act, and it is perhaps premature to formulate definite proposals for amendments of the Federal old-age benefit scheme.

Nevertheless, the Social Security Board is believed to have under consideration the institution of voluntary old-age insurance for the workers not at present covered, and its Chairman has pointed out that the reserve will not accumulate sufficiently to constitute a problem for some years, and that in the meantime the possibility of a change in the financial system which would limit the reserves to a moderate amount can be examined.

The American Federation of Labor, which has given strong support to the scheme, has declared itself in favour of the reduction, if not the repeal, of the worker's share of the tax on wages, and of the grant of a Federal subsidy to compensate the scheme for the consequent loss of income.

No provision is made in the Social Security Act for health insurance, but the Board, in the exercise of its functions of a research organisation, has begun a study of the question. The Executive Committee of the American Federation of Labor has recommended such a study with a view to the introduction of a scheme which would provide benefits both in cash and in kind.

Uruguay. — In the course of 1936 the attempt to stabilise and develop the compulsory invalidity, old-age and survivors' insurance schemes was continued by applying the existing legal provisions as strictly and as fully as possible. In 1933 and 1934 the compulsory scheme for persons employed in industry, commerce and public services had been radically altered in order to balance income and expenditure, mainly by reducing the latter. These measures were considerably mitigated in 1935, but during 1936 no substantial change in the legislation was made. The period of validity of the provisional regulations concerning temporary dismissal allowances was, however, extended by an Act of 3 January 1936.

An important change is contemplated in the application of the scheme. The Institution responsible for administering the Pensions Fund has prepared a draft Bill to substitute payment by stamps for the payment of contributions on the basis of payrolls. According

to the Bill each insured person would receive a booklet for recording payments effected for his account in respect of social insurance. Such payments would further be registered by affixing stamps to a contribution sheet, which, once it had been filled up, would be used to draw up the personal account of the worker concerned.

As regards industrial accidents, the Government submitted to Parliament a Bill which would definitely abolish the employer's obligation to insure, this obligation having already been suspended by an Act of July 1935¹. The Bill leaves the administration of voluntary accident insurance to the State Insurance Bank, thus restoring the scheme instituted in 1920 by the original Workmen's Compensation Act.

U.S.S.R. — The new Soviet Constitution of 5 December 1936 mentions among the fundamental rights of citizens that "of material security in old age as well as in the event of sickness and loss of working capacity". This right, says the Constitution, "is ensured by the wide development of social insurance of workers and employers at the expense of the State, free medical aid, and the provision of a wide network of curative establishments for the use of the toilers".

At the date when the Constitution was adopted, the Soviet system of social insurance covered 25.7 million wage earners. In 1936 the social insurance budget amounted to 8,380 million roubles, or 1,500 million roubles more than the total expenditure for 1935. Of these 8,380 million roubles, 36.6 per cent. were allotted to cash benefits, and 39.3 per cent. to benefits in kind (medical aid, child welfare, rest homes, sanatoria, feeding of sick persons, etc.), the balance of the estimated expenditure being devoted to the construction of workers' dwellings, hospitals, and day nurseries, the cultural needs of the insured population, administrative expenses, and labour inspection.

Insurance legislation was amended during the year with a view to improving maternity benefits, laying down more detailed rules concerning sick leave, and providing for the participation of insured persons in the cost of residence in rest homes.

A draft Order of 27 June 1936, submitted for the approval of the people, provides that the system of maternity hospitals, day nurseries and kindergartens shall be extended and that this shall be done out of the proceeds of a supplementary credit of 692.8 million roubles in addition to the 1,481.3 millions appropriated, under the plan for 1936, from the State budget, the local budgets and the social insurance budget for maternity and child welfare. The Order further provides that the layette allowance shall be raised from 32 to 48 roubles and the monthly nursing allowance from 5 to 10 roubles. Finally, it extends the period of maternity leave for women salaried employees to 56 days before and 56 days after confinement, whereas under previous legislation the period was

¹ Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1935-36*, p. 273.

42 days before and 42 days after for most salaried employees, only manual workers being entitled to 56 days' leave before and after.

Among other changes, mention should be made of an Order issued by the Executive of the General Council of Trade Unions on 8 September 1936, fixing a limit of 10 days to the period of sick leave which may be granted by the doctors attending the case and providing that any extension must be approved by the chief medical officer or by a special committee. The same Order increases the penalties for irregular issue or use of sickness certificates. It further provides that 75 per cent. of the amount saved on the budget for temporary incapacity benefits shall be allotted to works committees and local trade union committees for the improvement of living conditions and medical aid for workers and salaried employees, the remaining 25 per cent. being allotted to central trade union committees for the same purpose. Since 1 October 1936 insured persons have had to bear 20 per cent. of the cost of residence in rest homes.

The General Council of Trade Unions has on several occasions drawn the attention of the occupational organisations responsible for administering insurance to the necessity for strengthening their financial regulations. The Council also pointed out that an effective improvement in the work of the trade unions as regards social insurance could only be brought about by appealing for the collaboration of the mass of workers and salaried employees, beginning with the insurance delegates (workers selected to assist in the management of insurance). By the Order of 8 September 1936 the Executive of the General Council requested the works committees to increase the number of insurance delegates. In order to stimulate the activity of these delegates, a prize fund of 2 million roubles was placed at the disposal of the General Council.

It was reported in the press that several works committees had formed insurance boards to establish closer touch with the insured population and consisting of the more active insurance delegates, labour inspectors elected by the workers, "Stakhanovists", representatives of hospitals, kindergartens, etc., medical practitioners, delegates appointed by women's groups, engineers and technical experts, and representatives of the management of undertakings. Finally an important reform of the financing of insurance was introduced by a Decree of 23 March 1937. Trade unions are freed from the obligation of allotting sums out of the social insurance budget for medical assistance for insured persons, the construction of workers' dwellings, and old-age, invalidity and survivor's pensions. The whole of this expenditure, which in 1936 took up nearly half the resources of the insurance fund, is to be a charge on the State budget and the local budgets. The award and payment of pensions, with the exception of pensions for persons still engaged in remunerated employment, will be the duty of the commissariats of social assistance, with which the trade unions will be required to co-operate extensively. This reform radically changed the system of calculation of the contri-

butions, which continue to be borne exclusively by the undertaking. The rates of contribution, which were formerly fixed according to the risks incurred at between 15.7 and 21.6 per cent. of wages (or on a lower scale, between 9 and 13.7 per cent. for special classes of undertakings), are from 1 July 1937 onwards to be fixed separately for each union or group of unions, and to vary between 3.8 and 10.7 per cent. of the pay of the insured persons.

Venezuela. — The Labour Act promulgated on 16 June 1936 regulates workmen's compensation and lays down the basis for a compulsory insurance scheme. Under previous legislation workmen's compensation only applied in undertakings employing more than 25 workers a day on an average. The new Act abolished this restriction and applies to all undertakings and business and to all establishments, irrespective of the number of workers, other than agricultural undertakings which normally employ less than 5 workers and do not use engines. Casual workers, home workers, and members of the employer's family are exempted. The Act of 1936 did not provide for any change in the rate of cash benefit; the compensation for permanent total incapacity or death is a lump sum equal to two years' wages but not exceeding 15,000 bolivars, and that for temporary total incapacity is equal to six months' wages. The circle of beneficiaries was enlarged in the case of survivors' benefit.

As regards the compulsory insurance scheme, which is to be instituted, the Act merely lays down general principles, leaving the Government free to issue regulations when the necessary technical studies have been completed. Compulsory insurance is to cover industrial accidents and occupational diseases, maternity, invalidity, old age, and death. Occupational risks will be covered by employers alone, while non-occupational risks will be covered by contributions from insured persons, their employers, and the State.

Yugoslavia. — The number of persons insured by the Central Workers' Insurance Institution, which covers the risks of sickness, maternity, and accidents for persons employed in industry and commerce increased considerably. In 1936 the largest monthly average recorded by the Central Institution was 651,600 in September, and the smallest 548,300 in January, an increase of 8.3 and 8.5 per cent. respectively, as compared with the figures for 1935. The trend of the annual average clearly reflects the influence of the depression, followed by that of the business recovery, on social insurance, the figures being 629,700 in 1930, 520,700 in 1933, 564,300 in 1935, and 614,500 in 1936. A less favourable feature is that the average insured wage was still very low. The daily wage per insured person, which amounted to 26.50 dinars in 1930, was only 21.66 dinars in 1935, though a slight improvement occurred in 1936. In virtue of the powers conferred on him by the Finance Act 1936-37, the Minister for Social Welfare and Public Health

fixed 1 September 1937 as the date for the coming into force of the compulsory invalidity, old-age and survivors' insurance schemes for workers in industry and commerce. The general Act on workers' insurance of 1932 had provided for these risks being covered, but up till now only the schemes for sickness and maternity and for workmen's compensation have been put into operation. The Minister's decision, contained in an Order of 12 March 1937, completes the insurance protection of more than 600,000 wage earners. Workers who by reason of their advanced age are not able to complete the number of contributions necessary for a pension will be placed under a transitional scheme of allowances.

The miners' insurance scheme has been consolidated by the establishment of a Central Re-insurance Fund, which has been in operation since 1 June 1935. Regulations promulgated on 20 January 1937 by the Minister of Forestry and Mining reorganised the procedure for electing members of the mining funds' autonomous bodies. All members, irrespective of sex, have a right to vote and are eligible by secret and direct ballot. Candidates may be nominated either individually by the members or by miners' organisations representing not less than one-tenth of the miners employed in the undertaking.

BILATERAL TREATIES

The network of bilateral social insurance treaties was extended by an important treaty signed by Czechoslovakia and Yugoslavia on 14 December 1936.

The contracting States agreed in this Treaty on a better definition of the scope of their social insurance legislation and established the principle of equality of treatment for their respective nationals in the country of the other State. They also made provision for the maintenance of the rights of insured persons and pensioners who pass from one country to the other, and arranged for administrative and judicial collaboration in social insurance matters.

The Treaty, which makes due allowance for the stage of development reached in the social insurance legislation of the two countries, covers industrial accident and sickness insurance as well as invalidity, old-age and widows' and orphans' insurance for workers and salaried employees, and miners' insurance.

The sickness and pension insurance schemes for inland navigation workers are also covered.

Special attention may be called to the arrangement made between the salaried employees' invalidity, old-age and widows' and orphans' insurance schemes and between the miners' insurance schemes in the two countries for the maintenance of rights in course of acquisition by workers who insure successively in the two contracting States. Contribution periods and assimilated periods completed in the same branch of insurance in the two countries are added together, the payment of those benefit components which are fixed independently of the contribution period being divided between the

institutions of the two countries in proportion to the time passed in insurance with each institution as compared with the total of the periods counted for the purpose of reckoning benefits. For pension purposes, the territory of the other country is no longer regarded as foreign territory. The condition of residence imposed on pensioners is abolished, and the latter no longer require the authorisation of the insurance institution in order to draw a pension when residing in the territory of the other contracting country.

The final protocol states that the maintenance of rights in course of acquisition for workers who have or will have insured successively in either of the contracting States will be extended to workers' invalidity, old-age and widows' and orphans' insurance as soon as this branch of insurance comes into operation in Yugoslavia. It is also stipulated that as soon as both countries have ratified the Maintenance of Migrants' Pension Rights Convention (Geneva, 1935), the provisions of the Convention which are more favourable to the insured persons from the point of view of time limits will take the place of the corresponding provisions of the Treaty.

The Treaty comes into force on the first day of the month following that in which the instruments of ratification are exchanged.

INTERNATIONAL COLLABORATION

Meeting of Experts on the Evaluation of Permanent Incapacity for Purposes of Social Insurance

The evaluation of permanent incapacity is a matter which affects the compensation claims of millions of persons injured as a result of industrial accidents. The correct definition of invalidity giving the right to benefit and the judicious choice of methods of evaluation are decisive factors in the rational operation of accident compensation and invalidity insurance schemes. The problems raised by the evaluation of permanent incapacity are many and troublesome, particularly in countries where social insurance is being introduced or is a recent innovation.

As a result of numerous requests from Government departments and national insurance institutions, the International Labour Office held a meeting in Geneva from 16 to 20 November 1936 which brought together a number of experts having the technical, administrative and medical knowledge necessary for a study of questions connected with the evaluation of permanent incapacity for the purposes of social insurance.

The meeting was attended by the following persons:

Representatives of the Governing Body of the International Labour Office: Mr. Niilo A. Mannio (Government group); Mr. H. C. Oersted (employers' group); Mr. Tom Moore (workers' group).

Experts invited by the Office: Mr. A. Bohren (Switzerland); Dr. F. Decourt (International Medical Association); Dr. T. Dyboski

(Poland); Dr. R. C. Elmslie (Great Britain); Mr. M. Enesco (Rumania); Mr. J. Gallas (Czechoslovakia); Mr. P. Holck (Denmark); Mr. A. Jauniaux (Belgium); Mr. A. Kayser (Luxemburg); Mr. R. Kerber (Austria); Mr. B. Kovrig (Hungary); Mr. Lange (France); Mr. J. F. Malherbe (Union of South Africa); Mr. T. Nagase (Japan); Mr. C. d'Oliveira (Brazil); Dr. P. W. L. Penris (Netherlands); Mr. Perez-Lavin (Chile); Dr. Piédelièvre (France).

The debates were presided over by Dr. Dyboski, Director of the Social Insurance Department of the Polish Ministry of Social Assistance.

After exchanging views and comparing experiences, the experts drew up a number of guiding principles for the evaluation of permanent incapacity.

They defined the fundamental conceptions on which incapacity due to an accident or illness may be based, i.e. physical invalidity, occupational invalidity, general incapacity for work, and for each of the three defined the possibility of applying the definition in accident compensation and invalidity insurance schemes. They then studied the various methods of evaluation of incapacity and questions connected with the preparation and use of incapacity schedules.

The meeting also considered the principles to be followed in the establishment of the minimum degree of incapacity giving the right to cash benefit under workmen's compensation, accident insurance, and invalidity insurance, and drew up a number of rules regarding the composition of institutions responsible for evaluating incapacity, with special reference to the participation of workers' and employers' delegates, and the assistance which medical practitioners with the necessary special competence may be called upon to give to these institutions.

With the consent of the Governing Body, the Office has brought the conclusions adopted by the experts to the notice of Governments. The full text of these conclusions is being included in the technical study entitled *The Evaluation of Physical Incapacity for Work in Social Insurance* (Studies and Reports, Series M (Social Insurance) No. 14).

Committee on Social Charges

The Committee held its Sixth Session on 23 April 1936, when it examined the monographs to be included in Volume II of the second edition of the *International Survey of Social Services*. These monographs deal with the organisation and working of social services in the following nineteen countries: Argentina, Austria, Brazil, Czechoslovakia, Denmark, Estonia, Greece, Hungary, Latvia, Luxemburg, Mexico, New Zealand, Poland, Portugal, Rumania, Spain, Switzerland, Uruguay, Yugoslavia.

On the recommendation of the Committee, the Governing Body authorised the publication of the study, which appeared in the autumn of 1936.

The two volumes which form the second edition describe the working of the social services of 38 different countries.

International Conference of Social Insurance and Mutual Aid

This Conference held its seventh general meeting in Prague from 28 to 30 September 1936 at the General Pension Institute.

The Conference includes 32 national federations of mutual aid societies and sickness insurance funds and 8 central social insurance institutions in sixteen different countries. Its aim is to co-ordinate and intensify the measures taken for the protection, promotion and development of social insurance.

The Conference was presided over by Mr. Léon Heller, Chairman of the National Federation of French Mutual Aid Funds. Various reports were considered.

Social insurance from an international standpoint. — On the basis of a report submitted by the chairman, the Conference studied the position of social insurance in the various countries. During the debate reference was made to the lessons learnt from the experience acquired during recent years: better protection of insured persons affected by unemployment, lowering of the pensionable age, observance of the principle of independent management of insurance institutions.

The general resolution on social insurance adopted by the Conference noted that the economic depression had shown the necessity for compulsory social insurance, which was to-day universally recognised as the most rational and efficient method of protecting the workers and their families against the vicissitudes of life. It maintained that in every country the national economic authorities should place at the disposal of the social insurance institutions the resources necessary to enable them to cope with the inevitable increase in expenditure resulting from the depression and its social consequences.

The resolution further pointed out that the pensionable age was generally fixed at 65 and rarely at 60 years, although large numbers of workers became unable to find or retain employment long before that age. It therefore requested Governments and Parliaments to lower the pensionable age and enable elderly workers to enjoy well-earned repose and young workers to obtain employment.

In the same resolution, the Conference urged affiliated federations and institutions to use their influence to persuade the authorities in their respective countries to ratify the international social insurance Conventions, since those Conventions laid down minimum standards of social protection which could and ought to be attained at once by all national laws.

Insurance funds and measures against tuberculosis. — On the proposal of Dr. Babecki, Medical Inspector of the Central Social Insurance Institute of Poland, the Conference adopted a number

of conclusions relating to the part which the social insurance fund should take in anti-tuberculosis campaigns.

These conclusions pointed out that of all social diseases tuberculosis was the most widespread as a cause of temporary incapacity and permanent invalidity. Closely bound up as it was with social conditions, tuberculosis could be fought successfully only by united efforts on the part of public health services, insurance institutions, and other anti-tuberculosis associations.

The treatment of tuberculosis without efficient preventive measures of a general character could have no visible effect on the frequency of the disease, and therefore combined action by the medical and social authorities was essential.

In conclusion, special emphasis was laid on the importance of social insurance as a weapon against tuberculosis, and attention was called to the various conditions which have to be observed in the campaign against the scourge.

Economy in medical prescriptions. — Another report, presented by Mr. Otto Schmid, Vice-President of the Federation of Swiss Sickness Funds, declared that as a rule every sickness insurance system should combine the greatest therapeutical efficacy with the strictest economy, by the application of treatment most likely in the given case to restore the insured persons' working capacity in the shortest possible time. The choice of treatment should not be decided by its cost but by its real efficacy. The practitioner should be free to apply any remedy or method of treatment which, in the circumstances, he considers to be the best calculated to remove the cause of illness and to eliminate its effects. Long experience acquired in a number of countries showed that efficacy and economy were perfectly reconcilable and that it was possible to provide economical treatment without in any way infringing the legitimate rights of the insured persons.

Mr. Schmid also defined the spirit in which the rules for economical prescribing should be drafted, if possible, in agreement with the medical and pharmaceutical professions. He suggested a number of measures to prevent any excessive rise in the cost of the necessary medicaments and the too frequent use of costly pharmaceutical specialities which had not been sufficiently tested in clinical practice.

Social and economic functions of insurance funds. — The Conference was also called upon to discuss a report on the social and economic functions of insurance funds, which was submitted by Mr. Spalowsky, Chairman of the Austrian Federation of Workers' Sickness Insurance Funds.

The report analysed the functions devolving upon insurance funds in connection with compensation, cure, and prevention, and defined the nature of benefits in kind, temporary allowances, and pensions. Sums invested in social insurance in the form of employers' and workers' contributions and State subsidies were of immediate benefit to the national economy. From an economic

point of view, the employers' contributions formed an integral part of the cost of production, while State subsidies replaced other expenditure which would have to be met out of national resources in the absence of a social insurance system.

New problems of invalidity and old-age insurance. — A report submitted to the Conference by Professor E. Schoenbaum, Director of the General Pension Institution of Czechoslovakia, threw considerable light on some of the new problems facing invalidity and old-age insurance: necessity of contributing towards a reduction in rates of interest in order to facilitate economic recovery, but without any sacrifice of the financial stability of insurance; adaptation of the benefit system to the profound changes that have taken place in the age distribution of the population as a result of the steady fall in the birth rate and the longer expectation of life; protective measures for insured persons of advanced age who remain unemployed even after an economic recovery, and who are neither incapacitated nor old enough to qualify for an old-age pension.

In conclusion, it was decided to extend and increase the work of the Conference in the field of invalidity and old-age insurance. In future, membership of the Conference will be open, not only to sickness insurance institutions, but to national unions of funds dealing with invalidity, old-age and widows' and orphans' insurance, and to national funds and institutions covering one or more of these risks.

The Executive Committee of the Conference elected as President Mr. V. Němeček, Senator and Chairman of the General Union of Czechoslovak Sickness Funds.

Congress of Social Insurance Experts

Following on a meeting held at Budapest in May 1935¹, a congress of experts on social insurance questions took place at Dresden at the beginning of September 1936, which discussed various problems connected with the working of insurance institutions. The reports submitted to the congress expressed the personal views of the writers and were not binding on the insurance institutions or administrative departments to which they belonged.

The first question on the agenda—international relations in the field of social insurance—was dealt with in two reports, submitted by Mr. J. J. A. Bakker (Netherlands) and Mr. Sasorski (Poland) respectively.

Mr. Bakker's report drew attention to the need of granting foreign workers equality of treatment with national workers as regards liability to insurance and the system of contributions and benefits. It stated that national laws and regulations should be supplemented by international regulations securing the maintenance of rights in

¹ Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1935-36*, p. 281.

course of acquisition and acquired rights for workers who change the country of their occupation or residence. In Mr. Bakker's opinion the full application of the international social insurance Conventions adopted by the International Labour Organisation would lead to equality of treatment for foreign and national workers in regard to social insurance and will contribute considerably towards improving international relations.

Mr. Sarorski's report examined the restrictions imposed under certain national laws and regulations on insured persons and pensioners of foreign nationality. These various restrictions, it was held, should be removed and replaced by the principle of equality of treatment for all insured persons irrespective of nationality. The national laws and regulations should be brought closer together and should as far as possible adopt uniform methods. Bilateral treaties and international Conventions on social insurance questions would promote such uniformity. The international Conventions adopted by the International Labour Organisation had already yielded appreciable results.

The congress next heard two reports, submitted by Mr. Steinbach (Austria) and Mr. Clerici (Italy), on the need of popularising social insurance. According to the first of these reports the efficiency of insurance legislation depends very largely on the understanding it meets with among insured persons and their employers. Insurance institutions should try to make the persons concerned acquainted with the object of the administrative measures needed for the satisfactory working of insurance. They should also indicate the extent to which their activities must be limited in conformity with the small resources at their disposal. Mr. Clerici stressed the need for close collaboration between insurance institutions and the groups most directly interested in their working.

The curative and preventive action of social insurance medical services was dealt with in a report by Dr. Barla Szabo (Hungary), who drew attention to the insurance institutions' obligation to establish an economical organisation of medical and pharmaceutical benefit. He maintained that the experience gained in a number of countries had shown that efficiency and economy were quite compatible in this field. This report was supplemented by a communication from Mr. Missmahl (Germany), who gave a general survey of the curative and preventive measures adopted by social insurance institutions in Germany. These measures had formerly been in the hands of various funds, but were now entrusted in each territorial area to a single body, on which all the insurance institutions in the area collaborated. The co-ordination so obtained did much, among other things, to facilitate the campaign against social diseases.

The practical administration of social insurance institutions was discussed in reports submitted by Mr. Covrig and Mr. Szeibert (Hungary). Mr. Covrig analysed the methods to be adopted for rationalising the internal working of insurance institutions, while Mr. Szeibert demonstrated the improvements that could be made in the organisation of the granting of benefit, which must be as

expeditious as possible in order to meet the requirements of the insured persons.

No resolutions or formal decisions were adopted on these reports, since the sole object of the meeting was to exchange views and experience.

International Medical Association

At its eleventh annual meeting in Amsterdam in September 1936, the General Council of the International Medical Association discussed several questions of professional and social interest, such as the effects of sickness insurance on daily medical practice, hospital treatment in various countries, chambers of medicine and professional organisation, and first aid in case of accident.

Among the conclusions adopted reference may be made to those directly connected with the collaboration of the medical profession in the working of sickness insurance schemes covering large groups of workers.

These conclusions reaffirm the principles laid down in the International Medical Charter adopted by the Association in 1928 and revised in 1931: free choice of doctor by the patient, professional secrecy, no official status for medical practitioners but only for experts and supervisors under social insurance schemes, freedom of prescription subject to supervision for the prevention of abuse, etc. The precepts of the Charter were confirmed in the conclusions, which also expressed the wish that the collaboration of doctors in the working of social insurance should, if possible, be extended in every country to comprise all medical practitioners, each of them being free to collaborate or not.

The conclusions stated that sickness is individual, and that treatment must be so too. They therefore opposed the standardisation of treatment, while agreeing that measures for the promotion of public health and the prevention of sickness should be collective.

A report was submitted on the results of an enquiry undertaken among the affiliated national associations into hospital treatment in different countries. It gave rise to a discussion which brought out that the views with regard to hospital organisation held in different countries were at present too various to allow of drawing sufficiently definite conclusions in the international field for the establishment of an international hospital charter.

The Council concluded its work as usual with a discussion on the position of doctors under sickness insurance schemes in various countries. The statements made in this connection were reproduced in the official review of the International Medical Association.

INTERNATIONAL REGULATION

Protection of Seamen in Case of Sickness

During its Twenty-first (Maritime) Session (October 1936) the International Labour Conference made an important contribution

to the fulfilment of a long and exacting task of the highest interest to all maritime countries: the international regulation of social insurance for seamen. This contribution took the form of two draft Conventions, one dealing with the individual liability of the shipowner towards sick or injured seamen and the other with sickness insurance for seamen.

The obligation of the shipowner or his representative to assist sick or injured seamen during the voyage is a necessity inherent in the conditions of maritime work, and his liability towards sick or injured seamen is clearly laid down in the legislation of all maritime countries.

Any person employed on board a vessel, other than a ship of war, which is ordinarily engaged in maritime navigation must be able to rely on the shipowner's liability: such is the general rule adopted by the Conference, subject to certain exceptions. In view of the fact that the risk is one that must be borne by the shipowner, the draft Convention requires him to provide the sick or injured seaman with medical treatment and the supply of proper and sufficient medicines and therapeutical appliances, in addition to board and lodging. As long as the sick or injured seaman remains on board, the shipowner is liable to pay him full wages. After he is landed, the liability applies only to all or part of the wages in the case of seamen who have dependants. The shipowner remains liable until the sick or injured person has been cured or the sickness or incapacity has been declared of a permanent character. But national laws or regulations may limit this liability to a specified period, reckoned from the day of the injury or the commencement of the sickness, but not less than 16 weeks.

Further, national laws or regulations may provide that the liability of the shipowner shall cease from the time at which the sick or injured person becomes entitled to cash benefits under an insurance or compensation scheme or from the time at which he would have become entitled to benefit if he had been covered by the scheme. Having thus settled the connection between the shipowner's liability and existing schemes of insurance or compensation, the Conference completed the draft Convention on the liability of the shipowner by the adoption of provisions on the right of repatriation of seamen landed during the voyage in consequence of sickness or injury and the safeguarding of the property left on board by sick, injured or deceased seamen.

The second draft Convention, concerning sickness insurance for seamen, supplements the first. The sickness risks to which seamen are exposed are covered in the first place by the shipowner's liability. This liability is limited in time and does not apply in the case of sickness contracted otherwise than on the voyage. A seaman who continues to be ill after the shipowner's liability has expired or who is not covered by that liability for any reason must be protected by insurance.

On these grounds, the Conference laid down the rule that all persons employed on board ship must be compulsorily insured

against sickness, whether employed as master or member of the crew or otherwise in the service of the ship. The principal provisions of the draft Convention relate to the sickness benefit that should be paid during the first 26 weeks or 180 days of incapacity and the medical assistance due from the commencement of the illness and at least until the period prescribed for the grant of sickness benefit has expired. According to the draft Convention the right to benefit must be continued even in respect of sickness occurring during a definite period after the termination of the last engagement, this period being fixed to cover the normal interval between successive engagements. The Convention also contains provisions on the financial resources of the sickness insurance scheme, which should be administered by self-governing institutions with the participation of the persons concerned and under the supervision of the public authorities.

The two draft Conventions, while leaving national laws and regulations full discretion so far as is compatible with the object of the reform in question, contain a number of provisions for the improvement and extension, internationally, of the protection afforded to sick or injured seamen.

*Ratification and Approval of the Conventions and Recommendations adopted by the International Labour Conference*¹

Convention No. 17: Workmen's Compensation (Accidents), 1925

Austria. — Ratification registered on 21 August 1936.

Peru. — By Decree of 6 March 1936 the President of the Republic approved the Convention and submitted it to Congress for ratification.

Poland. — The Chamber and Senate adopted, on 28 March 1936 and 15 January 1937 respectively, a Bill for the ratification of the Convention.

U.S.S.R. — Submitted to the competent authorities.

Recommendation No. 22: Workmen's Compensation (Minimum Scale), 1925

Recommendation No. 23: Workmen's Compensation (Jurisdiction), 1925

Austria. — The Council of Ministers decided on 8 May 1936 to postpone provisionally the application of these Recommendations. In regard to the first, the state of national legislation is not such as to permit of complete application. In regard to the second, revision of the procedure governing disputed claims to benefit is contemplated.

U.S.S.R. — Submitted to the competent authorities.

Convention No. 19: Equality of Treatment (Accident Compensation), 1925

Greece. — Ratification registered on 30 May 1936.

Peru. — By Decree of 6 March 1936 the President of the Republic approved the Convention and submitted it to Congress for ratification.

U.S.S.R. — Submitted to the competent authorities.

¹ The information given here relates only to the period 16 March 1936-15 March 1937. See the tables at the end of the volume for the general situation as regards the Conventions concerning social insurance.

Convention No. 24: Sickness Insurance (Industry, etc.), 1927

Convention No. 25: Sickness Insurance (Agriculture), 1927

Mexico. — The Department of Labour is examining the question of ratification. A Social Insurance Bill is in preparation.

Peru. — By Decree of 6 March 1936 the President of the Republic approved the Convention and submitted it to Congress for ratification.

U.S.S.R. — Submitted to the competent authorities.

Convention No. 35: Old-Age Insurance (Industry, etc.), 1933

Convention No. 36: Old-Age Insurance (Agriculture), 1933

Convention No. 37: Invalidity Insurance (Industry, etc.), 1933

Convention No. 38: Invalidity Insurance (Agriculture), 1933

Convention No. 39: Survivors' Insurance (Industry, etc.), 1933

Convention No. 40: Survivors' Insurance (Agriculture), 1933

Great Britain. — Ratification registered on 18 July 1936.

Mexico. — The Department of Labour is examining the question of ratification. A Social Insurance Bill is in preparation.

Peru. — By Decree of 6 March 1936 the President of the Republic approved these Conventions and submitted them to Congress for ratification.

U.S.S.R. — Submitted to the competent authorities.

Yugoslavia. — Submitted to Parliament on 31 December 1936.

Recommendation No. 43: Invalidity, Old-Age and Survivors' Insurance, 1933

Communications to the Secretary-General of the
League of Nations

Great Britain. — The Government is not prepared at the present time to accept this Recommendation, which, if carried out in Great Britain, would require changes in the contributory pensions scheme involving heavy expenditure (23 June 1936).

Switzerland. — A scheme of invalidity, old-age and survivors' insurance, as outlined in Article 34 (4) of the Federal Constitution is impossible of realisation to-day because the necessary resources expected from the duties on alcohol are lacking, while those from the tobacco duty, which are also assigned to insurance purposes by the Constitution, have been diverted to budgetary requirements in accordance with Financial Programme No. I, of 13 October 1933, which is in force until 31 December 1937. In accordance with Financial Programme No. II, since the beginning of 1936 interest has ceased to be credited to the insurance fund, which, deriving its resources from the said receipts and the interest thereon, had risen to nearly 230 million francs in the period 1 January 1926 to 31 December 1933. Financial Programme No. I provides, however, that the Confederation shall draw 8 million francs annually from this fund "for the assistance of the necessitous aged, widows and orphans".

The divergence between the transitional assistance to the aged, widows and orphans and the provisions of the international labour Conventions remains as described in the report submitted by the Federal Council on 29 June 1934 to the Federal Assembly. If the work of assistance is continued, it will not depart substantially from the principles governing it to-day. Thus, as in the past, no one will have a right to benefit. Even if the regulations are partially amended, benefit will continue to be fixed according to the discretion of the cantonal authorities or of the offices to which they entrust the granting of assistance.

Switzerland must therefore maintain its reserved attitude as regards the Recommendation (23 December 1936).

Other Information

U.S.S.R. — Submitted to the competent authorities.

Yugoslavia. — Submitted to Parliament on 31 December 1935.

Convention No. 48: Maintenance of Migrants' Pension Rights, 1935

Austria. — The Federal Government decided on 4 December 1936 that for the time being it would not open the procedure required by the Constitution for the ratification of the Convention. Austria was in no way opposed to the conclusion of international Conventions dealing with social insurance and had even set an example in this sphere by concluding reciprocity treaties with Czechoslovakia, Germany, and Yugoslavia. Before proceeding to ratification, however, it was thought desirable to adapt the treaties concluded with these countries to the provisions of the Convention and to wait until the immigration countries which Austria had to take into account had decided on their attitude on the question.

Brazil. — Submitted to the National Congress by a message from the President of the Republic on 27 October 1936.

Canada. — Referred to the Department of Justice with a view to determining whether the subject-matter involved is within Dominion or provisional competence.

China. — The Legislative Yuan decided on 8 January 1937 to postpone ratification of the Convention.

Cuba. — Submitted to the Senate for approval.

Finland. — In a proposal submitted to Parliament on 12 March 1937, the Government expressed the opinion that this Convention could not be ratified for the present.

France. — When the Government submitted this Convention to the Chamber of Deputies on 13 August 1936 it stated that ratification was of special importance for a country of immigration such as France. Before submitting to Parliament a Bill for the ratification of the Convention it proposed to make a full enquiry with the various social insurance organisations concerned.

Great Britain. — The Government decided not to ratify the Convention. Owing to the distinctive features of the scheme of pension insurance in the United Kingdom as contrasted with the schemes in force in other countries, the arrangements set forth in the Convention were not necessary for the protection of immigrant workers into Great Britain, who became entitled equally with British subjects to the full pension after a short waiting period of insurable employment. The provisions of the Convention could not be applied without fundamental alterations of the British insurance scheme and of its method of administration.

Hungary. — The Chamber of Deputies, on 3 March 1937, passed a Bill to give the force of law to the Convention.

India. — The Legislative Assembly adopted on 26 January 1937 a resolution recommending the Governor-General in Council not to ratify the Convention.

Iraq. — The Council of Ministers decided in favour of organising a maintenance scheme under the supervision of a departmental commission. No action will be taken in the matter until the scheme under consideration has assumed its final form.

Japan. — Submitted to the Privy Council on 19 December 1936.

Latvia. — Submitted to the Council of Ministers on 21 December 1936.

Mexico. — The Department of Labour is examining the question of ratification of the Convention. A Social Insurance Bill is in preparation.

Netherlands. — An Act reserving to the Crown the right to ratify the Convention was promulgated on 21 November 1936. Ratification of the Convention involves amendment of the Invalidity Act.

New Zealand. — Submitted to the House of Representatives on 11 September 1936 and to the Legislative Council on 17 September 1936.

Siam. — The competent authorities considered that under the existing conditions of labour in the country the application of the Convention was not yet necessary in Siam, and consequently did not feel it appropriate to take any action in the matter at the present time.

Switzerland. — In a report submitted on 20 April 1936 to the Federal Assembly the Federal Council recalled the reasons which had prevented Switzerland from ratifying the Old-Age, Invalidity and Survivors' Insurance Conventions (1933). Since it was impossible to introduce at present in Switzerland insurance legislation in the industries in question which would correspond to the standards of the international Conventions it pointed out that the country was not in a position to give the undertaking required by Article 17 of the Maintenance of Migrants' Pension Rights Convention. In the present state of Federal legislation, and in view of the uncertainty which existed as to its development, the Federal Council considered that the Convention should not be ratified for the present, although ratification was in itself desirable. The competent authorities, however, would have to keep in touch with foreign legislation and its provisions relating to the payment of benefits to foreigners in order to protect to the utmost the interests of Swiss nationals and their surviving dependants. It would also be desirable, where necessary, to conclude bilateral agreements with various States, if such agreements were found to be needed and could be carried out, in order to counteract certain provisions in foreign legislation which might be unfavourable to Swiss nationals.

The Federal Assembly approved these conclusions on 17 and 19 June 1936.

Turkey. — Submitted to the Grand National Assembly.

Union of South Africa. — Laid on the table of the House of Assembly on 21 April 1936 and of the Senate on 27 May 1936.

United States of America. — Submitted by the President to Congress on 18 June 1936.

U.S.S.R. — Submitted to the competent authorities.

CONCLUSIONS

Social insurance is again making progress.

The hard lessons of the years of depression have been learnt. It is now generally admitted that progress in the material sphere cannot be achieved without a system of social security that provides for the fair distribution of purchasing power and protects workers and their families against the vicissitudes of life. Any programme for economic recovery and prosperity runs the risk of failure if it does not include a soundly conceived social plan. Countries which formerly objected to the idea of social insurance have paid too dearly for their lack of foresight not to desire a rational form of social organisation, both preventive and protective. The need for social insurance is universally recognised. The principle of collective protection is winning the day as against improvident fatalism and is imprinting its stamp on a new and genuine industrial civilisation.

In 1936 the process of consolidation, referred to in previous issues of the *Year-Book*, was continued and progress was achieved in the field of social insurance. Besides being a period of new and extended legislation, the year was also one of substantial improvements and new plans and Bills.

New and extended legislation. — Taken altogether, the new and extended legislation adopted during the year forms an impressive whole. All the continents contributed their share.

In the field of workmen's compensation, new schemes may be mentioned in *Egypt* for industrial and commercial workers; in *Estonia* for agricultural workers; in *Iraq* for industrial workers; and in *Lithuania* for industrial and transport workers, who are now covered by compulsory accident insurance. Among the measures of consolidation, there were in *Australia* the increase of benefits in Queensland and Victoria; in *Canada* the new facilities granted to the victims of accidents; in *France* the improvement of benefits in consequence of a substantial extension of the system of supplementary allowances; in *New Zealand* the widening of the scope of the compensation scheme and the increase in rates of benefits; and in *Portugal* the general recasting of the legislation.

Even more numerous were the measures adopted with regard to other than occupational risks: in *Argentina* the introduction of maternity insurance; in *Australia* the increase of the rates of non-contributory invalidity and old-age pensions; in *Belgium* the restoration of the original rates of old-age pensions by the repeal of the cuts introduced during the years of depression; in *Canada* the introduction of compulsory sickness insurance in Alberta and British Columbia and of non-contributory old-age pensions in New Brunswick and Quebec; in *Colombia* the creation of a savings system involving compulsory payments by workers and employers as a forerunner for a compulsory insurance scheme; in *Écuador* the application of sickness and maternity insurance for workers in all occupations; in *Finland*, the passing of a Bill on national old-age and invalidity insurance.

Other important measures that may be noted were in *Czechoslovakia* the recasting of the miners' pension insurance scheme; in *France*, in the general social insurance scheme, the raising of the income limit for purposes of determining liability and of the maximum remuneration taken into account for the calculation of contributions and cash benefit; in *Hungary*, the setting up of a system of compulsory old-age and invalidity insurance for salaried employees in agriculture; in *Italy* the extension of maternity insurance to women workers in agriculture and of tuberculosis insurance to tenant farmers and share farmers; in *New Zealand* the substantial increase in non-contributory invalidity and old-age pensions; and in *Peru* the introduction of compulsory sickness and maternity insurance and invalidity and old-age insurance; in *Yugoslavia* the fixing for 1 September 1937 of the coming into force of the old age and invalidity insurance scheme for workers in industry and commerce. To complete this rapid sketch it may

be mentioned that at the beginning of 1937 the contributions payable under the *French* general insurance scheme were restored to the figure of 8 per cent. of wages, and that at the same time in the *United States* the payments for financing contributory old-age pensions became due under the Social Security Act, which covers 26,000,000 workers.

Other improvements. — Insurance institutions form an integral part of the economic system of a country, from which they derive their resources and which in turn benefits by the increased and better distribution of producing and consuming capacity that result from insurance. The working of insurance schemes is facilitated by the increased volume of industrial production and the revival of trade. The improvements that have in fact taken place as a consequence of economic recovery, without need for legislative action, are many and various.

The contributing membership of insurance funds has ceased to decline, thus putting an end to the falling-off in the income from insured persons' and employers' contributions. In several countries the curves showing the seasonal fluctuations in the membership of sickness insurance funds were steeper in 1936 than in the two preceding years; and in some countries, where the position was particularly favourable, the maximum reached in the summer months approached those of 1930 and 1931. The more normal economic conditions have clearly had a favourable influence on insurance membership.

The diminution of unemployment, by its effects on the membership of insurance funds, implies an increase in the total contributions collected or in the value of insurance stamps sold. Such an increase may be noted in particular in the sickness insurance and pension schemes in *Germany* and *Great Britain*, and to a less marked extent in *Czechoslovakia*, *Latvia*, *Poland*, *Yugoslavia*, and in the Central European countries in general. In schemes where contributions vary with wages the increase in contribution income is not always equally significant. There is a real increase, and therefore a relief for the insurance institutions, only if the average contribution per head increases while the contribution rate remains unchanged. The percentage increases, whether actually recorded or only estimated, vary from country to country and even from one insurance scheme to another, but it may be said that the great majority of insurance institutions can count on rising budget estimates and contemplate the future with greater serenity.

Plans and Bills. — Social insurance takes a place in the foreground in the minds of those who are responsible for guiding the destiny of national communities, and there are many new plans and Bills bearing witness to the strength of the idea. Among those officially announced reference may be made to the proposals for uniformity of medical services in the *Austrian* sickness insurance scheme; for the fixing of the age of admission to an old-age pension at 60 years

in *Denmark*; for the revision of the maintenance of rights under invalidity, old-age, and widows' and orphans' insurance in *Germany*; for the lowering of the minimum age of liability for sickness insurance in *Great Britain* in order to provide for continuity of medical treatment for children leaving school; for the introduction of invalidity insurance in connection with compulsory sickness insurance in *Norway*; and for the revision of Federal sickness insurance legislation in *Switzerland*. Recently, schemes for social insurance were taken up for study in *Egypt* and *Turkey*.

Every part of the world is interested in the movement and a particularly large contribution is made by extra-European countries. Proposals made by the Government or Parliament have been put forward in *Argentina* and *Brazil*. In *Bolivia* compulsory insurance is being discussed, and in *Colombia* a Bill on compulsory insurance has been submitted to Parliament. The preparatory work that has been carried on for some time in *Mexico* has led to the introduction of a Social Insurance Bill. In *Venezuela* an insurance programme was embodied in the Labour Act of July 1936.

Other important preparatory steps and measures may be recorded. In *Australia* the establishment of national sickness and invalidity insurance has recently been examined by experts; in *China* compulsory sickness and maternity insurance and workmen's compensation are being discussed for workers in mines and factories; in *Japan* a general scheme of national sickness insurance is under consideration, as also another, of narrower scope, relating to sickness insurance for salaried employees. In *New Zealand* the Government is consulting experts on sickness insurance and old-age and invalidity insurance, and in the *Union of South Africa* a committee of enquiry is investigating a sickness and invalidity insurance scheme.

Another sign of the times and evidence of a new tendency in regard to social insurance is the fact that in several countries handicraftsmen and other persons of small means working on their own account, who have hitherto often opposed any measure of collective protection, are now demanding security for their old age. Studies have been undertaken with a view to bringing them under pension insurance, for example, in *Czechoslovakia*, *Hungary*, and the *Netherlands*. In *Great Britain* a voluntary pension insurance scheme for persons who neither are nor have been compulsorily insured will come into force in 1938. The problems of insuring persons working on their own account are not easy to solve, but there are many other important and difficult tasks which may be mentioned in concluding this survey.

New tasks. — Hardly had social insurance schemes overcome the worst difficulties of the depression before they were called on to tackle new tasks and difficulties. Their vitality will depend on their power to adjust themselves to new needs. The changes in economic structure and industrial technique that have taken place on the one hand, in conjunction with the profound modifications in social

biology on the other, affect the very foundations of insurance, since the composition of the insured population by age, sex and occupation is substantially modified. It seems likely that economic and biological changes will lead to a new and wider policy of social insurance.

Rationalisation and mechanisation have upset the ordinary balance between the actively insured population and the passive elements. The changing speed of production, chain work, and shift work involve extreme nervous strain and result in the premature departure of large numbers from active life. Workers of advanced age are often turned out of a factory, and even those of ripe age find it difficult to be kept on. The division of labour promotes the employment of women and increases the quantity of unskilled labour. The admission of young persons to employment is delayed for lack of openings and by legislative action, incidentally a highly desirable process. The average duration of the worker's active career is shortened at both ends.

The contributing membership of insurance funds diminishes and becomes more vulnerable, while at the same time there is an increase in the mass of persons who are prematurely turned out of active life and have to apply to insurance institutions, that is to say, unemployed workers of advanced age who cannot adapt themselves to new occupations, workers who are partly disabled and unfit to cope with the pitiless demands of shift work, and persons who live in derelict industrial areas. Notwithstanding economic recovery, the very fact of the introduction of new industrial methods has meant that unemployment diminishes only slowly in most countries, and that the residue of the unemployed comprises a large proportion of older workers who are inadaptible or have prematurely lost their strength and powers of resistance.

The disequilibrium produced by changes of economic structure is aggravated by biological phenomena, which can be foreseen and even be provided for, but the influence of which becomes felt increasingly at the very moment when a new economic and social order is beginning to take shape. The fall in the birth rate is retarding and even tending to hold up the increase of the population, while at the same time it alters its age distribution. The greater expectation of life is increasing the proportion of old and unproductive persons. These phenomena have an influence of varying intensity on most of those national communities which have reached the stage of advanced industrialisation, and they must be taken into account by any social insurance policy.

The combined effect of economic and social changes calls for a new economy of human labour power.

Among the active elements of the insured population, the younger, who are less numerous than formerly, call for special attention. The raising of the minimum age of admission to employment will somewhat delay their entry in the factories. This is all to the good, but care must be taken of their health and they must be given those reserves of strength and endurance

which will enable them to support the speed at which work is carried on. Young and mature adults must be protected by both preventive and curative measures, through a sickness insurance scheme possessing all the necessary means of action for improving the powers of resistance of the insured population. Insurance schemes must also take into account the large group of women members of the funds and the risks peculiar to them, and must adjust their benefit systems accordingly and increase the protection given to maternity. To counteract the growing preponderance of inactive elements, the groups of persons of advanced age who form a larger and larger proportion of a stationary population must be kept fit, and here too is a wide field of action for insurance institutions in order that they may prevent premature over-strain and retard the appearance of invalidity.

Since the proportion of older groups may be expected to increase, the upper age limit for paid employment should coincide with the age of admission to an old-age pension. It is important to lower this limit in general, especially in occupations calling for great muscular exertion. Pensioners, who will be more numerous and live longer than hitherto, must be given sufficient purchasing power to keep consumption on a level with production. Substantial pensions appear to be the only means of preventing the combination of insurable employment with the enjoyment of a social pension, so that each generation may receive its fair share.

* * *

The work of social organisation must be carried on vigorously, for this is the price of lasting progress. The premium paid for social insurance is modest compared with the risks that confront humanity if it is forgetful or unable to master the sources of productivity at its disposal and to distribute the yield fairly.

CHAPTER IV

REMUNERATION OF LABOUR

The Movement of Wages

Under this heading only a very general survey of the movement of wages in 1936 can be given. Detailed information on fluctuations in the remuneration of labour will be found in the chapter dealing with wages in the *Year-Book of Labour Statistics 1936-37*, where particulars are given for a large number of countries during the last few years.

The following table shows index numbers of industrial wages for about twenty countries for the years 1932 to 1936 inclusive, the year 1929 being taken as base (equal to 100). The scope and method of compilation of this series differ from country to country and strict comparisons are not possible. With a few exceptions, the series are based on wages per hour or per day, or on wages for a normal week, and therefore do not taken account of the effect of short time and overtime, which may affect the workers' weekly earnings. Statistics showing changes in weekly earnings for industrial workers are rarely available. The table shows changes not only in money wages, but also in real wages, i.e. allowing for changes in cost of living. These data are even more approximate than those of money wages.

As regards money wages, the figures for the countries shown in the table indicate that the tendency towards stabilisation observed in the preceding years was apparently giving way by degrees to a slight tendency to rise. The movement was particularly marked in Belgium, Estonia, the United States (where it has been in progress since 1934), in New Zealand, and especially in France, where the index refers to October 1936 and thus reflects to a certain extent the effects of recent social legislation. A similar though less marked rise is to be observed for Australia, Denmark, Great Britain, Italy, Norway, Sweden and the Union of South Africa. In Czechoslovakia, Canada, Germany, Japan, on the contrary, the situation was more or less unchanged as compared with 1935, while for the Netherlands, Poland and Switzerland the figures show a slight fall.

If the cost of living is taken into account by using the official cost-of-living index numbers, the movement is seen to be somewhat

INDEX NUMBERS OF INDUSTRIAL WAGES ¹

(money and real wages)

(Base: 1929 = 100)

Country	Nature of data	Money wages					Real wages ²				
		1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
Australia . . .	Hourly rates	84	81	82	83	85	104	104	103	102	103
Belgium . . .	" earnings	92	90	86	82	88	111	109	108	103	104
Bulgaria . . .	" "	79	84	78	78	—	108	123	122	131	—
Canada . . .	" rates	94	90	89	91	91	115	115	112	114	113
Czechoslovakia (Prague)	" minim. rates	103	102	100	99	99	112	113	111	108	106
Denmark . . .	" earnings	102	102	103	104	105 ³	114	110	107	105	105
Estonia . . .	" "	93	91	90	93	98	(116)	(120)	(121)	(123)	(117)
France (Paris ³)	" rates	104	104	104	102	116	110	111	112	117	127
Germany . . .	" "	82	79	79	79	79	104	104	101	99	98
Great Britain	Weekly rates	96	95	96	97	100	110	112	111	111	111
Hungary . . .	Daily earnings	84	78	73	—	—	(100)	(101)	(96)	—	—
Italy . . .	Hourly "	86	84	82	83	86	104	106	109	108	104
Japan . . . (a)	Daily "	85	86	88	88	88	(112)	(107)	(107)	(105)	(101)
(b)	" "	92	91	92	91	(92) ⁷	(123)	(113)	(112)	(109)	(104) ⁷
Netherlands .	Hourly "	93	89	87	84	81 ⁸	(111)	(107)	(105)	(104)	(104) ⁸
New Zealand .	Weekly mini- mum rates	85	82	82	84	93	102	103	102	101	109
Norway ⁴ . . .	Daily earnings	98	96	97	97	100	109	109	108	106	107
Poland . . .	Hourly "	85	78	74	72	71	(111)	(112)	(112)	(114)	(118)
Sweden . . .	" "	102	97	97	100	101	110	107	107	108	109
Switzerland ⁵ .	" "	98	97	94	92	90	114	119	117	116	111
Union of South Africa ⁶ . . .	Weekly rates	93	94	94	98	99	104	108	106	111	112
United States	(c) Hourly earnings	84	83	99	102	105	108	111	124	123	123
(c)	Weekly "	60	62	71	78	86	77	83	89	95	101
(d)	" "	68	66	73	80	86	86	86	92	98	104

¹ The figures relate to all workers (or to men only), employed mainly in mines and industry, but also in certain branches of commerce, transport or public services; for two countries (Great Britain and New Zealand) agriculture is included. Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1934-35*, Vol. II: "Labour Statistics", for the sources and methods of compilation of these figures.

² Figures computed by applying the national cost-of-living index numbers to the index numbers of money wages; for Hungary, Japan, Netherlands, and Poland (figures in brackets) the cost-of-living indexes used refer to one town only (Budapest, Tokyo, Amsterdam, and Warsaw).

³ October figures for each year.

⁴ Figures for the third quarter of each year.

⁵ Skilled and semi-skilled men only.

⁶ Figures for 30 September of each year.

⁷ Averages based on a part of the year only.

⁸ Figures for the first-half of the year.

† Provisional figures.

(a) Bank of Japan series. (b) Statistical Office of the Imperial Cabinet series. (c) National Industrial Conference Board series. (d) Bureau of Labor Statistics series.

different, since the general tendency nearly everywhere was towards a more or less marked rise in prices. The result is that in most of the countries which show an increase in money wages the rise in real wages is only slight or altogether nil; in two cases (Estonia

and Japan) real wages seem even to have declined. As regards the countries where money wages remained more or less stable, the rise in the cost of living has generally led to a slight fall in real wages. Of the three countries showing a fall in real wages, in one (Poland) the fall in the cost-of-living index number was greater than that of money wages, so that the index number of real wages shows a definite rise for 1936; in the Netherlands the fall in the cost of living kept pace with the fall in money wages so that real wages remained stable; finally, in Switzerland the index of real wages shows a fairly considerable decline under the twofold influence of a slight reduction in money wages and a slight rise in the cost of living.

The fluctuations indicated here, it should be remembered, relate only to wages per hour (or for a normal working week—that is to say, for a unit of time remaining more or less unchanged during the period under review. They therefore leave out of account the changes in the average daily or weekly hours per worker which have taken place and have a direct effect on daily or weekly earnings.

The data published on this aspect of the question are even less complete than those of wages per fixed unit of time. To judge from the available statistics, however, the average number of hours worked per day or per week in industry tended to rise very slightly in most countries, the rise being fairly marked in the United States. So far as it is possible to judge, the rise in daily or weekly earnings was thus slightly greater than the rise in earnings per hour.

The United States shows a definite increase in weekly earnings as a result of a fairly substantial increase in the number of hours worked. In fact, real weekly earnings have now reached the 1929 level. This is all the more remarkable in that the average hours worked in 1936 were only 40 in the week as compared with 48 in 1929. This does not mean, however, that the working population as a whole has reached the same purchasing power as before the depression, for the number of workers employed in 1936 was still below the figure for 1929, in spite of the increase in population during the interval.

For the two other countries which have tried to carry out the 40-hour week on a large scale—Italy and France—there are not sufficient statistics available to estimate the effects of these measures on the workers' actual earnings. In France the index number of the workers' average weekly hours for the end of 1936 was still above that for 1935, the reason being that the revival of economic activity which was then taking place more than compensated for the shortening of the statutory working day.

Moreover, for many industries this legal reduction only came into force at the beginning of 1937, and it was not until then that the index of hours worked showed a marked reduction. Again, the increase of 27 per cent. in real wages per hour, shown in the statistical table, refers to October 1936; since that time there have

been fresh wage increases but also a considerable rise in the cost of living.

The drop in wages in Italy in 1936 shown in the 1936 table reduced real wages per hour to below the 1929 level; since then a general rise in wages has taken place, accompanied, it is true, by a certain rise in the cost of living. On the other hand, the average monthly hours worked per worker appeared to be, at the beginning of 1937, about 13 to 14 per cent. lower than in 1929, as a result of the introduction of the 40-hour week. It is hard to determine what the final outcome of these various fluctuations will be, particularly as the rise in the cost of living caused by the devaluation of the lira is probably not yet at an end.

Wage Policy

In the present section a brief review is given of minimum wage legislation enacted during 1936 and of certain developments in wage policy.

It is a point worthy of note that the development of minimum wage-fixing machinery has continued with unabated vigour during the period of economic recovery. When the depression was at its worst, and the pressure for wage reductions most severe, the need for such legislation as a measure of protection for unorganised or weakly organised workers was clearly demonstrated. As conditions improved, the danger of cut-throat competition at the expense of wage rates was lessened; but the continued development of minimum wage-fixing machinery is evidence of a recognition that this danger is never entirely absent, and that such machinery forms a necessary part of the normal mechanism of economic control. During the year under review, legislation concerning minimum wages or wage-fixing machinery was enacted in Australia, Austria, Bolivia, Brazil, Bulgaria, Canada, Denmark, France, Greece, Guatemala, Iraq, Irish Free State, New Zealand, Panama, Turkey, the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, the United States of America, Venezuela, and Yugoslavia. In addition, similar measures, affecting certain special categories of workers, were adopted in a number of countries; these are dealt with in other sections of this volume.

In several cases—for example, in Austria, Bulgaria, the Canadian Province of Nova Scotia, France, the Irish Free State, and Yugoslavia—the method has been adopted of making collective agreements binding on the whole of the industry to which they relate. In certain of these countries this method is supplemented by other methods, such as the compulsory arbitration of unsettled disputes.

In a number of countries—Australia, Czechoslovakia, France, India, New Zealand, Northern Ireland, and the Union of South Africa are examples—the year 1936 saw the total or partial restoration of the reductions in civil servants' salaries which had been

made during the depression. In only two—Greece and Switzerland—of the countries dealt with in the following notes were further reductions recorded.

Australia. — A decision of the New South Wales Industrial Commission on 24 April 1936 fixing the living wage for a woman at 35s. 6d. a week (approximately 51 per cent. of the current rate for a man) led to considerable protest, and on 25 May 1936 an Industrial Arbitration (Amendment) Act was adopted, requiring the Commission in future to declare the living wage for a woman at 54 per cent. of the man's basic wage. A declaration of 1 June 1936 made in pursuance of this Act fixed the woman's living wage at 37s. 6d. per week, or approximately 54 per cent. of the man's rate of £3 9s.

In Queensland the Industrial Conciliation and Arbitration Acts Amendment Act, 1936, restored to certain Crown employees the right of access to the Industrial Court which had previously been withdrawn.

In Victoria an amendment to the Factories and Shops Act which was passed in 1936 and was to come into force in 1937 provides for the appointment of a general board to fix wages, hours, and conditions of employment in trades not at present governed by any tribunal, and at the same time extends the powers of the wages boards. The latter, which were formerly empowered merely to fix wage rates and hours of work (except in trades already covered by a Federal award or in cases in which a board came to a unanimous decision), are now empowered to deal with a wide range of conditions of employment in addition to hours and wages. They are, however, specifically precluded from dealing with the preferential employment or dismissal of persons on account of their being or not being members of any organisation, association or body.

The salaries of Commonwealth civil servants were restored to their 1931 level under the provisions of the 1936-1937 budget. The salaries of civil servants in the State of Victoria were also fully restored to their pre-depression level as from 4 October 1936. In New South Wales the Government announced its intention of restoring one-half of the remaining salary reductions as from 1 December 1936 and the remainder as from 30 June 1937. In Queensland a decision of the industrial court granted a further partial restoration of salary-cuts made during the depression. In Tasmania the Government proposed to repeal the Official Salaries Reduction Act, 1931, and thus to restore in full the reductions in salaries and allowances made in that year.

Austria. — An Act of 24 November 1936, by establishing a system of compulsory arbitration of industrial disputes by corporative committees, provides in effect for the determination by these committees, in cases where no agreement is reached between the parties, of wage rates and other conditions of employment in industry, mining, handicrafts and commerce. The system does not,

however, apply to credit and banking institutions, communications, the liberal professions or agriculture.

Belgium. — Negotiations between the representatives of workers' and employers' organisations, after a large-scale industrial dispute, resulted in the conclusion in a large number of industries of agreements providing for a minimum wage of 32 francs per 8-hour day for adult male unskilled workers. This rate will also be the minimum for workers employed by the Government or by contractors working for the Government.

Bolivia. — By a Decree of 31 January 1936 the salaries of civil servants were increased as from the beginning of 1936 to compensate for the rise in the cost of living which had occurred as a result of the recent war.

By a Decree of 1 June 1936 minimum wages were established for office workers, manual labourers, and domestic servants.

Brazil. — Provision for the setting-up of minimum wage-fixing committees was made by an Act of 14 January 1936, which declares that every employee shall be entitled as payment for services rendered to a minimum wage sufficient to satisfy his normal needs as regards food, housing, clothing, health and transport in specified districts of the Republic and for specified periods of time. The Act defines the minimum wage as the minimum remuneration which shall be paid to an adult employee for a normal working day. The minimum wage is to be fixed by a wage committee which will consist of not less than 5 nor more than 11 members, comprising an equal number of representatives of employers and employees and a chairman appointed by the President of the Republic. Committees are to be set up in each of 22 districts. Minimum wage rates are to be fixed for periods of three years in each case, but may be altered before the expiry of this period if it is found that there has been a material change in the economic and financial situation of the district.

It may also be recalled that indirect provision for the fixing of minimum wage rates in certain circumstances had been made by a Decree of 23 August 1932, which provided for the compulsory observance by employers and workers not parties to a collective agreement of the provisions of any such agreement concluded by three-fourths of the employers and workers in their industry.

Bulgaria. — The Legislative Decrees of 5 and 22 September 1936 relating to contracts of employment, which represent the first attempt to regulate relations between employers and workers in Bulgaria, fix the periods and methods of payment of wages, provide that overtime must be paid at the rate of time and a quarter, and state that wages may not be less than the minimum rates fixed by collective agreement. If no such agreement exists, wage rates may be fixed in accordance with a scale approved by the Council of

Ministers on the proposal of the Minister of Commerce, Industry and Labour, after consultation with the employers' and workers' organisations, chambers of commerce and industry, and other institutions and persons concerned. If no such scale is applicable, the worker is entitled to the minimum wage paid to a worker doing the same work in the same undertaking, or in a similar neighbouring undertaking. Moreover, in cases where conditions of employment are not regulated by collective agreement or other satisfactory methods, the occupational organisations concerned may apply to special conciliation and arbitration institutions to draw up a collective agreement.

Canada. — The gradual extension of minimum wage legislation and its application has continued in the various Provinces, but on 28 January 1937 the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council, in an advisory opinion, pronounced the Dominion Minimum Wages Act of 1935 to be *ultra vires* the legislative jurisdiction of the Dominion Parliament. This and other opinions rendered at the same time, which confirm the exclusive jurisdiction of the provincial legislatures in such matters, have led to renewed discussion of the desirability of amending the Constitution in order to increase the powers of the Dominion Parliament in this field.

In Alberta provision was made for the first time for a minimum wage for men. The Male Minimum Wage Act, 1936, which is generally similar to the corresponding Act of British Columbia, applies to all adult males in receipt of or entitled to any compensation for labour, with the exception of farm labourers and domestic servants; minimum wages may be fixed also for male workers under the age of 21. The minimum wages are to be fixed by a Board, consisting of a chairman and two other members appointed by the Lieutenant-Governor in Council. The Minimum Wage Act, 1925 (covering female workers), was also amended in various respects.

In British Columbia both the Male Minimum Wage Act and the Female Minimum Wage Act were amended in various respects. The definition of "employee" in the Male Minimum Wage Act was amended to make it apply to all male persons in receipt of or entitled to compensation for labour, and not merely to adults.

In New Brunswick a Fair Wage Act was adopted, providing for the appointment of a Fair Wage Officer under the Minister of Health and Labour, with authority to hear complaints and conduct investigations to ascertain the wages, hours, and conditions of labour in any industry or business. Where wages are found to be inadequate or unfair, conferences of employers and workers may be called to adjust such conditions. In addition, the Board of Commissioners of Public Utilities is empowered, under direction from the Minister, to establish fair rates of wages, which are to be binding on the employers and workers concerned.

In Nova Scotia an Industrial Standards Act, 1936, was passed, similar to the Ontario Act of 1935, but applying only to building and construction in Halifax and Dartmouth. Schedules of wages

agreed on by a sufficient proportion of employers and employees in an industry may be made binding on all employers and employees in that industry. No schedule may prescribe lower wages or longer hours for women and girls than those prescribed by regulations under the Nova Scotia Minimum Wages for Women Act.

In Ontario both the Minimum Wage Act and the Industrial Standards Act were amended in various respects.

Various amendments were also made to the Quebec Collective Labour Agreements Extension Act.

In Saskatchewan the Minimum Wage Act, 1936, consolidated and amended former legislation (which was first enacted in 1919). The Act applies to female employees in shops and factories in cities, but the Minimum Wage Board is empowered, with the approval of the Lieutenant-Governor in Council, to extend its provisions to other portions of the Province, and to male employees. By an Order in Council, effective from 1 November 1936, the provisions of the Act were extended to include male employees in shops and factories in the cities of the Province.

China. — The Government promulgated on 23 December 1936 a Minimum Wage Act, applying to all factory work and home work carried out in industries in which wages are not regulated by collective or other agreements, and in which remuneration is exceptionally low.

In each district or municipality there is to be set up a minimum wage committee of from nine to fifteen members, including one or two representatives of the district or municipal authorities and four or five representatives of each of the parties concerned (employers and workers). When necessary, a representative may also be appointed by the Minister of Industry or the competent provincial authority. The representative of the district or municipal authority (or the representative of the Minister of Industry or the provincial authority, if one is appointed) will act as chairman of the committee.

Minimum wages in each industry are to be fixed on the basis of the living conditions of the workers in the district concerned. Wages must be such as to enable an adult worker to support himself and two dependent members of his family in decent circumstances, while the wage paid to a juvenile worker may not be less than one-half of the minimum wage paid to an adult worker. In assessing the amount of the wage, board and lodging provided by the employer may be included at their average value during the preceding three months, but bonuses and overtime paid must not be included. When wages lower than the prescribed minimum rates have been fixed by collective agreement, the rates fixed by the minimum wage committee will none the less apply, unless the agreement has been sanctioned by the competent authority. Provision is made for penalties for non-observance of the provisions of the Act.

Czechoslovakia. — A further partial restoration was made of the reductions in salaries suffered by Government officials during the

depression. These reductions included a cut of from 3 to 10 per cent. and the suppression of Christmas allowances (under the provisions of a law of 28 December 1932) and a further uniform cut of 4 per cent. (made by Decree of 22 December 1933). 30 per cent. of the latter reduction was restored by Decree of 22 December 1934, and the restoration of the remainder is provided for in the current Budget. The reductions made in 1932 were still in force at the end of 1936.

Denmark. — Although both workers and employers in Denmark were still of the opinion that permanent compulsory arbitration was undesirable except in disputes arising out of the interpretation of collective agreements, recourse was had for the third time (the other occasions being in 1933 and 1934) to *ad hoc* legislation for the settlement of particular disputes. In virtue of powers conferred on a special Arbitration Board by an Act of 29 March 1936 for the settlement of the largest industrial dispute which had occurred in Denmark for 11 years, the wage rates and other conditions of employment of some 125,000 workers were fixed on 7 April 1936, in most cases for a period of two years, subject to adjustment after one year in the event of important changes in the cost of living.

France. — Indirect provision for the fixing of minimum wage rates was made by an Act of 24 June 1936 relating to collective agreements, which empowers the Minister of Labour to make collective agreements legally binding on all employers and workers in the trades and districts to which they relate; and by an Act of 31 December 1936, which provides for the compulsory reference of labour disputes to a procedure of conciliation and arbitration and for the making of binding awards.

Prior to the passage of the latter Act provision had been made in the Currency Act of 1 October 1936 for the organisation of compulsory conciliation and arbitration proceedings to settle disputes arising out of any noticeable increase in the cost of living and connected with the conclusion, fulfilment or revision of clauses of collective agreements relating to wages. The Act of 31 December 1936, together with a Decree of 16 January 1937 which fixes the rules for its application, extends to all collective labour disputes in commerce and industry (agriculture is not covered) the principle of compulsory reference to conciliation and arbitration.

Since 1932, the salaries of French civil servants have been subject to reductions, varying in amount, due to the financial difficulties consequent on the depression. The amount of these reductions was reduced by a Decree of 25 June 1936, and in the 1937 Budget provision was made for the restoration of one-third of the remaining reductions as from 1 January 1937, two-thirds as from 1 July 1937, and a complete restoration as from 1 January 1938.

Great Britain. — A Committee on Farm Workers in Scotland, appointed in January 1936; reported on 29 June 1936 in favour of

the extension to Scotland of the Agricultural Wages (Regulation) Act, 1924; and in January 1937 an Agricultural Wages (Regulation) (Scotland) Bill was introduced, providing for the regulation of farm workers' wages in Scotland on the lines of the system in force in England and Wales.

Greece. — The Act of 16 November 1935 concerning collective agreements, which provides for the compulsory arbitration of industrial disputes, was applied from 18 June 1936. Where agreed settlements are not reached, the application of this system involves the authoritative determination of wage rates. According to a statement made by the Head of the Government in December 1936, some ten collective agreements had been signed, fixing minimum wages for 277,150 workers.

The remuneration of public servants was the subject of two laws, one of which requires public servants to give one-fifth of their salaries to the Public Servants' Club, while the other provides for the reduction of supplementary allowances.

Guatemala. — A minimum wage for farm workers in the Department of Alta Verapaz was established by legislative action on 28 January 1936.

Hungary. — Minimum rates of wages approved by wage-fixing committees have been fixed for a number of industries by decisions of the Minister of Industry.

Iraq. — Under the provisions of the Labour Act of 25 April 1936, the Government is empowered to issue regulations fixing minimum daily wages for workers in the different grades of each occupation.

Irish Free State. — The Bill referred to in the last issue of the *Year-Book*¹ became law on 14 February 1936, under the title of the Conditions of Employment Act, 1936. Under this Act a collective agreement concluded between representatives of employers and workers who are substantially representative of employers and of workers in the area to which it relates may be registered by the Minister for Industry and Commerce, and, when registered, becomes legally binding, in so far as it relates to wages, on every employer, whether a signatory or not, concerned in the form of industrial work in the area to which it relates, and on every worker of the particular grade to which it relates who is employed in the area covered.

New Zealand. — By the Industrial Conciliation and Arbitration Acts Amendment Act of 8 June 1936, the compulsory jurisdiction of the Arbitration Court in industrial disputes was restored (it had been restricted by an Act of 1932 to disputes in which women

¹ Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1935-36*, pp. 303-304.

workers were involved), and the Court was instructed to fix basic rates of wages applicable to all workers covered by awards or industrial agreements. The latter provision is new to New Zealand experience, while the former restores the powers which from 1894 to 1932 had made the Court in effect a wage-fixing authority with jurisdiction over a large part of the country's industries. The Court in fixing the basic rates of wages must have regard to the general economic and financial conditions affecting trade and industry in New Zealand, and to the cost of living, and the basic rate fixed for adult male workers must be "such a rate as would, in the opinion of the Court, be sufficient to enable a man in receipt thereof to maintain a wife and three children in a fair and reasonable standard of comfort". The basic rates fixed by the Court in its first decision, dated 2 November 1936, were £3 16s. 0d. per week for adult male workers and £1 16s. 0d. per week for adult female workers. These rates may be reviewed by the Court from time to time at intervals of not less than six months.

By a further measure, the Agricultural Workers Act of 18 September 1936, minimum rates of wages are fixed for dairy-farm workers, the rate for adults being £2 2s. 6d. per week if board and lodging are provided, or £3 per week if board and lodging are not provided. Hitherto the wages of farm workers, with the exception of a small minority covered by awards of the Arbitration Court, have been settled by individual agreement with their employers. The new legislation links the statutory regulation of farm workers' wages to a system of guaranteed prices for farm products. It applies for the present only to dairy-farm workers, but may be extended after consultation with the organisations, if any, of employers and workers concerned to other classes of agricultural workers.

Provision was made under Parts I and II of the Finance Act, 1936, for the restoration as from 1 July 1936 to the 1931 level (i.e. to the level prior to the general reductions imposed on account of the depression) of the wages and salaries of public servants, and of the rates of remuneration current under awards, industrial agreements, apprenticeship orders, and contracts of service. No employer may dismiss a worker in order to deprive him of the benefits of increased wages or reduced hours, and there is a general provision that existing rates of wages must not be reduced. This Act, it may be noted, extends governmental intervention in the determination of wage rates to industries and groups of workers not touched by any previous regulation.

Panama. — The Labour Section of the Secretariat of Labour, Commerce and Industry, established under the provisions of an Act of 25 September 1936 and a Decree of 16 October 1936, is empowered to settle industrial disputes by summary procedure and to establish a list of industrial and commercial undertakings which are required by law to employ citizens of Panama to the extent of 75 per cent. of their labour force and to maintain specified rates of wages and other conditions of employment.

Portugal. — In accordance with the minimum wage policy introduced under the corporative system, and with the provisions of the National Labour Code and the Decree of 1 August 1935, minimum time rates and basic piece rates were fixed for the cotton textile industry, which employs some 40,000 workers, by regulations published by the Under-Secretary of State for Corporations and Social Welfare in September and October 1936. In an introductory memorandum, reference was made to the fact that in certain trades wages had shown a tendency to fall below the level which must be considered as a minimum, to the unfair competition involved in variations in the wage rates paid in different districts and in different factories, and to the difficulties encountered in concluding collective agreements.

Switzerland. — By an Order of 31 January 1936, providing for special measures to balance the Federal Budget, the salaries of all persons employed by the Federal Government were reduced by an average of 9.4 per cent.

Turkey. — Indirect provision for the authoritative determination of wage rates is made by the sections of the Labour Code of 8 June 1936 which provide for the compulsory arbitration of industrial disputes.

Union of South Africa. — In view of the improved state of the public finances, provision was made in the 1936-1937 budget for the refunding of the deductions made in 1932-1933 from the allowances of members of Parliament and from the salaries of civil servants.

United States. — The Public Contracts Act approved on 30 June 1936 provides that all public contracts in excess of 10,000 dollars made by any executive department, independent establishment, or other agency or instrumentality of the United States shall stipulate, *inter alia*, that the contractor shall not pay less than prevailing rates of wages. The Department of Labor is charged with the enforcement of the Act.

The First Deficiency Appropriation Act, 1936-1937, provides for the payment of the prevailing minimum rate of wages to persons on relief works.

The Bituminous Coal Conservation Act of 30 August 1935, popularly known as the Guffey Act, was declared unconstitutional by the United States Supreme Court on 18 May 1936. The Act had sought to set up for the bituminous coal industry a system of industrial self-government (with minimum wage rates) similar to that provided for in the codes under the National Industrial Recovery Act of 1933.

The Minimum Wage Law of the State of Washington was upheld in a decision of the Supreme Court of that State. Shortly afterwards, however, the decision of the New York Court of Appeals

declaring the minimum wage law of New York State unconstitutional was upheld by a majority decision (5-4) of the United States Supreme Court on 1 June 1936. This law, like several other State laws passed in 1933, was of a somewhat different type from the Washington law and was based on a standard minimum wage Bill drafted to meet the constitutional objection raised by the United States Supreme Court in 1923. The decision of the United States Supreme Court in the case of the New York law was said to cast doubt on the validity of all existing minimum wage legislation in the United States.

The Massachusetts law requiring the payment of a minimum wage to women and minors was amended and re-enacted. Its purpose is now stated to be primarily to protect the health of women and minors and it is administered by the Department of Health instead of the Department of Labor and Industries as heretofore. In establishing a fair wage the Minimum Wage Commission and the Wage Board may consider the wages necessary to conserve and maintain the health of female and minor employees. In Rhode Island a standard minimum wage law for the protection of women and minors was enacted.

In November 1936 the third National Conference on Labour Legislation adopted a resolution urging that every effort should be made by the States and the Federal Government to develop adequate mandatory minimum wage laws and endorsing the proposal of an amendment to the Constitution to permit without question effective State and Federal minimum wage legislation. The Conference also approved a recommendation that the States now operating under minimum wage laws should continue to administer those laws as in the past, and that States without minimum wage legislation should institute wage investigations to show the urgency of such legislation.

U.S.S.R. — Reference was made in the last issue of the *Year-Book*¹ to the importance acquired by money wages since the abolition of the rationing system and to the continuation of the policy of piece wages, as was shown by the fact that in heavy industry the percentage of hours of work paid by the piece rose from 57.5 in 1928 to 63.7 in 1932 and 69.8 in 1935.

The development of the Stakhanov movement and the revision of output standards undertaken in all industrial branches at the beginning of 1936 made it possible to reinforce this wage policy, which found expression, among other things, in the reduction of the number of workers paid by time or collectively by "teams" or "brigades", in the application of progressive piece rates for output in excess of the standard, in the establishment of wage schedules serving as an incentive to the workers to improve the quality of their output as well as its quantity, and in the introduction of rates

¹ Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1935-36*, p. 308.

for stimulating the labour productivity of engineers and technicians. This wage policy applies not only to industrial workers, but also to agricultural workers.

In the opinion of Soviet leaders " a necessary condition for the rational application of progressive piece rates must be a fall in the cost of production. Where there is a rational system of remuneration, there, too, will there be lower costs of production, higher remuneration for the worker, and at the same time increased labour productivity " ¹.

The importance attached in the Soviet Union to a wage policy according to which remuneration corresponds to the efforts made by each person also appears clearly in the new Constitution of 5 December 1936, which states that " in the U.S.S.R. the principle of socialism is being realised: ' from each according to his ability, to each according to his work ' "; and, further, that Soviet citizens have the right to work, that is to say, " the right to receive guaranteed work, with payment for their work in accordance with its quantity and quality ".

The total wage fund for 1936 was fixed at 63,400 million roubles, or 7,200 million roubles (about 12.8 per cent.) more than that for 1935. Of this increase, 3,000 million roubles were intended for industry, 1,100 million for construction, 500 million for railways, and 500 million for commerce.

An attempt has also been made to improve the standard of living of non-manual workers, for instance, by the Order of 9 April 1936, increasing the total aggregate amount of the pay of school teachers by 1,000 million roubles, and the Order of 11 January 1937, providing for increases in the remuneration of teaching staff in technical schools, workers' colleges, adult schools, and children's homes.

Venezuela. — The Labour Act promulgated on 16 July 1936 provides that equal wages must be paid for equal work and empowers the Federal Government to appoint minimum wage-fixing boards for specified industries or branches of industries. The boards are to include, as far as possible, representatives of both employers and workers. In fixing minimum wage rates, which may apply to time or piece-work, the boards must take all relevant factors into account, but may make no distinction between the sexes or between persons of different nationalities.

Yugoslavia. — The Finance Act of 1936-1937 gives the Minister of Social Policy and Public Health extensive powers, *inter alia*, to determine, after consultation with organisations of employers and workers, the method of fixing minimum wages in collective agreements, and the parties to such agreements.

¹ Report of Mr. Ordzonikidze to the Plenary Sitting of the Central Committee of the U.S.S.R. Communist Party.

International Minimum Wage Regulations

*Convention No. 26: Minimum Wage-Fixing Machinery, 1928*¹

Belgium. — Bill for the approval of the Convention submitted to the Chamber of Representatives on 9 February 1937.

Netherlands. — Ratification registered on 10 November 1936.

U.S.S.R. — Submitted to the competent authorities.

Family Allowances

During 1936 considerable progress was made in developing the system of family allowances in countries where this system is widely adopted. In Italy an Act was passed extending its application to industrial workers. In Belgium and France the system now applies to new branches and occupations, of which agriculture is one, and the amount of the allowances has been increased. As a result of such factors as currency devaluation and rises in the cost of living, there has been a general revival of interest in family allowances as a means of facilitating, to a certain extent and for certain classes of workers, the adaptation of wages to the cost of living.

Belgium. — Among the important changes which have been made recently in the family allowance system in Belgium, the Legislative Decree of 30 March, the Royal Order of 20 May and the Act of 28 July 1936 call for special mention.

The Legislative Decree of 30 March, whose provisions came into force in the third quarter of 1936, modifies and defines more explicitly the Act of 4 August 1930 which made the system of family allowances universal throughout Belgium. By giving a more exact definition of such terms as "dependent children", "right of younger brothers and sisters to allowances", "position of workers lodged and boarded by their employer" it put an end to a host of disputes and will greatly facilitate a better application of the Act in the future.

The Royal Order of 20 May contained a special scheme for workers casually employed by farmers and stock-breeders and on forestry undertakings. It provides *inter alia* for the payment in a lump sum of an annual contribution calculated in proportion to the average number of normal working days per year needed for the farming of arable land and the upkeep of pasturage and forests. It was supplemented on 25 January 1937 by an Order

¹ The information given here relates only to the period 15 March 1936-15 March 1937. See the table at the end of the volume for the general situation as regards the Convention.

describing more precisely the method of calculating annual contributions.

Finally, the Act of 28 July 1936 altered the method of calculating allowances and contributions; these are to be fixed from now on according to the number of days worked or as a lump sum payable monthly when the number of days worked is 23 or more. The Act also considerably increased the scale of family allowances, which were raised for monthly allowances from 9 to 15 francs for the first child, from 12 to 25 for the second, from 32 to 50 for the third, from 65 to 85 for the fourth, and from 95 to 120 for the fifth and each additional child. Contributions have also been raised and the lump sum monthly contributions now stand at 22.50 francs for each workman and 12 francs for each workwoman. The allowances and contributions fixed under the Act will vary in accordance with the cost-of-living index.

Besides these important reforms of the system itself, various changes have also been made in its administration. These measures aim chiefly at improving supervision, ensuring the affiliation of all the employers covered by the system and at guaranteeing the regular payment of contributions and allowances. Further, a Bill extending the benefit of family allowances to employers and independent workers was introduced into the Chamber of Representatives by the Minister of Labour on 2 December 1936. Under the terms of this Bill all independent employers and workers, whatever the amount of their incomes or their earnings, would have the benefit of family allowances. Under the term "employers" the Bill includes notaries and excludes only barristers, solicitors, doctors, and surgeons; among "independent workers" it includes craftsmen, small traders and retail traders, small farmers, and also priests and monks who may have dependent on them brothers and sisters of orphaned nieces and nephews, etc., who are entitled to allowances.

According to the most recent statistics available, at the end of 1935 the system of family allowances in Belgium comprised 80 approved equalisation funds, 7 special funds, one State fund and one secondary equalisation fund. The number of affiliated undertakings had risen to 109,091, covering 1,358,119 workers for whom 197,419,994 francs had been paid into the equalisation funds by employers in the form of subscriptions, while the funds themselves had paid out 170,005,331 francs in allowances for 891,653 children to 501,524 families covered by the scheme. In spite of the progress made in the application of the Act, in January 1937 the number of persons who had joined the equalisation funds was still, according to the review of the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare, "greatly inferior to that which would be reached if the Act were universally enforced". The number of possible members is estimated at between 140,000 and 160,000.

France. — There were two outstanding events in the development of the system of family allowances in France during the past year;

one was the final extension to the whole of industry, commerce and the professions of the Act of 11 March 1932, which had been gradually widening its scope during preceding years and whose application to the branches mentioned above was governed by the public administrative regulations of 14 March 1933. The other was the application of this Act to agriculture by the public administration regulations of 5 August 1936.

The Act was made universally applicable in industry, commerce and the professions by Decrees dated 10 January, 27 February, 29 July, 11 September and 19 November. The most recent, which covers welfare societies and administrative services, was issued on 8 March 1937; it fixed for 1 April of this year the date on which the Act will come into force for these particular branches throughout France.

Chiefly as a result of the rise in the cost of living most of the approved equalisation funds (on 1 May 1937, roughly 193 funds out of 222) raised the scale of allowances in the course of the year, some of their own accord, some as a result of arbitration awards. In the Department of the Seine, for example, the minimum scale of allowances, which had been fixed before at 30 francs a month for one child, 70 francs for two, 120 francs for three and 80 francs for each additional child, was raised from 1 January 1937 by a Decree of the Minister of Labour dated 15 December 1936, to 30 francs for one child, 80 francs for two, 150 francs for three, 300 francs for four and 200 francs a month for each additional child.

According to figures given in the general report submitted by Mr. Bonvoisin to the 16th National Congress on Family Allowances held in Strasbourg on 20 May 1936, the number of approved equalisation funds increased from 208 to 222 between 1 January and the end of 1935; the number of employer members from 157,000 to 218,000 (an increase of 38 per cent.), the number of workers affected from 3,750,000 to 4,238,000 (an increase of 13 per cent.) and the total paid out in allowances from 675 to 780 million francs (an increase of 15 per cent.). The fact that the increase in the number of employer members is proportionately much higher than the increase in the workers affected is due to the fact that the newly added branches are mostly made up of small establishments. By adding to these figures those for the special approved services, which number 75, the total obtained is 5,238,000 workers and 1,600 million francs paid in allowances. The further addition of the figures for the civil service gives a total of 6,038,000 workers and 2,100 million francs in allowances, i.e. in comparison with 1934 an increase of 8 per cent. as regards workers and an increase of 5 per cent. in allowances.

The application of this Act has continued to be beset with difficulties, the chief of which is that some of the employers concerned still fail to observe the provisions of the Act and have not joined equalisation funds. The number of employers who actually apply the Act is estimated at less than 50 per cent. and the number

of workers who are thus deprived of the benefit of the Act at about 20 per cent.

With regard to agriculture the public administrative regulations of 5 August 1936 established *inter alia* the procedure for the approval of family allowance institutions, the fixing of the rate of allowances and contributions, the date of coming into force of the Act and the advisory functions of the Chambers of Agriculture. By a notice published in the *Official Journal* of 21 August 1936 the agricultural associations were asked to state in which departments the Act could be at once applied to all agricultural occupations and as regards the other departments to state to which occupations and classes of estates such immediate application might be considered and what time should be allowed in respect of the application of the Act to those occupational groups and agricultural estates to which its immediate application could not be recommended. Subsequently it was decided that the Act should be applied to farms in all Departments on a series of dates ranging from 16 November 1936 to 1 November 1937. Further, a Decree of 14 November 1936 fixed the minimum scales of allowances for the various Departments, which do not differ from those in force in industry, commerce and the professions. These rates vary according to the Department: for one child from a minimum of 15 to a maximum of 30 francs a month, for two children from 30 to 85 francs, for three children from 42 to 200 francs, for four children from 95 to 200 francs and for each additional child from 20 to 120 francs.

The application of the Family Allowances Act of 1932 to the whole sphere of national activity has thus been finally completed, although, as shown by the report of the National Congress on Family Allowances of May 1936, something still remains to be done to ensure a stricter observance of the Act in some respects. With this exception, the next stage will be, generally speaking, one of legal, administrative and practical improvements. Reforms which appear to be called for already in agriculture are the inclusion in the scheme of employers who engage agricultural workers for less than 75 days a year and who do not at present come within the scope of the Act, and perhaps the extension of allowances not only to workers but also to small farmers.

Italy. — Whereas in Belgium and France the system of family allowances was practised long before it was made compulsory by law, in Italy this system was applied suddenly to all industrial workers by a collective agreement dated 11 October 1934. This measure was adopted at the time partly to help working men with families, whose earnings had fallen as a result of the general reduction of hours of work in industry; it has since been improved in several respects—for example, by the granting of allowances as soon as the first child is born instead of the second and by placing working women who are family bread winners on the same footing as men, as regards the right to family allowances—and by the

Royal Decree of 21 August 1935 the system was extended and made compulsory for all industrial workers, whatever their hours of work. Further, by two collective agreements of 21 December 1936 and 23 January 1937, commercial workers, credit and insurance houses and tax-collectors' offices are also included in the family allowances scheme.

The Royal Legislative Decree of 21 August 1936 which provided a legal basis for the practice of family allowances by incorporating it in the general regime for the country's social welfare, had three other important results as is pointed out by Mr. Biagi in an article appearing in the *International Labour Review*, April 1937. Firstly, the family allowance system was made independent of the number of hours of work; secondly, it introduced State collaboration in the management of the system; thirdly, it modified the share of the contribution paid into the fund by employers and workers. Henceforward this contribution will be 1 per cent. of the worker's wage for the worker and 2½ per cent. for the employer, and the State will make a supplementary payment each quarter of 0.50 lire for each paid weekly allowance of 4 lire.

The Decree also abolished the former National Family Allowances Fund and entrusted the management of the new system to the National Fascist Institute for Social Welfare; a special committee of the Institute was set up containing representatives of the Fascist Confederation of Employers and the Fascist Confederation of Workers, some of whom are appointed by the Committee itself and some by the above-mentioned Confederations. The Committee is authorised *inter alia* to make any suggestion of a general nature concerning the system or its application, to examine the annual reports and to decide appeals concerning contributions and allowances.

The Decree contains a clause authorising the Government, on the recommendation of the Ministry of Corporations, in agreement with the Ministers of Justice and Finance, to extend the scheme by Royal Decree to other categories of workers. At present the number of workers covered by the family allowance scheme applied by the Legislative Decree of 21 August 1936 is estimated at about 2½ millions, of whom 800,000 are heads of families with about 1,700,000 dependent children. The cost of the scheme is estimated at 344 million lire, of which 215 millions are paid by employers, 86 millions by workers and 43 millions by the State. To these figures for the application of family allowances to industrial workers should be added the figures for commercial workers (about 350,000) and credit and insurance undertakings (about 10,000) to whom the family allowance scheme has been extended by the collective agreements mentioned above. It seems that the rapid progress of family allowances in Italy will continue, and new measures are already being contemplated to complete and improve the present system.

New Zealand. — An amendment to the Family Allowance Act of 1936, which came into force on 1 April 1937, was passed on

1 July 1936. It grants to married women with families the right, hitherto reserved for married men, of applying for a family allowance and further it restores from £3 5s. 0d. to the original figure of £4, the maximum weekly income on which a family allowance can be claimed. This limit had been lowered in April 1932. The total paid in allowances during the year ending 31 March 1936 was £149,043 as against £152,818 in the previous year.

CHAPTER V

EMPLOYMENT, UNEMPLOYMENT, MIGRATION

Employment and Unemployment

The world economic situation continued to improve in 1936 and the international index number of unemployment, which is regularly published in the *International Labour Review*, was only 151 (1929 = 100) in that year as compared with 196 in 1935. From the figures available in Geneva for the first months of 1937 it appeared that unemployment was lower than in the corresponding period of 1936 in all countries, with very few exceptions.

It can now be said that the cyclical depression which started in the autumn of 1929 is over in a number of countries, and is passing away in the others; but unemployment remains higher even in the former group of countries than it was before the depression. This is not surprising, considering the profound disturbances to which the whole economic system has been subjected during the last seven or eight years, and it shows that in addition to the cyclical movements, to which naturally enough most attention has been paid in recent years, there is a problem of permanent or semi-permanent unemployment which has to be dealt with. A large proportion of the unemployed at the present time are elderly; their former jobs have gone owing either to technical progress or to other structural changes; and they are too old to adapt themselves to anything new. Clearly unemployment insurance will not solve this problem and other measures are needed. Side by side with this unemployment there is in practically every industrial country a shortage of skilled workers. This can, to some extent, be dealt with by the re-education of the unemployed whose own jobs have disappeared or who, it may be, have never been trained for a skilled trade. Reference may also be made to juvenile unemployment; young people have little difficulty nowadays in finding employment, but attention is being increasingly given to the importance of vocational guidance, vocational training and apprenticeship. Finally, unemployment insurance continues to make steady progress and a number of new measures were adopted last year.

On all these questions information will be found in the following pages. In order, however, to have a complete picture of the unem-

ployment situation and of the remedies applied to abolish this scourge, reference must also be made to other chapters of this *Year-Book*, which deal, for example, with economic developments, hours of work, and the work of women and of various other classes of workers such as salaried employees, professional workers, etc. The present chapter is confined to a discussion of general measures for increasing the demand for labour, for adjusting labour supply and demand, for planning insurance and relief, and certain special provisions relating to unemployed young persons under 25 and non-manual workers.

THE PROBLEM OF PERMANENT UNEMPLOYMENT

Of the 25 countries for which an index of industrial production is published in the League of Nations *Monthly Bulletin of Statistics*, 14 have reached a level of production greater than that of 1929. These countries are: Chile, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Japan, Latvia, Norway, Rumania, Sweden, the United Kingdom, and the U.S.S.R. For some of these there are also available employment figures which may be compared with them :

INDICES OF PRODUCTION AND EMPLOYMENT

1929 = 100

Country	Date	Index of production	Index of employment
Estonia	March 1937	129.0	138.6
Finland	January 1937	150.0	102.2
Great Britain	1st quarter 1937	122.9 ¹	109.4
Hungary	4th quarter 1936	131.6	99.3
Japan	December 1936	172.4	119.1
Latvia	March 1937	143.1	110.5
Norway	March 1937	127.7	101.0
Sweden	March 1937	138.0	111.8

¹ United Kingdom.

It will be noted that in all these countries, except Estonia, production has increased relatively more than employment, an indication that the productivity of the workers has increased. This does not, of course, necessarily mean that there is technological unemployment, and in industries which are expanding both their production and their labour force there obviously is no such unemployment, or at any rate very little; but it is probable that in other industries, in which production is expanding more slowly or even not at all, some technological unemployment exists.

There are also other causes for the existence of unemployment at the present time. Some of them may be seen from interesting studies which have been made in Great Britain and Belgium during the past year.

In *Great Britain* Sir William Beveridge pointed out, in an address to the Economic Section of the British Association on 14 September 1936, that what used to be spoken of prior to 1914 as the irreducible minimum of 2 per cent. of unemployment due to frictional and seasonal causes must now be put much higher, probably between 6 and 8 per cent. or, in round figures, between 800,000 and 1,000,000 unemployed. Short-period unemployment—that is to say, unemployment up to six months—was now proportionately less than it had been in 1929, but long-period unemployment was much greater. In July 1936 about 500,000 insured persons had been out of employment for more than nine months, due either to large and rapid structural changes in industry or to personal infirmities. This long-period unemployment was disproportionately concentrated in particular districts, and in Wales there was more such unemployment in July 1936 than in the depths of the depression. The long-period unemployment naturally affected the older workers more than others, owing to the difficulty of recovering employment once it had been lost. Another point to which Sir William drew attention was the fact that unemployment varied from industry to industry, as a result not merely or mainly of the prosperity of the industry, but also of its organisation and methods. He said that 28 manufacturing industries, in each of which the demand for labour had grown at more than the average rate and in which the total numbers now employed were 40 per cent. more than in 1923, had, at the end of this period of rapid expansion, unemployment ranging from 3.4 per cent. to 16.9 per cent. in particular cases, and averaging nearly 8 per cent. In some of these industries increased demand for labour had emphatically been no cure for unemployment. As compared with these 28 progressing industries, a group of 12 declining industries now had unemployment averaging about 20 per cent., while the remaining 36 manufacturing industries, which had either grown or contracted slightly, had unemployment of about 10 per cent. Sir William added that while unemployment insurance might be considered a suitable measure for frictional, seasonal and cyclical unemployment, something different was needed for the victims of long-period unemployment.

In *Belgium* Mr. Jacquemyns, of the Solvay Institute of Sociology, made a special study for the National Employment and Unemployment Office. His report points out that, in addition to those who are unemployed owing to the depression, there is a second group, consisting of workers whose trade or industry has disappeared in their district or has radically changed owing to rationalisation. In certain districts these workers form 10 or 15 per cent. of the total number of unemployed. Many of them are reluctant to accept jobs as labourers or learners in a trade other than that to which they have

been accustomed, and at a lower rate of pay. Thirdly, there are the older workers, and in this connection it was found that in twelve towns or districts 28 per cent. of the unemployed were over 50 years of age. Fourthly, there has been a great increase in the number of unskilled labourers insured against unemployment, either because many skilled workers have drifted into this group or because many agricultural labourers have obtained employment in some exceptional undertaking and have thus become eligible for insurance. The result is the formation of a pool of cheap labour at the disposal of rural contractors, enabling them to compete more easily with their rivals in the towns.

MEASURES TO INCREASE THE DEMAND FOR LABOUR

The principal measures aiming at increasing the aggregate demand for labour come under the heading of public works, or perhaps it would be more accurate to say public investment, for the term "public works" is sometimes understood in a rather narrow sense. The question of public works (in a wide sense) in relation to employment is on the Agenda of the Session of the International Labour Conference being held in June 1937, and in view of the discussions to take place there the Office issued a report¹ in which information is given on various aspects of public works policies. Readers interested are referred to that volume for fuller details than can be given here. In this chapter all that can be done is to set down a few outstanding events of the year 1936. Among these will be noted, in particular, the enquiry inaugurated in Sweden with a view to a systematic planning of public works over a period of years, the appointment in Poland of a Capital Expenditure Board to co-ordinate financial policies, and the decision in a number of countries as far apart as Finland and New Zealand to abolish the system of special wage rates on relief works.

Australia. — The Australian Loan Council fixed the loan programme for the seven Australian Governments for the financial year ending 30 June 1937 at £19,910,000. Of this sum, the share of the Commonwealth was £3,750,000, of New South Wales £6,053,000, of Queensland £2,528,000, of South Australia £1,606,000, of Victoria £3,423,000, of Western Australia £1,717,000, and of Tasmania £833,000. In addition to loans the Commonwealth Government makes substantial grants to the States, often on a £ for a £ basis, to enable them to carry out their works programmes, and grants are also to be made to the States on a diminishing scale during the next two years to make possible additional employment in forestry and metalliferous mining. Additional grants, totalling £100,000, will be made annually for the next ten years to assist local authorities to meet interest and sinking fund charges

¹ INTERNATIONAL LABOUR CONFERENCE, Twenty-third Session: *Planning of Public Works in Relation to Employment*, Geneva, 1937.

on approved loans for public works, the amounts allocated to the various States being based on their relative populations.

The proposed expenditure of the Commonwealth Government itself on public works, etc., in 1936-1937 was £7,684,000, as compared with £5,237,000 actually expended during the previous year. Of the new expenditure, £4,577,000 was to be provided from revenue and £3,107,000 from loan.

In New South Wales, in view of the economic improvement and the appreciable decrease in the number of unemployed, it was decided to replace employment on emergency relief works by full-time employment on public works at arbitration award rates of pay. Extensive development and construction schemes were therefore approved to absorb the unemployed thus displaced. Works undertaken by local authorities are subsidised by the Government. Relief works are, however, to be continued on a gradually decreasing scale pending the full absorption of "employable" persons by public works and private industry.

In Queensland the approval of the Loan Council was obtained for the expenditure of £4,100,000 on all types of public works during the year 1935-1936. The expenditure of the Public Works Department alone during the year was £831,000.

In Victoria the estimated total amount of the loan programme for works for the year 1935-1936 was £4,500,000 (compared with an actual expenditure of £2,558,000 in 1934-1935), of which a substantial portion was to be allocated to unemployment relief works. The total expenditure of unemployment relief funds on relief works during the quarter ending 30 June 1936 was £1,737,000. The total number of men employed on relief works in May 1936 was 10,251.

Belgium. — An extraordinary budget for the financial year 1936 was submitted to Parliament on 30 October 1935. The expenditure provided for in this budget amounted to 2,303 million francs and was applicable almost entirely to public works, of which 1,121 million francs were for emergency expenditure and 1,182 million francs for expenditure by the Economic Reconstruction Office (OREC). This expenditure forms part of a larger programme which extends to the years 1937 and 1938.

The Government's policy in regard to public works for 1936 contemplated an increase of 1,000 million francs over 1935 and it was planned to provide direct and indirect employment for approximately 137,000 persons for a year.

The Royal Order of 30 March 1936 laid down new rules for the engagement of unemployed persons on public works. Such persons must now receive a wage at least equal to the normal wage for such work. The National Employment and Unemployment Office contributes to the wages of insured workers. The Order repealed the provisions heretofore in force concerning the right to require unemployed persons to take part in public works.

Under an Act of 11 April 1936 the special procedure for

expropriation may be applied when immediate possession of real estate is necessary to carry out public works for the relief of unemployment. This procedure may also be applied, with Government approval, in connection with public works initiated with the same end in view by provincial or local authorities.

On 24 June 1936 the head of the new Government announced that public works would be set on foot, special preference being given to those which were calculated to raise the living conditions of the workers; and that efforts would be made to promote cheap housing, the construction of hospitals, the purification of water supplies, the construction of sewage systems, the provision of sports grounds, etc.

Bulgaria. — A scheme of public works entrusted solely to teams of unemployed persons was in force in 1936. Forty public works schemes, mainly connected with road construction, water conservation, and railways, were provided for. A Decree of 26 June 1936 authorises the Minister of Public Works to expend up to 600 million levas on road construction and maintenance work.

Canada. — An Act was assented to on 8 April 1936 establishing a National Employment Commission of seven members. The duties of this Commission are, among others, to make proposals for programmes of public works and other projects to provide employment, to recommend co-operative measures with commercial and industrial groups for maintaining or increasing employment, and to formulate a long-range plan of national development.

The Unemployment Relief and Assistance Act assented to on 7 May 1936 provides that the Governor-General in Council may authorise the execution of such works as he deems in the best interests of Canada, giving employment thereon to those on the relief rolls of the Provinces where the work is to be undertaken. The Act provides for financial assistance to the Provinces by way of loans, advances or guarantees. It also provides for arrangements with private undertakings respecting the expansion of industrial employment.

Agreements were entered into with the nine Provincial Governments for a joint Federal-Provincial works programme totalling 30 million dollars, to be spent during the current fiscal year, in addition to the 40 million dollars to be expended by the Dominion Government on Federal projects. The work to be undertaken by the Provinces was to consist chiefly of highway construction and public parks.

Towards the end of 1936 the Government was co-operating with the Provinces in a scheme to place homeless single men in farm jobs. Each man so placed received 5 dollars a month, and a bonus of 2.50 dollars a month if he remained on the farm until 1 March 1937. The farmers also receive 5 dollars a month.

Ceylon. — The State Council passed a Bill authorising a loan of 100 million rupees for a four-year plan of public works and for

other purposes. The proposed works include two new law courts costing 2 million rupees, an oil dock costing 12 million rupees, and irrigation schemes costing 15 million rupees.

China. — Public works planned by the National Economic Council, as well as works planned by local authorities, continued throughout the year 1936 and consisted chiefly of water conservation, afforestation, and road construction. An Order was issued by the Government to the Ministries of the Interior, Communications, and Industries instructing them to outline definite programmes of construction work with special reference to roads, forestry, electrical schemes, telephone lines, land reclamation, water conservation, and flood and drought prevention.

Czechoslovakia. — The Minister of Public Works reported that during the first half of 1936 290,600,000 Kč. were expended on public works and Government supplies, including such works as the development of waterways, road building, bridges, airways and navigation, civil engineering, and State mines and foundries.

The Minister of Finance submitted an estimate of 5,249,621,600 Kč. for public works to be undertaken in 1937, 22.5 per cent. of which will be met from the ordinary income of the State and from State industries and funds; the remainder will be covered by loans. An Advisory Committee was set up on 23 November 1936 to ensure that the requirements of each province are taken into account when public works are planned.

Finland. — Because of the continued favourable conditions on the labour market, the Government abolished the system of reserve public works on 22 October 1936. On 1 November 1936 new regulations came into effect. The provision under which the State, in agreement with the local authorities, tried to place in employment not more than 75 per cent. of unemployed persons in receipt of relief was abolished. The State now organises relief works only at the request of a local authority. The system of reduced wages on State relief works was also abolished. Unemployed workers are now engaged through the employment exchanges instead of on the basis of registers of unemployment, and every worker or small farmer who is fit for work and is unemployed may be admitted to employment on State relief works.

France. — With the improvement in the general economic situation after the devaluation of the franc, the conditions were more favourable for carrying out the programme of public works under the Act of 18 August 1936, which had been passed for this purpose. It provided for a three-year plan of public works, in addition to programmes previously adopted, at a total cost of 20,000 million francs. Steps were also taken to expedite the procedure, particularly with regard to the expropriation of land. At the same time the Prime Minister informed the Finance Committee of the Chamber of Deputies that the Government intended to

speed up the works for which Parliamentary sanction had already been given but which had not yet been carried out. The workers under these schemes are to be exclusively of French nationality, and French materials and equipment are to be utilised except in specified cases approved by Ministerial decision.

Germany. — A number of regulations were issued concerning conditions on relief works.

A Circular, dated 3 October 1935, from the President of the Institution for Employment Exchanges and Unemployment Insurance to all exchanges introduced a new scheme for the execution of emergency works. The subsidy from the Institution is allowed in respect of new works only if the hours of employment are normal and if all persons occupied thereon either have been unemployed for more than six months in the last year or are entitled to family allowances for at least three persons. The Circular also prescribes the payment of family allowances to workers on new works.

Orders were issued on 18 February and 14 March 1936 amending certain regulations governing the execution of relief works. During 1936-1937 such works were as a rule to be carried out only in distressed areas. The subsidies granted by the Institution to local authorities were reduced and were only to be payable in respect of unemployed persons in receipt of unemployment insurance benefit or relief. Persons may be engaged on relief work for not more than 13 weeks, after which they may not be re-engaged until four months have elapsed.

On 25 March 1936 an Order was issued jointly by the Minister of Labour and the Prussian Minister of the Interior affecting works in the frontier districts. These works must be of such a character as to give employment to a large proportion of labour, and the expenditure, other than wages, must not exceed 15 marks a day per man employed. Plans must be submitted to an inter-departmental committee if it is proposed to engage not only those in receipt of benefit or relief but other unemployed persons as well.

Great Britain. — There was an expansion of public works activity during the year 1935-1936. The capital expenditure of local authorities for purposes other than housing continued to rise, there being an increase of 37.2 per cent. in the amount sanctioned by the Ministry of Health during the first eleven months of the financial year 1935-1936, as compared with the same period in 1934-1935. The policy of slum clearance was also actively pursued.

A five-year road plan, based on programmes submitted by local authorities, was initiated by the Government at the end of 1935, and during this period a sum of £130 million is to be spent on road improvement, in addition to the sums formerly spent on maintenance. A comprehensive programme of improvements estimated to cost about £12 million was drawn up by the Port of London Authority, the works including dock expansion and reconstruction, the construction of new bridges and quays, the building of ware-

houses, and the provision of electric cranes and other mechanical appliances.

The Commissioner for the Special Areas (England and Wales)¹ where unemployment is particularly acute issued his second report in February 1936, giving particulars of the measures taken and of the progress made during the previous six months in the economic development and social improvement of these depressed districts. The Commissioner recommended that a fund should be established for financing new industries, particularly the smaller miscellaneous industries; and the Special Areas Reconstruction (Agreement) Act which received the Royal Assent in May 1936 gave effect to this suggestion. In a final report, issued by the Commissioner before his retirement on 14 November 1936, he made further recommendations for specific action for the economic and social improvement of the areas.

The Distressed Areas Commission set up by the Labour Party to investigate conditions issued an interim report in January 1937, including a suggestion that a Minister of Cabinet rank should be appointed to be directly responsible for those areas, who would have at his disposal larger funds and powers than had been granted to the Commissioners.

The annual Government grant of £450,000 to the Forestry Fund is to be raised to £500,000 for the next five years, to permit an expansion of the normal planning programme. After consideration of the Commissioner for the Special Areas (England and Wales), the Forestry Commissioners were authorised early in 1936 to proceed with the first instalment of an afforestation scheme within about 15 miles of the Special Areas, which is estimated to require additional grants-in-aid to the Forestry Fund of about £1,650,000 over a period of years.

Greece. — A five-year land irrigation and drainage scheme was prepared by the Greek Government, including works already planned by the Ministry of Communications. The cost will amount to approximately 830 million drachmas.

Irish Free State. — Grants have been made available for the financing of public works in connection with land reclamation, and during 1935-1936 4,192 applicants qualified for grants, the amount granted totalling £11,652. State forestry operations are also undertaken, and the amount voted for the forestry service as a whole during 1935-1936 was £230,510. The total cost of works carried out by the Electricity Supply Board during the five years ended 31 March 1936 was £1,500,000. Special works for the relief of unemployment are also undertaken.

Italy. — Since May 1936 the Government has given orders for the construction of roads in East Africa intended to constitute the basis

¹ Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1934-35*, p. 324.

of the future road system. Post offices have been constructed at larger centres and one at Addis-Ababa, to deal with communications between Italy and the principal cities of East Africa. The Italian authorities also have under consideration the construction of a railway system to connect the principal ports with the inland towns.

Latvia. — During the fiscal year 1935-1936 a total of 6,288,000 lats was expended for public works. Of this amount, 6,160,000 lats were advanced by the State and the remainder by local authorities.

New Zealand. — The Employment Promotion Act, which was passed in May 1936, is mainly a consolidation of the Unemployment Act of 1930 and its amendments. It provides for an Employment Promotion Fund, derived from special taxation, to be used for the development of existing primary and secondary industries and of new industries, the making of arrangements with employers for the employment of unemployed persons, and the granting of assistance to unemployed persons or persons otherwise in need of assistance. The Unemployment Board is abolished and is replaced by the Department of Labour.¹

An extensive programme of public works is being undertaken, consisting more particularly of roads, railways, bridges, elimination of level crossings, and construction of aerodromes. The Minister of Public Works announced in May 1936 the preparation of a three-year public works plan involving an expenditure of approximately £17,500,000, and in August 1936 he announced a second programme involving an expenditure of £2,700,000. A sum of £100,000 was allocated for the purchase of modern machinery, in addition to £90,000 for plant for main highway work.

The Minister of Finance, in introducing his budget, provided for an expenditure of £10,450,000 on public works during the financial year 1936-1937. Of this sum £5,950,000 were to be provided by way of loan and £4,500,000 were to be derived from current revenue. The Minister explained that in 1932 and 1933 the loan expenditure on public works had been seriously curtailed. The present Government considered, however, that that was a mistake, and it had consequently taken immediate steps to increase loan expenditure and thus "to resume orderly development of the resources of the Dominion, thereby providing full employment on useful works for a large number of men". In addition, changes were made in the conditions of employment, and the system of reduced rates of pay was abolished. The Government, by an agreement with the New Zealand Workers' Union, raised wages to 16s. a day, established a five-day week, and provided for paid holidays and other benefits.

Peru. — On 22 September 1936 the Board responsible for the administration of the Unemployment Relief Fund issued a circular

¹ Certain changes in the previous Acts relating to unemployment relief are referred to below under the heading "Insurance and Relief Measures" (see p. 327).

to the various committees, setting forth the conditions for the grant subsidies for public works. Works must be productive and have the effect of reducing the number of unemployed persons. The Board's main concern has been to subsidise the construction of highways.

Poland. — The Government drafted a programme of public works to be undertaken by the various authorities in 1936; the expenditure was estimated at 223 million zloty, distributed among the different Government departments. A Capital Expenditure Board was set up to examine the various projects submitted by each Government department, after which the projects require the approval of the Economic Committee.

In July 1936 a four-year public works plan was put into operation, including work on communications, the development of waterways, electrification, construction of buildings, etc. Expenditure during the first year was estimated to amount to 340 million zloty, gradually increasing to 590 million in 1940. The social insurance institutions and other public insurance funds were to appropriate 70 per cent. of the capital they had available for long-term investment, and were thus to supply between 500 and 600 million zloty during the first four years. The contribution of the Employment Fund was estimated to amount to 150-200 million zloty for the same period, while the State Budget and State undertakings were to supply about 400 million zloty. It was planned that the State Banking institutions would also contribute between 60 and 400 million zloty.

Early in 1936 the Council of the Bank of Poland decided to place at the disposal of the Government 20 million zloty for the immediate increase of employment on road works.

The Employment Fund fixed the rates of wages payable to workers employed on public relief works in 1936-1937 on the basis of the cost of living in the various districts.

Sweden. — A Committee of Experts was appointed on 22 January 1936 to make an inventory, in collaboration with the Ministry of Transport and Public Works, of the works which should be concentrated on periods of depression. It proposed that State authorities and institutions should supply information before 1 July 1936 showing the public works which ought in the ordinary way to be carried out during the five years 1937-1942 and those works which might be organised during this period with a view to relieving unemployment. The communal and provincial authorities were to supply information through the provincial governors to cover a period of ten years (1937-1946); the particulars were to relate (1) to works which might be expected to be carried out during this period with State subsidies or loans under existing regulations, (2) to works which might be advanced or postponed in accordance with the state of the labour market, and (3) to other works which could not be carried out without State assistance. Similar informa-

tion was required in regard to works of public utility planned by private bodies and individuals. Provincial governors were further to furnish information as to schemes for road construction work covering several years which were in course of preparation and were expected to be completed in the period 1941-1946, and also concerning road construction which could be carried out during the period 1937-1946 if the State were to give special assistance towards relieving unemployment. Timber-floating associations were to give similar information for the same ten-year period concerning construction work with which they were concerned. The provincial agricultural societies and the forestry authorities were also to furnish information as to schemes for agriculture and forestry for the ten-year period.

The State Building Administration approved a proposal for long-term planning of the construction of State buildings. It was suggested that a five-year plan should be drawn up and submitted to the Riksdag for approval.

An Act was passed during the year appropriating a credit for the financial year 1936-1937 of 3 million kronor for so-called advanced public works, and 2 million kronor for State purchases of the products of the paving-stone industry. The credit for advanced public works was to be used particularly in regions and localities especially hard-hit by unemployment.

Switzerland. — For 1937 Parliament granted the Federal authorities a credit of 30 million francs with a view to promoting public works. It was estimated that the subsidies paid by the Confederation as a result of this credit would result in the carrying out of works amounting to 230 million francs, not including 70 million francs for military equipment and supplies.

Union of South Africa. — Extensive national works are in progress and every able-bodied unemployed man who is willing to accept work on these schemes can be provided with employment. Men who are not physically fit for employment on the national schemes are given work on schemes for preventing soil erosion and eradicating noxious weeds.

United States. — At 30 June 1936 the sum expended on public works and relief under the Federal Emergency Relief Act of 8 April 1935 had reached 3,424,564,515 dollars. On 23 June 1936 the President signed an Emergency Appropriation Act, which contained an appropriation of 1,425,000,000 dollars to be spent on relief work under the Works Progress Administration, together with unexpended balances from funds appropriated by the Federal Emergency Relief Act of 1935. This money was intended for such works as highways, roads and streets, public buildings, parks and other recreational facilities, public utilities, flood control, assistance for educational, professional and clerical professions, National Youth Administration works, and loans and relief to

farmers. The Act also authorises the President to use not more than 300 million dollars from funds in hand, or to be received from the sale of securities by the Public Works Administration, for making grants-in-aid of such projects, provided they can be substantially completed by 1 July 1938. In no case may the amount of the grant exceed 45 per cent. of the cost of the project.

The National Resources Committee, established to co-operate with Federal and local authorities in planning public works, had in hand the preparation of a six-year programme under the direction of the 46 State Planning Boards.

U.S.S.R. — Among the provisions of the new Constitution of the Soviet Union is one stating that all citizens have "the right to receive guaranteed work with payment for their work in accordance with its quantity and quality. The right to work is ensured by the socialist organisation of national economy, the steady growth of the productive forces of Soviet society, the elimination of the possibility of economic crises, and the abolition of unemployment".

ADJUSTMENT OF LABOUR SUPPLY AND DEMAND

The value of employment exchanges is very widely recognised. They are not, of course, a means of increasing the demand for labour, but merely of adjusting the supply to the demand; but this is just why they are as useful in times of prosperity as in times of depression. It is no coincidence that economic recovery has been accompanied by numerous measures to establish and to reorganise placing systems. Recent experiences have shown indeed that the present feverish activity in certain branches of production has revealed a serious maladjustment between the supply of certain kinds of labour and the demand for them. In practically every industrial country complaints have been made that a sufficient number of skilled workers cannot be found, and the reasons are not far to seek. During the depression opportunities for learning a skilled trade were relatively infrequent, and the number of apprentices and technical students fell off. The evil, however, goes back still further. During the war, production was necessarily concentrated on industries which served the needs of the war. Afterwards they had to curtail their production considerably, and armament manufacture in particular fell to a low level. Now that these same branches of production are once more being swollen by large Government orders, just at the time when private industry is prosperous, an exceptionally large number of skilled workers is required, and they have to be trained. During the depression many workers lost their skill and some skilled workmen turned to unskilled work in order to earn a living. The employment exchanges can play a considerable part in dealing with this problem, for they know the situation so far as the supply of labour is concerned better than anyone else and can suggest measures for increasing the supply

of particular kinds of labour if that is required. In connection with the organisation of public works as a means of evening out economic fluctuations, they can also be of great service by giving advice as to the best time for speeding up or slowing down work schemes according to circumstances.

Australia. — According to a speech made by the President of the Bank of New South Wales at the general meeting in Sydney on 27 November 1936, a shortage of skilled labour has appeared in certain industries owing to the fact that few firms were able to undertake the training of apprentices during the depression. Even if firms had been far-seeing enough to desire to continue such training, the laws preventing the employment of more than a given proportion of apprentices to fully qualified men seriously reduced their opportunity of doing so. It might be possible to provide for the immigration of such men, but even this had its limitations as there was a similar shortage of skilled men in Great Britain and other countries. The only other way out was an increase in the facilities for technical education, together with some temporary relaxation of apprenticeship restrictions, which would ease the situation and promote the absorption of more unskilled labour, which could not be employed until skilled men are available.

Belgium. — The placing of workers free of charge by public employment exchanges was reorganised by a Royal Decree of 25 May 1936 with a view to ensuring greater efficiency. The National Employment and Unemployment Office is now required to set up in each of its district branches a public placing service, which will operate free of charge and at which all unemployed workers, whether they are insured or not, may register. The public employment exchanges which were in existence before the Order was issued were to be closed. The Order contains various provisions concerning the compilation of unemployment statistics, the supervision of insured unemployed workers, and the regular communication of information which will enable the National Office to arrange for the transfer of workers from one locality to another. Unofficial employment exchanges may, as previously, be approved and subsidised by the State. They must satisfy the Minister of Labour that their existence is necessary and that they place workers free of charge. No unofficial exchange may be approved unless it has operated for at least one year under the supervision of the National Office and in accordance with the regulations laid down in the Order.

The Central Industrial Committee, at a general meeting held on 23 December 1936, urged that measures should be undertaken for the vocational retraining of the unemployed in order to prevent the recurrence of a situation in which, despite the existence of large numbers of unemployed persons, certain industries were complaining of a shortage of skilled workers.

Canada. — The Executive Council of the Canadian Manufacturers' Association (Montreal, 12 November 1936) adopted a report of the Industrial Relations Committee which dealt, among other matters, with the question of apprenticeship. The replies to a questionnaire sent out by the Committee showed clearly that there was already a decided shortage of skilled workers, particularly in the metal trades, and that there was every prospect of a serious shortage in a number of other trades, particularly if business improved appreciably. The Committee found that the great majority of skilled men now employed in Canada were British-trained, but that a good many British-trained men had been returning to Great Britain as a result of the great industrial activity in armament manufacture and otherwise in that country. In these circumstances, the Committee was of the opinion that energetic steps should be taken by industry itself to train young workers by means of an apprenticeship or other training scheme. Otherwise, there was a risk that pressure would be brought to bear upon Governments to pass compulsory legislation, which the Committee considered would not be in the best interests of industry or of the young workers themselves.

The National Employment Commission, to which reference has already been made, has, as part of its duties, to study and recommend to the Minister of Labour an apprenticeship system in industry and also to provide employment for ex-service men.

China. — In Shanghai all fee-charging employment agencies have been required since December 1935 to register with the municipal authorities.

A scheme was inaugurated in Nanking for the teaching of handicrafts to the unemployed in various charity homes in that city. The sum of 15,000 dollars was allotted by the Bureau of Social Affairs to finance the scheme.

Cuba. — Several Decrees were issued to give effect to the Act of 7 May 1935 which made provision for the establishment of public employment exchanges in the capital of each province, to be conducted at the expense of the municipality. These exchanges, which commenced work on 1 August 1936, have been opened in all towns with a population of over 20,000. Under a Decree of 28 July 1936 the first duty of employment exchanges is to compile statistics of employment, unemployment, and wages. A Decree of 11 August 1936 requires all workers, whether employed or unemployed, to register with an exchange and obtain a card; without this card they may no longer be engaged by any employer. A Decree of 25 August 1936 set up a supervisory committee in the Ministry of Labour.

Czechoslovakia. — On 9 July 1936 the Government issued a Legislative Decree, which came into force on 1 October 1936, to reorganise the public employment exchanges. An adequate number of vocational guidance offices are also being set up and

attached to the larger exchanges. Employers requiring workers are required to notify the competent exchange of all posts falling vacant and of newly-created posts. All persons in search of work are required to apply to the employment exchange in their place of residence or to an exchange in the district in which they want work. Placing must be carried out free of charge. Trade unions and employers' organisations may continue to place workers only after obtaining a permit from the Ministry of Social Welfare. It is forbidden to grant a permit for the opening of a new fee-charging employment agency, and those operating when the Decree came into force will expire with the death of the holder of the permit and in any case not later than ten years from the date on which the Decree came into force.

Danzig. — An Order issued by the Senate of the Free City of Danzig, which came into effect on 10 November 1936, regulates the placing of workers and apprentices, as also vocational guidance, which is now entrusted to the Labour Office.

Finland. — An Act of 23 July 1936 relating to employment exchanges came into operation on 1 January 1937. It repealed the Act of 27 March 1926 and is intended to improve the organisation of the employment exchanges. Every commune must set up an employment exchange or appoint one or more employment agents, and those with shipping interests must organise a special section for the placing of seamen. The Ministry of Social Affairs may order the setting-up of special sections for young persons or professional workers. Under the new Act the State subsidy to exchanges is based on the actual cost of placing; in the case of employment agents the subsidy is based on the number of transactions. All placing services must be free of charge, with the exception of those of associations acting as employment agencies exclusively for their members; such agencies are entitled to charge a fee, the rate of which is fixed when the permit is issued. Permits are issued for a maximum period of five years.

Germany. — As the result of an Act of 5 November 1935 which transferred from the German Labour Front to the Institution for Employment Exchanges and Unemployment Insurance the control of all placing offices originally set up by the old trade unions, the Institution has sole competence with regard to vocational guidance and the placing of both workers and apprentices. The Act also provides that the President of the Institution may, in agreement with the Minister of Labour, require preferential treatment as regards placing to be given to certain groups of persons if this is in the national interest.

A Decree issued on 17 January 1936 established a system of employment books and stipulated that, after 1 March 1936, no workers could be employed in certain specified occupations unless they were in possession of such books. A list of occupations to which this regulation applies was issued subsequently.

The application of the four-year plan has called attention to a shortage of skilled workers, and in order to meet the unsatisfied demand the Commissioner for the plan issued a series of Decrees on 7 November 1936. The first Decree orders public and private undertakings in the metal industries and the building trades to employ a number of apprentices in proportion to the size of their skilled staff. On the basis of information supplied by the undertakings, the President of the Institution for Employment Exchanges and Unemployment Insurance is to fix a compulsory number of apprentices for each undertaking. The second Decree provides that no public or private undertaking in ten specified branches of production may increase its staff by more than ten persons in any one quarter without prior authorisation from the competent employment exchange of the district, the aim of this measure being to prevent undertakings with important orders to carry out from being short of the necessary staff. Under the third Decree, all industrial undertakings must notify the authorities of all skilled metal and building workers whom they have employed for two weeks or more on work outside their trades, and the employment exchange is authorised immediately to transfer such workers to an undertaking where their trade knowledge can be used to better advantage. The fourth Decree stipulates that all public and private building specifications must be submitted to the competent employment exchange at least four weeks before work is timed to begin, with details as to the number of workers required and the quantity and value of the materials to be used. The Decree aims at obtaining the necessary labour and raw materials for work which is considered important from a political or economic point of view. A fifth Decree prohibits the publication of anonymous offers of employment unless such offers have been authorised by an employment exchange, the object being to prevent metal and building workers from being recruited in a haphazard or clandestine manner. A sixth Decree obliges undertakings to engage a certain proportion of workers over 40 years of age. The object of this is to ensure, as far as possible, that the entire working strength of the German people is used to the best advantage. As a result of the measures outlined above the Institution for Employment Exchanges and Unemployment Insurance has made a number of consequential amendments in its own regulations.

Great Britain. — In a White Paper issued by the Minister of Labour, concerning his discussions with representatives, employers and workers in certain industries, on the subject of the absorption of the unemployed into work in those industries, it was pointed out that there was evidence of present or prospective shortages of skilled labour in some of the industries concerned. Attention was called, in the case of certain industries, to the desirability of reviewing the position in regard to the present and prospective provision of an adequate supply of skilled labour in some of the occupations in the industries. In this connection, the age distribution of the personnel was discussed, and also the possibility of securing better

prospects for the young persons entering the industry and of ensuring that the industry would have an adequate supply of adult labour in the future. In the case of other industries, the question of facilitating the transference of labour was discussed in some detail, particularly that from depressed areas to those where the demand for labour was greater. Further, the possibility of providing other work for the purpose of counteracting the effect of mechanisation on employment in certain industries was considered, and the assistance of the Minister was asked with a view to encouraging the entry of apprentices in certain occupations.

The Minister of Labour stated in October 1936 that since July 1935 the number of places available at Government training centres had been increased by over 2,500, and provision had been made for a further increase of 1,500. Steps had been taken to provide refresher courses in the engineering trades for skilled men who, through long unemployment, had lost touch with modern industrial practice. The provision which was being made would enable between 16,000 and 17,000 persons to pass through the centres annually.

Hungary. — The Minister of Industry stated that there existed in Hungary a number of private employment agencies and only one public employment exchange, but that Hungary was not in a position to develop placing facilities on the scale recommended by the International Labour Office. He added that the Government would exercise more rigid supervision over private employment agencies, the number of which would be reduced, and that they would be co-ordinated and linked up with the public employment exchange. Fee-charging employment agencies would be allowed to operate only for a certain time and no new licences would be issued.

On 5 February 1937 it was announced that the Ministry of Commerce had completed the draft of a Bill providing for the gradual abolition of fee-charging agencies; this Bill is based on the Convention and Recommendation of the International Labour Conference.

Iran. — On 10 August 1936 the Government approved a Regulation for Factories and Industrial Establishments. This provides, among other things, that the local and provincial authorities must set up employment exchanges to place workers in employment and provide employers with labour.

Iraq. — The Labour Act of 25 April 1936 provides that the Government may issue regulations establishing employment exchanges in Baghdad and in any other locality where it may seem necessary. Such exchanges are to be supervised by the Government, which is to form a committee including representatives of employers and workers to advise on general questions respecting the administration of employment exchanges.

Italy. — The national collective agreement for migrant harvesters which was drawn up in May 1936, affecting approximately 500,000 workers, provides that all workers must be engaged through the official agricultural employment exchanges.

Japan. — A Bill revising the Employment Exchanges Act was passed on 22 May 1936, and came into force on 1 September 1936. It provides that cities, towns and villages may open employment exchanges if they wish, and may be obliged to do so by the Minister of the Interior. Bodies other than local political units can also open exchanges with the authorisation of the provincial governors. All exchanges organised in virtue of the above-mentioned Act must give their services free of charge.

New Zealand. — The Labour Department has organised a vocational analysis of all registered relief workers and disengaged persons seeking employment. Applicants are personally interviewed by placement officers, who obtain full records of their past experience, competence, integrity, etc. The information submitted is verified, and "employment certificates" are issued indicating as far as possible the particular employment for which the applicant is fitted. The placement officers also approach employers and keep them informed of the labour supply. The main object of the scheme is to reinstate unemployed men in their own trades. During the first ten weeks of its effective operation 1,462 men were placed in permanent employment and 1,185 in temporary positions.

Spain. — A Decree of 26 March 1936 made it compulsory for employers and workers in agriculture to give notice of vacancies and applications for employment to the public employment exchanges.

Turkey. — According to the Labour Code which was adopted on 8 June 1936, the State undertakes to make arrangements to find employment for workers corresponding to their qualifications and to furnish employers with workers able to do the work required of them. For this purpose the Government will set up a central organisation and, wherever it appears necessary, branches of this organisation, under the supervision of the Ministry of National Economy. These provisions are not to come into force until three years from the date of the Act.

United States. — The Committee on Employment of the Chamber of Commerce stated that there was a shortage of skilled labour in industry, and that there had been an almost complete breakdown in the trade apprentice system due to the depression. On the other hand, the Director of the United States Employment Service said that, except in some highly technical pursuits, there was no dearth of skilled labour that could not be met by shifting supply to meet demand. Necessarily, men had lost some of their skill during the long period of unemployment, but patience on the part

of their new employers and a brief period of training would help them to get it back. To guard against any shortage in the future, however, a widespread training of men and women should be started either through apprenticeships or trade schools, with close care given to match the training with rising industrial demands.

At the Third National Conference on Labour Legislation convened in Washington from 9 to 11 November 1936, the Secretary of Labor announced that 42 States maintained State Employment Services or were co-operating with the United States Employment Service. In States where no regular Employment Service has been established an emergency organisation of the Federal Service carries on the work. During 38 months of operation (June 1933 to September 1936) more than 16,800,000 workers were placed, including 3,780,000 in private establishments.

A specialised junior placement service was added to some public employment offices under the National Youth Administration in co-operation with the State Employment Services.

Venezuela. — A new Labour Act of 16 July 1936 provides for a national employment exchange at the capital and branch exchanges in the most important industrial centres, while in other places the local civil authorities will undertake the placing work.

INSURANCE AND RELIEF MEASURES

The main feature of the year under review in this field was the rapid increase in the number of State Acts in the United States adopted in application of the Federal Social Security Act of 14 August 1935, which was described in the last issue of the *Year-Book*¹. In Great Britain agriculture was brought within the scope of unemployment insurance. In Canada the Act of 28 June 1935 setting up a compulsory unemployment insurance system was declared unconstitutional. On the other hand, in Belgium the transformation of the present voluntary scheme into a compulsory scheme is under consideration; and in Australia, New Zealand, and the Union of South Africa proposals were made for the introduction of compulsory unemployment insurance.

The following table shows the number of persons covered (or estimated to be covered) by compulsory unemployment insurance in 10 countries and by voluntary unemployment insurance in 12 countries (Switzerland being included in both categories).

On 23 July 1936 the Czechoslovak and Swedish Governments signed an agreement providing for the payment of benefit from State-subsidised unemployment funds to nationals of the other State resident in their territory on the same basis as to their own nationals. Any change must be notified six months in advance.

The Establishment and Labour Treaty, concluded between Belgium and the Netherlands which came into force on 6 February

¹ Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1935-1936*, p. 334.

Country	Date to which figures relate	Number of persons covered ¹
<i>Countries with compulsory schemes:</i>		
Australia (Queensland)	April 1937	200,000
Austria ²	November 1936	1,129,000
Bulgaria	1933-1934	206,000
Germany	August 1936	14,408,000
Great Britain and Northern Ireland ³	July 1936	14,285,000
Irish Free State	1934-1935	400,000
Italy	1934	4,500,000
Poland	August 1936	1,166,000
Switzerland ⁴	September 1936	245,000
United States ⁵	December 1936	17,000,000
		53,539,000
<i>Countries with subsidised voluntary schemes:</i>		
Belgium	August 1936	947,000
Czechoslovakia	September 1936	1,588,000
Denmark	March 1936	408,000
Finland	1933	17,000
France ⁶	1934	222,000 ⁶
Greece	1936	48,000
Japan ⁷	August 1935	7,000
Netherlands	November 1936	465,000
Norway	January 1936	57,000
Spain	January 1936	62,000
Sweden	January 1937	102,000
Switzerland ⁸	September 1936	307,000
		4,230,000

¹ Every effort has been made to give figures showing the total number of persons covered by each scheme, whether they were employed or unemployed at the time of the count.

² This figure includes a certain number of persons who are no longer "insured" owing to the fact that they have exhausted their right to benefit.

³ This figure includes 588,000 persons who are insured under the scheme for agricultural workers.

⁴ Estimate; 17 cantons or half-cantons, in 4 of which insurance is compulsory in certain communes only.

⁵ Estimated number of persons covered by Unemployment Compensation Acts in 35 States and the District of Columbia which have adopted such Acts.

⁶ In addition about 5,000 persons working on their own account were insured in voluntary insurance funds.

⁷ This figure relates to the membership of voluntary mutual aid societies established by certain municipalities.

⁸ Estimate; 8 cantons or half-cantons.

1936 provides among other things for equality of treatment for nationals of the two countries as regards unemployment insurance and relief.

By an exchange of notes on 25 July 1936 the Swiss and Swedish Governments mutually agreed to grant equality of treatment in regard to insurance benefits payable by approved unemployment funds to nationals of the other State resident in their territory. The agreement will remain in operation until one year after its denunciation by one of the contracting States.

Australia. — Owing to the improved economic situation, reductions in unemployment relief taxation were made or were

announced for the immediate future in three States. In Queensland incomes from employment not exceeding £78 a year were exempted from such taxation as from 1 October 1935 and a reduction of one penny in the £ was made in respect of incomes exceeding that amount. In New South Wales graduated reductions, which came into operation on 1 January 1936, were made in the unemployment relief taxation imposed on the wages of lower-paid workers and small income holders, the tax on wages and incomes in excess of £250 a year remaining unaltered. Food relief is granted to men for whom no relief work is available, the weekly amount given being graduated according to family responsibilities. In Victoria a Bill was introduced providing for a reduction of 10 per cent. in the rates of unemployment relief taxation and for the raising of the minimum taxable income from £52 to £105. The sustenance allowance for children under 16 years of age was increased as from 24 August 1936 from 2s. 6d. to 3s. 6d. a week.

Austria. — The system of winter relief was continued during the winter 1935-1936. Collections were made throughout the country and a contribution of 3,500,000 schillings was made by the Federal Government. A large proportion of the relief was given in the form of clothing.

Belgium. — The most important event in this field in 1936 was the decision announced by the Prime Minister on 24 June 1936 to transform the existing voluntary insurance scheme into a compulsory scheme. A Royal Order of 7 November 1936 created the post of Royal Commissioner for the Study of Unemployment Questions, the principal task of the Commissioner being to prepare the necessary legislation. The Central Industrial Committee, the Belgian Trade Union Committee, and the Federation of Christian Trade Unions all adopted resolutions in favour of compulsory unemployment insurance, but there were serious differences of opinion as to the methods of applying it.

In the meantime a number of changes were made in the present scheme. Thus, the National Employment and Unemployment Office, on which the scheme is centred, was empowered to exercise stricter control than in the past in the administration of unemployment insurance, particularly with regard to the management of trade union funds. A Royal Order of 25 May 1936 established closer co-operation between unemployment insurance and placing, thus making possible, among other things, an improvement in the method of compiling unemployment statistics and a more careful verification that the conditions for the receipt of benefit are strictly complied with. A further Order of 4 July 1936 made it somewhat easier for workers to obtain admission to an approved fund, one of the objects of this measure being to facilitate the introduction of compulsory unemployment insurance. The Order also gave the funds greater discretion in respect of the waiting period, and increased the rates of benefit.

Since the end of 1935 the contributions of provinces and communes to unemployment insurance have been reduced. That of the provinces is now fixed at 10 per cent. of the expenditure of the National Employment and Unemployment Office and that of the communes at 20,000,000 francs annually, plus a small percentage of the amount paid by the State.

Canada. — In June 1936 the Employment and Social Insurance Act of June 1935, which provided for compulsory unemployment insurance on lines similar to those of the British Act, was declared unconstitutional by the Supreme Court of Canada. An appeal was made to the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council, but was rejected.

On 19 December 1935 the Dominion Government substantially increased the amounts of grants-in-aid to each of the Provinces to assist them in discharging their responsibilities for the relief of necessitous persons. From 1 December 1935 to 31 March 1936 the grants amounted to 3,066,218.75 dollars per month. On 1 April 1936 the grants were reduced to 2,606,285.94 dollars per month for the first quarter of the fiscal year 1936-37; for the remainder of the fiscal year the grants were further reduced to 2,345,657.35 dollars per month.

An Act establishing a National Employment Commission of seven members was assented to on 8 April 1936. The duties of this Commission are, among other things, to register and classify persons on relief, to study and recommend to the Minister of Labour the conditions under which the Provinces may obtain grants for relief purposes, and to recommend means of co-ordinating the work of all relief agencies.

On 7 May 1936 the Unemployment Relief and Assistance Act of 1936 was assented to. It makes provision for agreements between the Dominion Government and the various Provinces for Federal assistance for relief purposes and for the renewal and consolidation of loans, advances or guarantees made under previous Relief Acts. This Act may be considered a continuing Act, but a new and important feature in the 1936 measure is that expenditures are to be limited to specific relief appropriations, which Parliament is asked to approve.

Following an investigation by a Commission of Enquiry, the relief camps for unemployed men were closed on 1 July 1936. Since then employment on maintenance work is given by the Canadian National and Canadian Pacific Railways. Agreements between the Dominion Government and the Railways provided for reimbursement by the Government to each Railway of the wage cost up to a maximum of 1,520,450 dollars. The Government also assumed liability for any amount paid by the Railways under statute for compensation to these workers arising out of injury or death.

Czechoslovakia. — A Legislative Decree of 31 March 1936 extended for one year the provisions of the Legislative Decree of 29 July

1933 which laid down certain restrictions on the right to unemployment benefit. The new Decree also contained provisions to improve the position of unemployed persons. Hitherto the State supplement could not be granted a second time except to insured persons who had been members of a trade association for a further period of six months. Now the supplement may be paid a second time if a period of 52 weeks (65 weeks in certain occupations) has elapsed since the first day of benefit. The Decree of 29 July 1933 had provided that where two or more members of a family were receiving unemployment benefit, bonuses for dependants could be granted only to one member of the family, while the others would receive only half of the State supplement to which they were entitled. This reduction in the supplement was abolished by the new Decree.

The Government put into effect a scheme of assistance for the children of unemployed persons. The scheme applies to children between the ages of 6 and 14 and also in some degree to unemployed persons in poor health up to 21 years of age. In addition, a system of relief in kind operates to assist unemployed persons who have exhausted their right to insurance benefit or who are not entitled to receive it. It is administered by local and district social welfare committees and no restriction as to duration is imposed.

Denmark. — On 4 December 1936 the Riksdag passed a Bill providing for a temporary extension, during the period 1 December 1936 to 31 March 1937, of the maximum period for the receipt of unemployment benefit from 70 to 140 days a year.

France. — A Decree of 3 June 1936, issued in virtue of a previous Decree of 8 August 1935 concerning unemployment assistance for handicraftsmen, authorises the chambers of handicrafts of Alsace and Moselle to set up and administer unemployment funds for the payment of allowances to any of their members who may be completely deprived of the work from which they formerly earned their living. In particular, these chambers may insert in their annual budget money for the working of these funds.

Changes were made in the actual rates of the allowances paid. A Decree of 26 August 1936 increased the rates of daily allowances paid to unemployed persons, which also serve as a basis for the calculation of the State subsidy. These allowances now amount to 8 francs for the head of a household, 4.50 francs for the wife (or husband) and other relatives dependent on the head of the household, and 4 francs for children of under 16 years. In each unemployment assistance fund a scale must be drawn up for unemployed persons in receipt of assistance for more than 180 days during a period of twelve months, showing the total amount of the resources of all kinds (including the unemployment allowance of the unemployed person and the members of his household) which a claimant for allowances may possess. A further Decree of 10 September 1936 increased the total amount of unemployment allowances which may be granted to a single household to 20.50 francs, or 23 francs

if the household includes three children under 16 years of age, 26 francs if there are four, and 29 francs if there are five or more. Finally, a Decree of 31 July 1936 increased from 3.50 francs to 5 francs the allowance paid in respect of children under 16 years of age who are not working and who are dependent on the head of the household, when these children are in a holiday home (*colonie de vacances*). This increase may not be applied for more than 50 days. The allowance is paid directly to the commune or the organisation responsible for the children in the home.

Germany. — By an Order which came into effect on 15 March 1936 the system of short-time benefit, ordinarily limited to undertakings employing not less than ten persons, was extended in the butchery trade to small undertakings with less than the minimum number of workers, but the right to benefit is confined to persons who have completed their apprenticeship, receive board and lodging from their employer, and are not mainly concerned with sales to the public. In August 1935 arrangements were made so that no waiting period would be required for the grant of short-time benefit to workers in certain coal mines. These arrangements were later renewed up to the end of March 1937.

The system of special benefit for workers on short time in industries where working time is reduced owing to a shortage of raw materials was extended to include the fur trade and boot and shoe factories employing not less than ten persons. An Order which took effect on 1 September 1936 extended the system of special benefit to undertakings in the rubber industry employing not less than ten workers or salaried employees. On 14 September 1936 an Order came into force giving special assistance to short-time workers in the textile industry. The system of special benefit for short-time workers was modified by an Order of 5 September 1936 (with effect from 1 September 1936), which repealed the Orders of 1 July 1932 and 7 and 11 December 1935.

Great Britain. — The Bill extending the unemployment insurance scheme to agricultural workers, to which reference was made in the *Year-Book* for 1935-1936¹, became law on 9 April 1936. The scheme covers workers employed in agriculture, including horticulture and forestry, with the exception of sons and daughters or other near relations of the employer. Private gardeners were specifically included by an Order of December 1936. The weekly rates of contribution and of benefit are graduated according to age and sex and are lower than those in the general insurance scheme. Rebates of contributions will be paid to farmers and farm workers in the case of yearly and half-yearly hirings, and supplementary benefits will be granted for dependants. To qualify for benefit an applicant must have paid 20 contributions

¹ Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1935-1936*, p. 332.

during the two years preceding the date of claim, and the duration of benefit is calculated at the rate of 12 days' benefit in respect of the first ten contributions and 3 further days for every additional contribution, subject to a maximum of 300 days' benefit in a benefit year.

Effect was given during the year to a recommendation of the Unemployment Insurance Statutory Committee by reducing the contributions of employers and workers under the general scheme by one penny a week in the case of persons aged 18 and over. A protest against this reduction as a means of using the £6,500,000 per annum Unemployment Fund surplus was made by the British Trades Union Congress at its September session, 1936, and the General Council recommended for the disposal of the surplus (a) the abolition of the waiting week, (b) an increase of benefits, and (c) an extension of the benefit period beyond the present 26 weeks.

As regards unemployment assistance for those who have exhausted their right to benefit and who are outside the scope of the insurance scheme, new regulations to replace those temporarily suspended in 1935 were approved in July 1936 and came into operation on 16 November 1936. Under the new regulations there are in many cases increases over the payments previously made, but there are also a certain number of reductions and these are being made gradually to avoid hardship. The provisions concerning rent allowances were made more flexible and the contributions required of earning members of a household for the support of its unemployed members were reduced in amount, and the group required to make such contributions was considerably narrowed. A new provision lays down that any worker who is head of a household and has dependants and no available resources will be assessed at not less than the insurance benefit rate. The advice of local advisory committees appointed by the Unemployment Assistance Board will be sought on the administration of the regulations and on the adjustment of allowances for rent, and to meet special circumstances.

Greece. — The Department of Labour circularised all industrial undertakings to take measures to relieve unemployment, including the organisation of soup kitchens.

Hungary. — The Minister of the Interior published an Order relating to relief work in provincial towns, to the effect that in future a needs test will be made before relief work is given and relief will be given only when corresponding work is performed. Whenever possible, relief work must be paid for at piece rates, and wage rates must correspond to the lowest rates in force in the locality. Persons receiving work are not given public assistance.

Iraq. — The Labour Act of 25 April 1936 provides that the Government may issue regulations setting up a special savings

fund for workers and making unemployment, sickness or accident insurance compulsory.

Japan. — An Act making compulsory a money allowance to workers leaving their employment was passed by the Diet on 27 May 1936 and became effective on 1 January 1937. It applies to all factories and mines employing not less than 50 workers, but covers only wage earners and not salaried employees or professional workers. The financial resources needed for giving effect to the Act are provided by contributions of 2 per cent. of the wages of workers and 2 per cent. of the total wages paid by the employers, to which a further contribution is made by employers in proportion to profits, fixed in each instance by the authorities responsible for administering the Act. The right is reserved to employers, subject to approval of the authorities, to constitute retirement allowance funds on a different basis.

Netherlands Indies. — Provision was made for a maximum expenditure on unemployment relief of one million florins in 1936. Unemployment relief is considered primarily a matter of private initiative, and direct relief in cash and in kind is limited to European unemployed and to unemployed natives and Chinese who live on a similar footing to Europeans.

New Zealand. — The Employment Promotion Act of May 1936, like the previous Act, makes no specific provision for the payment of allowances to unemployed women, but it authorises the Ministers of Labour and Finance to make such payments at their discretion; and it accords them similar discretion in fixing the maximum allowance payable to a man, his wife and dependants, thus ruling out existing statutory limits.

A new scale of sustenance payments was fixed which represents increases over the previous rates ranging from 3s. per week in the case of a single man to 13s. per week in the case of a man supporting seven dependent children. The present rate is 17s. per week for a single man and 29s. per week for a married man, plus an allowance for each dependent child of 4s. per week, up to a maximum of 57s. per week.

Poland. — A decision taken by the Minister of Social Welfare on 26 May 1936 extends the obligation to insure against unemployment to all workers employed on works financed by the Employment Fund. This decision became operative retroactively from 1 April 1936.

The Government established on 25 September 1936 a Central Committee for the Relief of Unemployed Persons in Winter. Collections in cash were made in industry, commerce, banking, and handicrafts, and among real property owners, members of liberal professions and public services, and salaried employees. For the collection in kind appeals were made to agricultural

undertakings and those commercial and industrial undertakings which were in a position to supply products useful to unemployed persons. In order to qualify for this relief, applicants must show that before becoming unemployed they lived exclusively on their earnings, that they are able to work, and that they did not lose their employment through their own fault; that they have lived for at least three months in a district covered by the relief scheme; and that they are not in receipt of unemployment allowances, pensions, or private incomes, and have no other means of livelihood. Relief may be granted to young persons with a vocational training who have never been in paid employment. The credits provided for the year 1936-1937 for relief in kind amounted to 19 million zloty as against 17.5 million for 1935-1936.

Sweden. — An Act was passed amending the 1934 Order relating to recognised unemployment funds. It provides for a qualifying period of 26 contribution weeks during the 12 months preceding unemployment in place of the former 52 weeks in a 24 months' period. An unemployed person who obtains temporary employment not exceeding 18 days will not be required to requalify. Periods of military service are not counted in the qualifying period, nor is the time a woman remains away from work before and after childbirth. On 30 April 1936 a provision was adopted that where an insured person has been employed after sickness, the period of sickness may be deducted from the qualifying period on certification by a doctor.

Switzerland. — The Federal Council issued an Order with effect from 1 January 1936 to bring the financial system of the insurance scheme into harmony with measures to restore the Federal finances in 1936 and 1937. The Federal basic subsidy to the unemployment insurance funds was reduced to 25 per cent. of the benefits paid by public funds and joint (employers' and workers') funds and 20 per cent. of the benefits paid by trade union funds, instead of 40 per cent. and 30 per cent. respectively, as provided by the 1924 Act. This subsidy may, however, be increased in the case of funds whose charges exceed a certain maximum. Including this supplement, the total subsidy may not exceed 40 per cent. of benefits in the case of public and joint funds and 35 per cent. in the case of trade union funds. The grant of the Federal subsidy is subject to the condition that the Cantonal and communal authorities grant subsidies in proportion to their means. The Order also contains special provisions relating to the organisation of joint funds.

United States. — Twenty-seven States enacted unemployment compensation laws in the year 1936, bringing the total number to 36 at the end of that year. Several of the State laws were brought before the Courts for consideration of their status under the State constitutions, and the law of the State of Washington was declared unconstitutional. On 1 July 1936 Wisconsin began unemployment

compensation payments, being the first State whose law had been in effect during the required two years.

On 11 February 1936 the Social Security Board was granted an appropriation of 34,910,000 dollars for the balance of the fiscal year ending 30 June 1936, 1,000,000 dollars of which was for salaries and expenses of the Board and 2,250,000 dollars for grants to States for unemployment compensation administration; the remainder was for other social services. The appropriation for the fiscal year ending 30 June 1937 provides 29 million dollars for grants to the States for unemployment compensation administration.

Under the Emergency Relief Appropriation Act of 1935 a sum of 4,880 million dollars was appropriated for relief purposes, including work relief. This amount was available until 30 June 1936. According to a report of the United States Treasury Department a total of 3,424,564,515 dollars had actually been disbursed at that date. Of this amount 909,725,501 dollars was for cash grants to States for relief.

An Emergency Relief Appropriation Act of 1936 provided for an appropriation of 1,425 million dollars to cover Federal relief expenses during the fiscal year 1937. This Act also makes available the unexpended balance of funds appropriated under the Emergency Relief Appropriation Act of 1935. The President of the United States stated to Congress that the Federal Government could not maintain relief for unemployables, but that it faced the responsibility of continuing to provide work for the needy unemployed who could not be supported by State and local funds.

Yugoslavia. — On 15 December 1935 the Minister of Social Policy and Public Health issued Regulations concerning unemployment assistance, which came into force on 1 January 1936. Unemployment assistance is placed in the hands of the Central Employment Office, which acts through a network of exchanges and agencies. Unemployed foreign nationals of Yugoslav origin and refugees who have permission to reside in the country have the same rights under the scheme as Yugoslav nationals. Other foreign nationals have in principle the same rights as Yugoslavs, but if the States to which they belong have no unemployment or assistance scheme, or discriminate between their own and Yugoslav nationals as regards unemployment, the Minister of Social Policy may prescribe special treatment for such persons.

SPECIAL MEASURES FOR NON-MANUAL WORKERS AND YOUNG PEOPLE

Naturally, many of the measures described in the preceding sections of this chapter refer to non-manual workers and to young people, as well as to other classes of workers, and reference should be made to those sections if a complete picture of the situation is

desired. In view, however, of the special attention which has been devoted recently to the unemployment of non-manual workers and young people, it has been decided to mention in this section certain special measures which have been taken with particular reference to these two classes of workers.

Non-Manual Workers

The *Liaison Committee of Major International Associations* passed a resolution in July 1936 dealing with unemployed professional workers. It urges that closer co-operation should be exercised between professional information centres and employment exchanges for the placing of professional workers; that legislation concerning apprenticeship and the protection of professional workers should be strictly applied in order to prevent their work from being done by non-professionals; that the pensionable age in public service should be lowered; and that plural employment in public and private establishments should be regulated.

China. — Unemployment among college graduates received considerable attention and various measures were adopted to improve the situation. Civil service examinations were held in Nanking to give an opportunity to a large number of unemployed college graduates to enter the Government service. One thousand young persons were selected as candidates and 500 as reserve candidates. The Executive Yuan authorised the establishment of training classes for graduate students of technical and higher schools.

Bulgaria. — A Legislative Decree of 4 May 1936 repealed a Decree of 14 May 1935 relating to the placing of unemployed persons in public and private undertakings and provided for the placing in such undertakings of unemployed persons under 30 years of age having a secondary or higher education. In order to create new openings of employment for young non-manual workers, any public or private undertaking employing persons whose salaries are over 6,000 leva a month are bound to open a special bank account, maintained by deductions from the salaries of their employees, to be used for the engagement for one year of unemployed persons having had a secondary or higher education and whose income is within certain limits.

India. — Investigations have been undertaken during recent years by specially appointed committees in various provinces, and debates have taken place in legislative bodies, on the question of unemployment among educated young men. The committee appointed in the United Provinces in October 1934, under the chairmanship of Sir T. B. Sapru, published its report in 1936, and measures were taken by the United Provinces Government to give effect to certain of its recommendations. These measures include

the establishment of a special industrial colony where former students of technical and industrial schools will receive a practical training; State aid in the establishment and running of an industrial credit company and of a company for marketing; the provision by the Government of facilities for practical training in agriculture; and the establishment of an Employment Board which, among other duties, will collect unemployment statistics, register candidates for employment, and put them in touch with employers.

Poland. — A Congress of the Federation of Non-Manual Workers' Unions was held in Warsaw in March 1936. It adopted a resolution urging the Employment Fund to give more consideration to the needs of non-manual workers.

Rumania. — A special committee appointed by the Government to study the question of unemployment among professional workers began its work by having a general census of unemployed professional workers taken by the Central Statistical Institute.

Switzerland. — The Canton of Vaud established an office in which a certain number of technicians, architects, engineers, etc., could be occupied in rotation at work in their professions. Similar arrangements were made in other Cantons, with the result that work was provided for about 300 non-manual workers. The Federal Government assumes 40 per cent. of the cost of wages and salaries and the Cantonal and communal authorities each defray half of the remainder. In 1935 and 1936 the public authorities spent 3,300,000 francs for this purpose.

United States. — The non-manual projects undertaken as relief works come under the headings of educational, professional, and clerical work, and include recreation, hospitals, health, library and museum projects, the Records and Clerical Division, the Research and Statistical Division, and art projects. The Emergency Relief Appropriation Act of 1936 made available 85.5 million dollars for assistance to persons engaged in educational, professional, and clerical work. In August 1936 there were some 250,000 men and women employed on "white collar" projects, or about 7 per cent. of the number employed on the whole Federal Works Programme. On 7 September 1936 the President placed 27,315,217 dollars at the disposal of the Works Progress Administrator to subsidise literature and art projects and to provide six months' employment for 30,000 writers, painters, musicians, and actors.

Yugoslavia. — Regulations were issued limiting plural earnings in the medical profession.

Young People

The *Liaison Committee of Major International Associations*, at a plenary meeting held in February 1936, decided to institute an

enquiry into the measures taken for the enforcement of the Recommendation concerning unemployment among young persons adopted by the International Labour Conference. In a resolution adopted in July 1936 the Committee asked that young professionally qualified persons unable to find employment should be given opportunities for professional re-education or for engaging in professional studies likely to increase their practical knowledge. A number of international congresses also passed resolutions relating to the unemployment of young people. Reference should be made, for example, to the First *Balkan Congress on Child Protection* (Athens, April 1936) and the *World Youth Congress* (Geneva, September 1936). In addition, the Christian Young Workers' Organisation published a report indicating the work of its various branch associations in Belgium, Canada, Great Britain, Luxemburg, the Netherlands, and Switzerland, in connection with the unemployment of young people, particularly with a view to the application of the Recommendation of 1935.

Australia. — In New South Wales the Government established an organisation, known as the Young Citizens' Movement, which provides educational and recreational facilities for young unemployed persons. The Government provides the salaries of organisers and instructors, who are attached to each branch or group of branches of the Movement. From the beginning of 1933 to the end of 1935 3,987 young people were placed in employment through the organisation.

During 1936 £6,000 was made available by the Unemployment Relief Council to give unemployed girls and boys a twelve months' course of training at technical colleges and trade schools throughout the State. Employment is provided for young men between the ages of 18 and 25 in work in State forests on the basis of 30 hours' work per week.

In Victoria funds were appropriated by the Commonwealth and State Governments for the employment in forest camps of 1,000 youths between 16 and 20 years of age for a period of six months.

Austria. — It appears from an article in the review *Kultur und Politik* of March 1936 that the number of young persons unemployed at that time represented 28 per cent. of all unemployed people. Among the measures which have been taken to deal with this situation reference may be made to the following.

The Voluntary Labour Service provided employment for 12,900 people in 1935 as compared with 15,100 in 1934 and 8,300 in 1933; the expenditure amounted to 10 million schillings in 1935 as compared with 11.5 million in 1934 and 4.4 million in 1933. Supplementary vocational training was organised by the employment exchanges for an average of 3,400 persons per year during the years 1928 to 1935; about 60 per cent. of these were workers and 40 per cent. salaried employees. A relatively high percentage of these trainees were able to find employment in consequence.

Useful work has also been done by the *Jugend in Not* Association, which maintains about 100 centres in winter and 42 in summer. Moreover, the Association organised at the end of 1935 fifteen vocational courses for young people leaving school and unable to find employment.

Belgium. — A Royal Order of 15 March 1936 empowered the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare to continue subsidising voluntary labour centres for young unemployed persons. The sum allotted for this purpose was one million francs. A Ministerial Order of 23 May 1936 provided that the hours of work in such centres should be not less than 4 nor more than 6 a day. One hour a day is devoted to physical exercise, and not less than 2 hours to education. Medical officers are attached to approved centres, and young unemployed persons are insured against accidents as long as they remain in the centre.

The Young Workers' Section of the Belgian Trade Union Committee drew up a programme of young workers' demands, which included the adoption of measures for the welfare, maintenance and training of juvenile unemployed, and the right of all persons of 15 years and over to be admitted to the unemployment insurance funds.

Canada. — A Youth Employment Committee was appointed to assist the National Employment Commission in the formulation of measures to employ unemployed young persons on work and training projects and to improve existing facilities for vocational guidance and placement.

France. — The principal measure adopted by the Government was the raising of the school-leaving age from 13 to 14 years. An Act making provision for this was adopted on 9 August 1936, and since that date several Decrees for the application of the Act have been issued. Measures were also adopted relating to restrictions on multiple employment in the public service and the lowering of the retiring age; it is anticipated that these reforms will have an indirect influence on the situation of unemployed young people.

Germany. — The Order of 3 May 1933 authorising the National Institution for Employment Exchanges and Unemployment Insurance to subsidise the employment of young persons in agriculture was repealed on 1 April 1936.

Great Britain. — Juvenile employment continued to be good during 1935. The placings by the employment exchanges and the juvenile employment bureaux of the local education authorities exceeded the record placings of 1934 by 56,334. Three-quarters of the total volume of juvenile unemployment was concentrated in the North and in Wales; in certain other districts there was a shortage of juvenile labour. The additional opportunities for employment in the more prosperous areas made it possible to

intensify the policy of transference from the depressed areas, and during 1935 the number so transferred was 10,024 (5,376 boys and 4,648 girls) as compared with 5,173 in 1934.

Two Education Acts of 31 July 1936, one relating to England and Wales and the other to Scotland, provide for the raising of the school-leaving age to 15 years as from 1 September 1939. This provision will not apply to children in respect of whom an employment certificate has been granted by the local education authority of the area in which the child resides. For such children the age will be 14 years.

Hungary. — The Minister of Industry announced his intention of alleviating unemployment among young persons by reducing the hours of work of private employees, so as to enable establishments to employ a larger number of non-manual workers.

Japan. — The Tokyo Employment Exchange for Professional Workers drafted a plan for the establishment of free evening courses for certified students of secondary schools in search of employment.

Luxemburg. — A Grand-Ducal Order of 14 March 1936 outlined measures for the organisation of centres for vocational training and land settlement for young unemployed persons. Six such centres were established, two for mining and four for building work. Unemployed persons admitted to these centres must not be over 24 years of age if they intend to take up agriculture, or 21 years in other cases. They may not work more than 40 hours a week. The State assumes the expense of establishing the centres and assumes half of the expenditure incurred by local authorities for their administration. Young persons may be given board and lodging, but if they receive such maintenance and are entitled to unemployment benefit, the latter is reduced by 50 per cent. The State and local authorities may pay to young persons not entitled to unemployment benefit, or to their parents, a daily allowance not exceeding the normal amount of the unemployment benefit.

Poland. — A Decree was promulgated on 22 September 1936 establishing a "Labour Service for Young Persons", which takes the place of the voluntary teams of young unemployed persons organised since 1932. The teams of young persons are required to perform labour service for purposes of national defence or economic purposes and to undergo training for military or auxiliary military service; they also receive vocational training, training in citizenship, and general education. Admission is open to both sexes between 18 and 20 years, and members are known as "valiants". The duration of labour service is two years, but persons may leave on giving four weeks' notice. Free board and lodging is given as well as uniforms and a cash allowance. After twelve months' service reductions may be granted in the duration

of ordinary military service. Legislation in regard to industrial hygiene and safety is applicable to the teams.

Sweden. — The Minister of Social Affairs on 13 May 1936 recommended a relative increase of cash relief and special youth relief as compared with relief works.

Switzerland. — The voluntary labour service organised under the supervision of the Swiss Voluntary Labour Service Association has developed considerably, and at 31 October 1936, there were 106 centres having given a total of 1,891,000 days' maintenance since the beginning of the year. The total cost in the same period was 662,000 francs.

United States. — The Emergency Relief Appropriation Act of 1936 made available a sum of 71,250,000 dollars for the activities of the National Youth Administration. The Civilian Conservation Corps camps were continued throughout 1936, with an enrolment of approximately 350,000 young men. From 1 July 1936 the Civilian Conservation Corps operated with funds provided by a specific appropriation of 308 million dollars contained in the first Deficiency Appropriation Act for the year 1936-1937. This appropriation provided funds for operations to 31 March 1937, when the present authority for the existence of this Corps expired. One programme of the National Youth Administration for 1936 called for one hundred camps open to women between 16 and 25 years of age who must come from families on relief. It is estimated that 5,000 women can be taken care of. The curriculum provides opportunities for education, vocational guidance, household management, health education, and recreational and cultural opportunities for work in the creative arts.

The Committee of Employment of the United States Chamber of Commerce recommended that there should be immediate expansion of facilities for young people to obtain training that would fit them for employment through which they could advance their standards of living in accordance with their own capacities and diligence.

U.S.S.R. — The People's Commissary of Heavy Industry issued an Order on 29 July 1936 relating to the placing of young specialised workers when they leave the Commissariat's establishments for technical, higher or secondary education. Candidates are notified six months before they finish their studies of the post they are to fill. Travelling expenses are paid by the undertaking to which the candidate is assigned.

Migration

A glance at the figures published in the *Year-Book of Labour Statistics 1936-1937* will show that the stream of migrants is once

more flowing in its normal direction, and that in respect both of continental and of intercontinental migration the traditional countries of emigration now register an outward balance and those of immigration an inward balance. The numbers concerned are small, for the present situation is due more to a falling-off in the number of returning migrants than to a recovery in the movement of new emigrants. There are, however, some signs of a revival in the latter movement too. The following notes give information on international and national measures, resolutions, etc., adopted during the past year.

INTERNATIONAL ACTION

The *Governing Body of the International Labour Office*, in February 1937, discussed certain questions relating to migration. It placed the question of the recruiting, placing and conditions of labour (equality of treatment) of migrant workers on the Agenda of the Conference in 1938. It also considered a report from its Migration Committee, and took a number of decisions proposed by that Committee. It expressed the wish that a careful preparation of development plans with a view to settlement should be carried out by the Governments of Latin-American countries, and offered to place the services of the Office at the disposal of Governments to proceed, on the spot, to studies capable of bringing about international co-operation; it decided to set up a Correspondence Committee on Migration; it asked the Office to prepare a memorandum for the League of Nations Assembly in September 1937 and to consult Governments on the interest they would attach to a meeting of a Conference of Experts on migration with a view to settlement, with special reference to the questions of finance and guarantees for settlers, and to convene this conference as soon as a number of Governments sufficient to achieve useful results had expressed a desire for it; it recommended that the Office should consider the desirability of having the question of the fair and equitable treatment of immigrants studied by the Correspondence Committee or the Conference of Experts; and finally, it requested the Office to continue its studies on the problem of the simplification of passports and visas for migrants.

The *League of Nations Temporary Committee of Assistance to Indigent Foreigners* drew up a second multilateral draft Convention of assistance to indigent foreigners, containing provisions regarding repatriation and expulsion and the protection of repatriated persons. By a decision of the Council of the League of Nations in May 1936, this Convention was submitted to Governments and international organisations for their opinions and observations.

The *Nansen International Office* continued its work for refugees. The problem of Russian refugees in Turkey is approaching settlement. The evacuation of 1,783 Armenians from France to Soviet Armenia was organised in collaboration with the French Govern-

ment, which granted considerable financial assistance, and with the Armenian organisations concerned. The question of evacuating 200 families of Saar refugees from France to South America received attention, and an additional grant was approved by the League Assembly for this purpose. More than 30,000 Armenian refugees have been established in Syria, but the scheme for completing the settlement has had to be postponed.

The *High Commission for Refugees (Jewish and Other) coming from Germany* was placed under the authority of the League of Nations. In July 1936 the inter-Governmental conference to secure the adoption of a legal status for such refugees drew up a provisional agreement, which has been signed by Belgium, Denmark, France, Great Britain, the Netherlands, Norway, and Switzerland. The High Commission is assisted by a consultative committee of private organisations for the assistance of refugees which was formed in London to co-ordinate the efforts of Jewish and non-Jewish organisations.

At its 1936 Session the *Assembly of the League of Nations* decided to wind up at the end of 1938 the organisations instituted by the League in favour of refugees, leaving the general principles of the League's policy with regard to the problem of refugees as a whole after that year to be decided by the Assembly at its 1938 Session. At the same session the *Assembly* approved a decision of the Council to the effect that the plan of settling Assyrians from 'Iraq in the Ghab district of Syria should be abandoned; this was considered advisable for technical and political reasons.

A *World Congress of Jewish Physicians* was held in Palestine in April 1936. It established a World Association of Jewish Physicians, with the following aims: to establish employment agencies in all countries for doctors forced to leave their countries of residence; to give assistance by means of a special fund to doctors wishing to change their profession; and to assist individual doctors willing to emigrate to countries neighbouring Palestine or to other colonial countries. Two further conferences dealing with Jewish emigration, immigration and relief, at which a series of resolutions were passed, were held during the year, one by the *HIAS-ICA Emigration Association (HICEM)* in June 1936, and the other by the *Jewish World Congress* in August. The latter organisation set up a special emigration department.

The *Inter-Parliamentary Conference*, meeting at Budapest in July 1936, adopted a resolution in favour of bilateral or multi-lateral agreements concerning migration for settlement, and recommending that the International Labour Office and other international bodies should convene a Conference to lay down guiding principles for bilateral agreements.

* * *

A number of *bilateral agreements* were concluded during 1936.

The *Austrian* and *Czechoslovak* authorities concluded, as usual, an arrangement for the recruiting of Czechoslovak seasonal workers for agricultural work in Austria. The quota was fixed at 3,500 workers, as against 4,500 in 1935. The arrangement also fixed the method of payment of wages in Czechoslovak koruny to be effected by the public employment exchanges.

The *German* National Institution for Employment Exchanges and Unemployment Insurance made arrangements with the *Czechoslovak* authorities for the recruiting of between 1,200 and 1,500 seasonal workers for agricultural work in Germany.

The *Polish* Consul in Riga and the President of the Chamber of Agriculture in *Latvia* signed an agreement covering the recruiting of Polish agricultural workers for Latvia. The quota to be recruited was fixed at 1,200 workers, of whom 80 per cent. were to be women between the ages of 21 and 40. The Polish workers were to be entitled to the same conditions of employment and board and lodging as Latvian workers of the same class.

On 28 April 1936 the *Swiss* Federal Council approved the text of a Convention governing the terms of residence of Swiss student employees entering the *Netherlands* for the purpose of improving their vocational knowledge. Residential permits may be granted for one year, with the right of renewal for not more than six months, to persons under 30 years of age in possession of a contract of employment.

Similar agreements were concluded by *Switzerland* with the *Belgian* and *French* Governments.

On 26 October 1936 an Agreement dealing with the admission of student employees was signed by *France* and *Luxemburg*.

A Treaty between *Belgium* and the *Netherlands*, dealing mainly with the status of frontier workers, came into force on 6 February 1936. Each such worker must have an identity card issued by the local authority of his place of residence and a certificate of employment drawn up by his employer and countersigned by the public employment exchange in the district in which he works. Otherwise, the employment of frontier workers is subject to the same regulations as the employment of other foreign workers in the country concerned.

MEASURES RELATING TO EMIGRATION

China. — On 13 October 1936 the Government approved a revision of the regulations governing the employment contracts of emigrant workers and labour recruiting agents. Emigrant workers must undergo a physical examination and sign an employment contract. If work is stopped before the expiration of the contract, the employer must pay the full wages due and provide funds for repatriation. Labour recruiting agents must obtain the permission of local authorities before undertaking recruiting activities and

must furnish cash security to a specified amount varying with the number of workers to be recruited.

Czechoslovakia. — An Order of 12 June 1936 amended the Emigration Act of 1922 by providing that the recruiting of settlers for foreign countries requires a permit from the Ministry of Social Welfare. The permit is granted only if the economic, social, and hygienic conditions in the country of destination offer sufficient guarantees that the settlement will be successful. Permits may be granted only to public companies registered in Czechoslovakia. Commercial, joint-stock, and limited liability companies may receive permits only if their members or directors are Czechoslovak citizens residing in the Republic. Foreign companies may receive a permit if they are licensed to carry on business in Czechoslovakia and if they appoint a representative there under power of attorney to deal with the authorities and private individuals without any limitation of liability. The representative must be a Czechoslovak citizen permanently resident in the country.

Great Britain. — A Bill was introduced to renew for a further period of years the provisions of the Empire Settlement Act 1922, with certain changes. The Act would otherwise expire in 1937.

Japan. — The Manchuria Development Company Limited was organised on 23 December 1935 for the purpose of encouraging the emigration of Japanese to Manchuria. It is hoped to promote the emigration of 5 million persons over a 20-year period commencing in 1937.

Poland. — An International Settlement Company was formed in April 1936 by the National Economic Bank, the Polish Relief Fund, and the State Agrarian Bank for the purpose of promoting Polish settlement abroad.

Switzerland. — An Order of the Federal Assembly was issued on 20 June 1936 granting the Federal Council a credit of one million francs for assistance to poor Swiss citizens wishing to emigrate to oversea countries, and one million francs for the development of internal settlement and for assistance to poor Swiss citizens wishing to emigrate to European countries.

An Order which came into force on 20 December 1936 sets forth the conditions under which the State will grant subsidies to promote settlement both in Switzerland and in other countries. The grants may not normally exceed 40 per cent. of the initial cost, on condition that the settler's Canton of origin contributes one-third of the subsidy. To facilitate the settlement of Swiss families on agricultural holdings in suitable European countries, the State is prepared to grant advances, loans or subsistence allowances to families without sufficient means for this purpose.

MEASURES RELATING TO IMMIGRATION

Australia. — A modification of the restrictions imposed on alien migrants was announced on 5 May 1936, to the effect that applications for landing permits would be favourably considered in the case of: (1) dependant relatives of persons already settled in Australia, subject to satisfactory guarantees for maintenance; (2) other aliens who (a) are nominated by persons in Australia who guarantee that the nominee will not become a charge on the State, (b) will engage in trades and occupations in which their absorption will not be detrimental to Australian workers, (c) are possessed of £50 landing money; (3) aliens without guarantors who will engage in work without detriment to Australian workers, provided they possess £200 landing money.

The question of a partial resumption of migration from Great Britain is being considered. A letter was sent by the Commonwealth Government to the State Governments to ascertain their views on the subject, the following suggestions being made for their consideration: (1) the grant of assisted passages to relatives of persons already resident in Australia; (2) the introduction of female household workers or youths for farm work upon receipt of requisitions from the States; (3) the grant of assisted passages to residents of the United Kingdom of British stock who possess a specified capital or income. The Queensland and South Australian Governments intimated their willingness to co-operate with the Federal Government in a limited resumption of assisted migration. The Governments of the other States rejected the proposal.

Belgium. — A Royal Order of 31 March 1936 amended the provisions in force relating to the employment of alien labour and abolished the quota system applied to certain coal mines. Every employer who employs or wishes to employ aliens must now have a licence, and alien manual and non-manual workers must also obtain a licence before they may take up their employment.

A further Order of 1 April 1936 lays down rules for the application of the Order of 31 March 1936, among which is the stipulation that permission to employ a foreign worker will be granted only if it is impossible to find Belgian workers in Belgium capable of doing the work satisfactorily.

Brazil. — An Order was issued by the Minister of Labour on 16 April 1936 laying down rules for the application of the provision contained in the Federal Constitution to the effect that the number of persons of a given nationality entering Brazil in any one year may not exceed 2 per cent. of the number of that nationality who settled in the country during the last 50 years. The total number of immigrants admissible under this provision is 84,186. The Order permits the admission outside the quota of children under 14 years of age whose parents are immigrant farmers,

agricultural workers, or technical experts specialising in farming industries.

On 30 July 1936 the Minister of Labour, Industry and Commerce authorised the continuance for an indefinite period of the Decree of 12 August 1931 restricting the employment of alien workers, exclusive of aliens who have resided in Brazil for more than ten years, to 33 per cent. of the total number of workers in any industrial or commercial undertakings.

Bulgaria. — A Legislative Decree of 27 August 1936 contains provisions for limiting the proportion of alien workers who may be employed in industrial undertakings. The maximum percentage in the case of skilled workers is 20 during the first five years of the undertakings' existence and none thereafter, and in that of technical staff 40 and 20 respectively, while in the case of managerial staff and unskilled workers no aliens are allowed at all.

Iraq. — An Act reserving employment in certain occupations to 'Iraq nationals received the Royal Assent on 25 February 1936. The Government may issue regulations giving refugees and foreigners the right to practise some of the occupations enumerated in the Act. It may also issue regulations whereby employment in the specified occupations may be permitted to nationals of States granting reciprocal privileges. The Act does not apply to employment on works mentioned in concessions granted to companies or to employment in foreign embassies, legations, consulates, and private houses.

Peru. — On 26 June 1936 a Presidential Decree was issued restricting immigration and the employment of aliens. The number of immigrants in any one year may not exceed 2 per thousand of the total population of Peru, and the number of aliens of any one nationality resident in the country may not exceed 16,000. Children under 10 years of age are excluded from immigration quotas, with certain exceptions. Immigration in groups of the same race is prohibited. The Decree further provides that the proportion of aliens employed in a given occupation in any one province may not exceed 20 per cent. of the total number of persons so employed.

Sweden. — A committee of experts appointed in accordance with a request of the Riksdag to enquire into the possibility of introducing technical improvements in the supervision of aliens proposed the centralisation of all questions relating to visas, supervision and registration in a special Aliens' Office, a modification of the provisions relating to the expulsion of foreigners, stricter frontier control, and special provisions for dealing with political refugees.

Union of South Africa. — Since 1 November 1936 the administration of the law and regulations has been altered, the main

difference being that prospective immigrants must have sufficient means in their possession to support themselves and their dependants for twelve months. Before that date their support could be guaranteed by reputable Union residents.

United States. — Regulations were issued by the Commissioner of Immigration and Naturalisation in virtue of the statutory provisions which exclude immigrants under a contract of labour. They exempt domestic servants from this prohibition. Actors, artists, musicians, lecturers, singers, ministers, professors, trained nurses and persons belonging to learned professions are also exempt under special regulations. Skilled workers who are unobtainable in the United States may also enter. An alien who has been in the United States illegally, but who has left in order to obtain an immigration visa from an American consul abroad, may contract for employment prior to re-entering the country, provided he has a wife or child in the United States. This ruling also applies to women.

International Regulation

RATIFICATION AND APPROVAL OF THE CONVENTIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS ADOPTED BY THE INTERNATIONAL LABOUR CONFERENCE ¹

Convention No. 2: Unemployment, 1919

Peru. — By Decree of 6 March 1936 the President of the Republic approved the Convention and submitted it to Congress for ratification.

U.S.S.R. — Submitted to the competent authorities.

Convention No. 34: Fee-Charging Employment Agencies, 1933

U.S.S.R. — Submitted to the competent authorities.

Yugoslavia. — Submitted to Parliament on 31 December 1936.

Recommendation No. 42: Employment Agencies, 1933

Communications to the Secretary-General of the League of Nations

Rumania. — Approved by the Council of Ministers on 17 April 1935 (9 April 1936).

Switzerland. — After the adoption of the Recommendation by the Conference, a thorough enquiry was made into the part played by fee-charging employment agencies in Switzerland and from that time their activities have been followed with close attention.

It should be mentioned, in the first place, that fee-charging employment agencies properly so called, i.e. those whose principal object is to make a direct or indirect profit out of the workers or employers whom they serve as an inter-

¹ The information given here relates to Conventions and Recommendations concerning unemployment, placing, and migration, and covers the period 16 March 1936-15 March 1937. See the tables at the end of the volume for the general situation as regards the Conventions.

mediary, are not very numerous in Switzerland. Their number is considerably exceeded by those which, while charging fees for their services, are not carried on for gain.

In the legislation of several Cantons, the issue of licences to employment agencies is subject to financial and professional guarantees.

Hitherto fee-charging employment agencies have not in general given rise to complaint; on the contrary, they have rendered public service in different respects by supplementing the public employment services.

A close examination of the situation shows that, in present circumstances, it appears undesirable to abolish fee-charging employment agencies.

The guiding principles of the Recommendation were applied in Switzerland already before it was adopted. It is interesting, however, to note that in the spirit of the Recommendation improvements have been made in the free public employment service. Most of the employment offices have completed their material and technical arrangements in order to bring them into greater accordance with the special requirements of certain occupations; they have also increased their staff, and in choosing their officials have endeavoured to find those whose knowledge of men and experience make them particularly suitable to carry on the work of placing people in employment in the occupational groups entrusted to them (23 December 1936).

Other Information

U.S.S.R. — Submitted to the competent authorities.

Yugoslavia. — Submitted to Parliament on 31 December 1936.

Convention No. 44: Unemployment Provision, 1934

Cuba. — Submitted to the Senate for approval.

France. — Submitted to the Chamber of Deputies on 13 August 1936. A Bill to supplement existing legislation so as to make it conform with the Convention is in preparation. When this Bill is ready, the Government will introduce it in Parliament and at the same time introduce a Bill for the ratification of the Convention.

Great Britain. — Ratification registered on 29 April 1936.

Japan. — The Privy Council decided on 22 April 1936 not to ratify the Convention.

Netherlands. — When the Government submitted this Convention to the Second Chamber of the States-General, in a note of 27 April 1936, it explained that the existing scheme in the Netherlands—voluntary insurance supplemented by assistance—was provided for in the Convention, but that it might be doubted whether the scheme was in strict accordance with some provisions of the Convention (Article 14). It therefore proposed to examine the interpretation and application of the Convention in those countries which have ratified it before deciding on its ratification by the Netherlands.

U.S.S.R. — Submitted to the competent authorities.

Yugoslavia. — Submitted to Parliament on 31 December 1936.

Recommendation No. 44: Unemployment Provision, 1934

Great Britain. — The Government accepted the Recommendation, but in existing circumstances, felt bound to make reservations in respect of paragraphs 4 (d), 5, 10, 14 and 17 (25 April 1936).

Switzerland. — For constitutional reasons the Confederation cannot regulate uniformly for the whole of Swiss territory other questions than those which are expressly reserved to it by the Federal Constitution. The Constitution contains no provisions for remedying unemployment, and this question therefore falls within the competence of the Cantons. Federal legislation has hitherto had to be confined to subsidising organisations for the relief of the unemployed and to influencing the development of unemployment insurance and assistance by attaching conditions to the grant of its subsidies.

Apart from the two questions mentioned below, the Confederation has already given substantial effect to all the points covered by the Recommendation. It is therefore superfluous to take any further action to give effect to the Recommendation.

The first point to which the Swiss Confederation cannot give effect is that concerning compulsory unemployment insurance, referred to in paragraph 1 of the Recommendation. It will have to refer the carrying out of this principle to the Cantons, which are alone competent to introduce compulsory insurance. This does not imply that nothing has been done in this field. Up to the present, 13 Cantons have introduced compulsory insurance, 9 have left it to the communes to apply it, and there remain only 3 Cantons which have only voluntary unemployment insurance.

Paragraph 2 of the Recommendation provides for the establishment of an unemployment assistance scheme in addition to the insurance scheme. Under the constitutional principles mentioned above, this is a matter for the Cantons. Most of them have made provision, with the help of the Confederation, for exceptional assistance for the unemployed, which is at present only of a temporary nature. The Cantons in question number 18, and include the chief industrial districts of the country.

Finally, it should be noted that the provision applied in Switzerland in case of loss of employment by reason of an industrial dispute is stricter than the principle laid down in paragraph 10 of the Recommendation. Section 2, paragraph III (c) of the Federal Act of 17 October 1924 respecting the grant of subsidies for unemployment insurance provides that no benefit shall be paid during the dispute and the 30 days following if the unemployment is the result of a collective labour dispute. As this provision has yielded excellent results in practice, the Federal authorities are not at present contemplating any change (23 December 1936).

Other Information

France. — Submitted to the Chamber of Deputies on 13 August 1936.

Netherlands. — Submitted to the Second Chamber of the States-General on 27 April 1936.

U.S.S.R. — Submitted to the competent authorities.

Yugoslavia. — Submitted to Parliament on 31 December 1936.

Recommendation No. 45: Unemployment (Young Persons), 1935

Communications to the Secretary-General of the League of Nations

Japan. — The Secretary-General of the League of Nations was informed of the action taken by the Japanese Government upon the Recommendation (15 January 1937).

Netherlands. — The Secretary-General of the League of Nations was informed of the action taken by the Netherlands Government concerning the Recommendation.

Several of the measures advocated in the Recommendation have already been applied in the Netherlands. So far as this is not yet the case, and so far as the Government has not already stated its views, it is prepared to consider whether, in addition to what has already been done, application in the Netherlands would be desirable (19 January 1937).

New Zealand. — Presented to the House of Representatives on 11 September 1936 and to the Legislative Assembly on 17 September 1936 (29 September 1936).

Siam. — The competent authorities considered that under the existing conditions of labour in the country the application of the Recommendation was not as yet necessary in Siam, and consequently did not feel it appropriate to take any action in the matter at the present time (3 December 1936).

Switzerland. — The Secretary-General of the League of Nations was informed of the action taken by the Swiss Government upon the Recommendation.

In a report submitted on 20 April 1936 to the Federal Assembly the Federal Council stated that in its main lines the Recommendation did not go beyond what had already been carried out in Switzerland, and that, in general it contained no new proposals of any importance affecting Switzerland. However, there were in the Recommendation various provisions which the Confederation was not in a position to carry out for constitutional reasons, such as the fixing of the school-leaving age at 15 years, or which seemed inexpedient for practical reasons, such as the reduction of hours of work in employment centres to a lower maximum than 40 in the week and the introduction of special relief works for young unemployed persons. Certain proposals of minor importance might be taken into consideration from time to time when welfare institutions for young unemployed persons were being developed. On the other hand, the Federal Council did not for the moment consider that it should propose any special measures to give effect to the Recommendation (23 December 1936).

Other Information

Austria. — The Federal Government decided on 4 December 1936 not to take any special action for the moment for the application of the Recommendation. It stated that most of the measures proposed were already applied in Austria, although some of them only partially. Austria would endeavour as far as possible to follow the lines laid down by the Recommendation if the measures for the relief of unemployed young persons were extended. However, there were financial and technical difficulties in the way of the application of the principle of raising the school-leaving age to 15 years.

Belgium. — The Government is considering the conditions under which Belgium could adhere to the Recommendation. An inter-departmental committee was instructed to examine the problem of unemployment among young persons.

Brazil. — Submitted to the National Congress by a message from the President of the Republic on 27 October 1936.

Canada. — Referred to the Department of Justice with a view to determining whether the subject-matter involved is within Dominion or provincial competence.

China. — The Executive Yuan authorised the introduction of training courses for graduates in technical and higher studies so that these young persons may supplement their education by vocational and practical instruction.

France. — Submitted to the Chamber of Deputies on 13 August 1936.

Great Britain. — Presented to Parliament in December 1935.

India. — The text of the Recommendation was communicated to the local governments for such executive or legislative action as they might think it desirable to take.

Iraq. — After considering the question the competent departments came to the conclusion that the time had not yet come to apply the provisions of the Recommendation.

Latvia. — Submitted to the Council of Ministers on 21 December 1936.

Turkey. — Submitted to the Grand National Assembly.

Union of South Africa. — Laid on the table of the House of Assembly on 21 April 1936 and of the Senate on 27 May 1936.

U.S.S.R. — Submitted to the competent authorities. The Recommendation is of no practical interest for the U.S.S.R. owing to the complete absence of unemployment among the population.

United States. — Submitted by the President to Congress on 18 June 1936.

CHAPTER VI

WORKERS' LIVING CONDITIONS

Vocational Training

During 1936 and the early part of 1937 the revival of activity in the various branches of vocational training noted in the previous year continued and increased. Direct action was taken to regulate vocational training by introducing new legislation or amending existing legislation to bring it into harmony with economic and occupational needs. It has also been more and more clearly realised in all competent quarters that the organisation of vocational training, in the widest sense of the term, should be an essential feature of every economic policy. Only in this way can a solution be found for a series of problems which have arisen out of the depression and industrial changes. Whether it is a case of remedying the shortage of skilled labour or of re-absorbing workers who are still unemployed into industry, or again of adapting labour to the varied and constantly changing demands of industrial technique, the need for effective vocational training, appropriate to present-day conditions, is constantly making itself felt. Attention has been drawn to this need on many occasions, and emphasis has also been laid on the importance of the social aspects of the question for the successful utilisation of the human factor in production. It was in recognition of the current importance of this problem that the Governing Body placed the questions of vocational training and apprenticeship on the Agenda of the 1938 Session of the International Labour Conference.

NATIONAL ACTIVITIES

Australia. — At the beginning of 1936 a conference of the Ministers and Directors of Education of all the States of the Commonwealth met to consider problems relating to technical education in Australia. The conference decided to ask the Commonwealth Government for a grant of £2,000,000, spread over a period of four years, for the development of technical education. An Australian Education Council, composed of the Ministers of Education of the various States, was set up to permit of regular consultation on

educational questions. The Council has power to co-opt Ministers whose departments cover labour and industrial questions.

An Apprenticeship Ordinance of 2 April 1936, applying to the Territory of the Seat of Government, and to come into force at a date to be fixed later, sets up an Apprenticeship Board and trade committees. It also contains detailed provisions relating to the declaration of apprenticeship trades, the number of apprentices to be trained each year, and the registration of indentures.

The New South Wales Employment Research Committee, set up in 1934 to study, among other things, problems of juvenile employment, submitted a report to the Minister of Labour summarising the opinions of employers and the Labour Council on apprenticeship. The report recommends the fixing of a minimum age of apprenticeship (16 years), the setting up of an independent tribunal to select apprentices and fix the ratio of apprentices to journeymen, the exchange of apprentices, the fixing of wage rates for apprentices, etc.

The statutory provisions concerning apprenticeship in New South Wales were considerably altered by the Industrial Conciliation and Arbitration Amendment Acts. This measure confirms the new system of "trainee apprentices" in skilled trades introduced in 1933, and confers on the apprenticeship boards the same rights over trainee apprentices as over apprentices proper.

Belgium. — The systematic regulation of various aspects of vocational training was continued by means of Royal Orders.

The Royal Order of 4 May 1936 amended the rules governing commercial training, while that of 10 May 1936 provides for the organisation of temporary higher classes in domestic economy and housewifery by the Ministry of Education.

Another Order, of 14 May 1936, provides for the organisation of training for architects (instruction, examinations, trainee employment, etc.). A vocational guidance centre was set up in connection with the National Education Museum, by an Order of 20 February 1936, while another Order of 22 October 1936 introduced a qualifying certificate for vocational advisers.

The Young Workers' Section of the Belgian Trade Union Committee drew up a list of the demands of young workers, recommending the following reforms: prohibition of paid employment for children under 16 years of age; extension of protective legislation to cover apprentices, young workers and salaried employees up to the age of 18 years; organisation of compulsory supplementary vocational training up to the age of 18 years (during working hours); inclusion in collective agreements and articles of apprenticeship of a minimum wage scale based on age and competence; at least two weeks' holidays with pay for young workers (including apprentices); comprehensive regulation of apprenticeship under a general measure, etc.

In January 1937 the Belgian Young Christian Workers' Organisation carried out an enquiry into apprenticeship in Belgium, with

the object of collecting the fullest possible data on various questions connected with apprenticeship. The general committee of the Organisation decided to get into touch with the trade unions, joint committees and competent authorities for this purpose.

Brazil. — The Director-General of the National Labour Department convened a conference to consider the possibility of setting up training schools for the various branches of the hotel industry. The conference, which was attended by representatives of the trade associations and by the inspector of labour, requested the latter to draft a scheme of organisation, which will be submitted to the employers' and employees' organisations concerned for their opinion.

Canada. — Among other measures against unemployment, the Manitoba Board of Trade suggested the organisation of a system of apprenticeship for young men between 16 and 25 and between 26 and 30 years of age.

China. — The Sixteenth Annual Conference of the National Association for Vocational Training and the Fourteenth Annual National Conference for the discussion of problems of vocational training held a joint session for three days in August 1936, at which they considered the present state of the various branches of vocational training of young workers, and also the question of the development of supplementary education and vocational guidance.

In a circular issued to the competent provincial and municipal departments and offices on 5 February 1937, the Minister of Education laid down guiding principles for vocational education. These form a scheme of organisation which the provincial and municipal authorities are instructed to apply, reporting the practical measures taken to the Minister. The main feature of the scheme is the setting up of a network of occupational classes organised by the universities, the technical schools, and the trade organisations of each corporation. The teaching given will be adapted to local or regional conditions. The municipal and provincial authorities will be responsible for designating the industrial or commercial centres where such classes are needed.

Denmark. — In January 1937, the Minister of Social Affairs submitted a new Apprenticeship Bill to the Rigsdag, with a view to regulating all the relevant matters, including written contracts, the fixing of the length of apprenticeship by a trade committee, wages, annual holidays, etc. The Bill provides for the setting up of trade committees under the Ministry, to deal with all questions connected with the training and protection of apprentices. It also provides for an advisory Apprenticeship Council consisting of six employers and six workers.

After a first discussion, the Bill was referred to a parliamentary committee before its second discussion by the Rigsdag.

Estonia. — On 7 January 1936 the Ministry of Education and Social Affairs issued regulations concerning masters' and journeymen's examinations. An Order of 4 June 1936 specified the branches of activity covered by the Act concerning masters, journeymen, and apprentices in industry.

Finland. — An Order of 8 May 1936, issued in pursuance of the Child Welfare Act of 17 January, provided for co-operation between the various bodies responsible for vocational guidance.

France. — Under an Act of 9 August 1936, the period of compulsory attendance at an elementary school was prolonged up to the age of 14 years.

An Act which had previously been passed by the Chamber of Deputies, and was adopted by the Senate on 24 February 1937, defined the functions of the Chambers of Handicrafts in regard to the organisation of apprenticeship in handicrafts. These Chambers will in future be entitled to regulate the various aspects of this apprenticeship.

A Vocational Guidance Centre for Handicrafts in the Seine Department was inaugurated in July 1936.

At its session of November 1936 the Superior Labour Council discussed the re-classification of labour and cognate questions. Recommendations were adopted relating in particular to the regional organisation of apprenticeship on an occupational basis, the fixing of the number of apprentices, the setting-up of a central research body for matters concerning the training, recruiting, and employment of French labour.

At its annual meeting in March 1936 the General Federation of French Production drew attention to the importance attaching to the recruiting of skilled labour, and noted the persistent shortage of such labour, which is a matter for anxiety. The question was dealt with at discussion days held in May 1936.

The Association of Staffs of Public Institutions for Technical Education in France and the French colonies conducted an enquiry into the state of technical education. The report on this enquiry made certain suggestions, bearing especially on the educational side of technical teaching and the organisation of technical schools.

The French Young Christian Workers' Organisation demanded, as a means of bridging the gap between the workshop and the school, the raising of the school-leaving age to 16, a special curriculum for young persons of 13 to 16 years of age, giving due attention to preparation for apprenticeship, aid by means of scholarships and allowances for the families of young persons whose period of school attendance had been prolonged, the promotion of vocational guidance, etc.

Germany. — The preparation of the new Code to regulate the general education and vocational training of young persons continued, while transitional measures were adopted to regulate some aspects of vocational training.

The system of compulsory holidays for apprentices was extended and made general.

The vocational guidance offices attached to the employment exchanges considerably extended their activities. About 333,500 vacancies for apprentices and 59,400 vacancies for semi-skilled workers (100,000 more than in the previous year) were registered with these offices.

The State Educational Information Office (*Staatliche Auskunftsstelle für Schulwesen*), hitherto a Prussian institution, has now become a national body. Under the new title of National Education Office (*Reichsstelle für Schulwesen*) it is responsible for collecting data concerning vocational and technical schools. These schools are now under the control of the Ministry of Science and Education, to which the new office is attached.

The third general vocational examination was held in March 1936 under conditions similar to those of the two previous years. For the first time young unskilled or semi-skilled workers were also admitted to this national examination, which was formerly confined to young journeymen or apprentices and students. The new candidates were divided into two groups: those of at least 15 years of age who had worked for at least three months, and those of at least 16 years of age who had worked for at least one year. The object of this examination was to test the output and occupational qualifications of young unskilled workers with a view to adapting them to work requiring a high standard of competence. In future, therefore, the national vocational examination will cover all classes of young persons.

Greece. — Some of the statutory provisions concerning vocational training were amended by a Legislative Decree of 14 August 1936.

A National Youth Organisation was set up by an Act of 7 November 1936. This organisation is under the chairmanship of the Prime Minister, and its principal object is to develop vocational guidance and organise spare-time occupations for young persons.

A Decree of 24 April 1936 provided for the setting-up of a training school for the hotel industry.

India. — The Government of Bombay approved a scheme under which a number of employers agreed to accept boys with a certain standard of education in their undertakings for a term of about five years, with a view to remedying the lack of opportunities for vocational training for pupils leaving secondary schools. At the beginning of 1937, 89 industrial undertakings had volunteered to employ a total of 425 boys a year as learners, at a commencing wage of 15 rupees a month. The number of boys employed under this scheme will be fixed in accordance with the number of skilled adult workers which each branch of industry will be able to absorb at the end of the period of training. The engineering, electrical and printing industries are among the first to admit trainees under this scheme. The agreement provides for the compulsory attend-

ance of the youths concerned at technical evening classes throughout the period of training. An advisory committee including representatives of the industries which have joined the scheme was to be set up to co-ordinate the necessary arrangements.

Irish Free State. — The Thirty-second Congress of the Irish Technical Education Association (Drogheda, June 1936) discussed the need for the training of skilled workers, the employers' attitude to apprentices, the attendance of young workers at day classes, and the ratio of apprentices to journeymen.

Italy. — The first lictorial competitions for labour were held at Rome in May 1936. These competitions, which are to take place every year, correspond to the examinations in arts, culture and athletics which have already been held for several years past for university students. Their object is to raise the technical, occupational and cultural standards of working-class youth. The employers co-operated in organising the scheme by providing workshops, equipment, shops, etc. The tests included an oral examination in general and social culture.

The Co-ordination Committee for the Vocational Training of Commercial Travellers held its first meeting in Rome in October 1936. The function of the Committee is to co-ordinate all activities for the improvement of commercial training, with due regard to present-day requirements.

Japan. — At the end of 1936 the Bureau for Social Questions announced forthcoming enquiries into the relation between physical and mental aptitudes and occupational qualifications, covering 93 classes of factory workers.

The Eighth National Conference on Vocational Guidance, which met at Osaka on 11 June 1936 under the auspices of the National Vocational Guidance Association, recommended a closer definition of the purpose and scope of vocational guidance, the appointment of full-time vocational guidance officers or advisers, increased propaganda on behalf of vocational guidance in schools, and the reorganisation of the present system of apprenticeship.

Latvia. — The Minister of Finance issued regulations on 24 August 1936 concerning the Handicrafts Board and its duties in respect of apprenticeship. The Board is required to collaborate with other organs of the Chamber of Handicrafts in organising apprenticeship and handicrafts, supervising apprentices' examinations, etc.

Norway. — The amendment of the Act concerning the protection of workers and apprentices was discussed and a new national scheme of vocational training drafted. The Vocational Training Board met on 12 October 1936 to examine the scheme with a view to the amendment of the Act. This Board drew attention once more to the necessity of including classes in supplementary vocational training in working hours.

Poland. — Further progress was made during 1936 in the application of the educational system planned in 1932, which includes the regulation of vocational and technical training.

The Ministry of Education, in conjunction with the Chambers of Industry and Commerce, drafted the curriculum of engineering studies for the new technical high schools. The Minister also issued a number of Orders in July 1936 providing for the reorganisation of the various technical schools. Other Orders and Decrees were also issued concerning the organisation of vocational high schools.

Boards for organising examinations for masters' certificates in the building trades were set up by an Order of 16 July 1936, and various other Orders were also issued to regulate examinations for journeymen's certificates.

The question of apprenticeship in handicrafts was the subject of lively discussion. A Bill to reorganise the training of handicraftsmen was tabled in the Diet by the Union of Chambers of Handicrafts.

The commercial section of the National Vocational Training Board met in the Ministry of Education to consider: (1) the guiding principles for the curricula of commercial high schools; (2) the advisability of setting up special vocational training schools for employees of autonomous public bodies and social insurance institutions; (3) the advisability of providing a similar form of school for employees of co-operative societies.

At a meeting held on 5 and 6 February 1937 the women labour inspectors passed resolutions concerning the improvement of the situation of apprentices, recommending the prohibition of unpaid employment, limitation of the ratio of apprentices to adult workers, supervision of workshops employing apprentices, drafting of detailed curricula for each trade by experts, medical examination of young persons, etc.

The first vocational high schools, which are the final link in the system of vocational education provided for by the 1932 Act, are to be set up during the academic year of 1937.

Portugal. — A Decree of 19 May 1936 set up a National Education Board and prescribed regulations for its work. The Board is a technical and advisory body attached to the Ministry of National Education. Its function is to study problems relating to the character-building, education, and general culture of citizens, and also to the development of their general and occupational abilities. The Board consists of seven sections, the fifth of which includes the following services: (1) technical and vocational training; (2) intermediate technical education; (3) higher technical education.

Rumania. — A Royal Decree of 29 April 1936 providing for the general regulation of vocational training and the exercise of trades, covers both apprenticeship, training in vocational schools, the protection of apprentices (setting up of clubs, etc.), and also the

conditions for obtaining masters' certificates, admission to handicraft trades, etc.

A vocational training centre for administrative careers was founded in connection with the Royal Institute of Administrative Science, under a special Order of 18 September 1936, which also laid down the rules for its operation.

A Psychotechnic Institute was opened at Cluj in November 1936, and other similar institutions are to follow. Their functions will be to assist the vocational training institutions in their various activities and to train a staff of vocational guidance experts.

Switzerland. — A large number of Federal Orders were issued to give effect to various sections of the Federal Vocational Training Act of 1930. Detailed regulations were also published under this Act concerning the minimum requirements for the final examination for apprentices in a number of handicraft trades. The cantonal authorities continued their work of amending the cantonal laws on apprenticeship to bring them into conformity with the Federal provisions.

Domestic apprenticeship in private houses entered on a fresh stage in the Canton of Zürich with the organisation of housewives' training classes, at the request of the women concerned, followed by an examination entitling successful candidates to a certificate of domestic apprenticeship.

U.S.S.R. — An Order issued on 8 September 1936 by the Executive Committee of the General Council of Trade Unions defined the rights and obligations of labour inspectors for the inspection of juvenile labour. The inspectors are required, among other things, to supervise the admission of pupils to the vocational schools attached to factories and workshops, and their protection; to supervise the regular employment of young women on productive work in accordance with their qualifications and ensure their promotion to more skilled work, etc.

Great progress has been made in the training of skilled workers during the past few years. The number of pupils admitted to the vocational schools attached to factories and workshops rose from 255,000 in 1933 to 294,100 in 1934 and 325,000 in 1935. Side by side with this increase in the number of apprentice pupils, it was also noticed that there was a very marked rise in the attendance at workers' colleges (276,000 persons in 1936 as compared with 49,200 in 1928). The proportion of workers in higher educational institutions rose from 25.4 per cent. in 1928 to 45 per cent. in 1935. The provision of minimum technical training and classes for workers belonging to the Stakhanov movement was also widely extended.

The sums spent on the training of skilled workers (6,500 million roubles in 1937, as against 4,800 million in 1936) form an important item in the total cost of public education in the Soviet Union (18,500 million roubles in 1937, as against 13,900 million roubles in 1936). Up to 1936 the greater part of this expense was borne

by the economic bodies, but since the second quarter of 1936 most of the necessary funds have been provided by the State. The People's Commissary of Finance stated in his report to the Central Executive Committee in January 1937 that these funds were not always spent to the best advantage. In view of the fact that the question was one of increasing importance, it would be necessary during 1937 to study more actively the experience of the first years of widespread teaching of Stakhanov's principles, of the technical education of workers, and the period of training of skilled workers for the collective farms, and to draft measures enabling the best possible results to be obtained at the lowest possible cost to the Government.

Yugoslavia. — The Minister of Industry and Commerce, in agreement with the Minister of Social Policy, and after consulting the Trade Chambers, issued an Order on 13 May 1936 to fix the ratio of apprentices to skilled workers in commercial, industrial and handicraft undertakings.

INTERNATIONAL ACTIVITIES

International Bureau of Technical Education

This institution steadily expanded its activities during the year under review. Its work included in particular the preparation of the Sixth International Congress on Technical Education, which was held at the end of 1936.

The Congress met in Rome from 28 to 30 December, and was attended by over 1,700 persons, including official representatives of 24 countries.

The following four items figured on its agenda: (1) technical education and economic life; (2) vocational guidance and its continuity; (3) the training of teachers giving practical instruction in technical or vocational schools; (4) the training of women for their social functions in economic life.

The Congress passed resolutions on these four questions, the principle passages of which are given below.

Technical Education and Economic Life

After recognising that technical education is one of the most valuable factors in promoting the development of economic life and the progress of civilisation through the cultural and occupational advancement of the social classes representing the various branches of industrial technique, the Congress recommended:

(a) That technical education should be developed in the light of actual economic conditions, while at the same time providing technicians with general and social culture in keeping with their important functions in modern society;

(b) That trade associations, as competent authorities on all matters connected with the needs and trends of production, trade and labour, should be asked to collaborate closely with the State and with associations concerned in the study of problems connected with technical education;

(c) That the International Bureau of Technical Education should continue its work of co-ordinating and organising technical education internationally, in particular:

- (1) by establishing equivalence between the various certificates of competency issued by the affiliated countries in the field of industry, commerce and agriculture;
- (2) by keeping its members informed of the aims and results of the efforts made to train or re-train unemployed juveniles for uncrowded occupations;

(d) That the school-leaving age should be raised, the extra year to be used for purposes of vocational guidance and general pre-apprenticeship training;

(e) That children of 15 to 18 years of age should be compelled, according to the means of each country, to undergo theoretical and practical technical training in undertakings or vocational schools, which would give them a methodical and comprehensive knowledge of a trade;

(f) That the training of foremen and supervising staff should be organised and should show the place of the worker in production, whether such training is given in technical schools or by means of courses of adult education for industrial workers;

(g) That the human factor should be studied, and vocational guidance extended with a view to avoiding premature specialisation. In this last connection, the Congress considered that trades ought to be grouped not according to what they made, but according to the principal aptitudes required by the worker for their practice.

National Guidance and its Continuity

After referring to the importance of manual work in revealing aptitudes and of physical education as a contribution to vocational education, and to the influence of the growth of young people on their choice of a trade, the Congress recommended that steps should be taken, in conformity with general standards, to organise the general and psychological training of persons responsible for collecting the information to be used as a basis for vocational guidance (teachers of general and practical subjects, including physical training, doctors, superintendents in factories, shops, etc.); and that general rules should be laid down to establish contact between the schools, the trade unions and young persons' organisations, with a view to the supervision and assistance of young persons until their establishment in a suitable trade.

The Congress also recommended:

- (1) That physical training should be extended to all pre-vocational and vocational schools;
- (2) That apprentices and young workers should have the benefit of physical training up to the age of 18 years, as is the case in Italy, for instance;
- (3) That the closest possible contact should be established between those responsible for physical training and vocational guidance offices, in the light of existing circumstances and with a view to ensuring the continuity of vocational guidance;
- (4) That the training of physical training instructors include special instruction in collaboration with the vocational guidance offices;
- (5) That where such preliminary training is impossible, they should be given an opportunity of attending classes likely to promote such collaboration;
- (6) That, in the absence of vocational guidance offices, the physical training instructors should collaborate with or replace doctors and other educators in helping young persons and their families in the choice of a trade;
- (7) That methodical collaboration should be maintained and extended among those engaged in the study of psychology, vocational guidance and physical training.

After calling attention to the necessity of promoting scientific research in connection with the problems of juvenile employment and emphasising the importance of a study of motivity as an expression of personality in different occupations, the Congress expressed the opinion that manual labour was one of the most important factors for ascertaining and developing occupational capacity.

In view of the social importance of the educational and physical adaptation of persons suffering from physical, sensory and mental abnormalities, the Congress recommended that the International Bureau of Technical Education should co-ordinate all studies made in connection with the pre-vocational education and vocational guidance of abnormal persons, (a) by collecting all bibliographical information available on the subject, and (b) by placing the study of the question on the agenda of the next Congress.

The Congress again considered the question of introducing a standard medical record as an aid to vocational guidance, and the part played by doctors in this matter, and formulated the following recommendations:

"(1) The Congress urges that an international medical board should be appointed to draft a medical record form in accordance with the guiding principles laid down by the International Bureau of Technical Education in its report on the matter to the Rome Congress.

"This record should resemble that already adopted by the Department of Technical Education in Italy to show whether young persons are healthy and suited to the work for which they are trained in the schools.

"The record should be simple in form, so as to enable it to be filled in by doctors attached to even the smallest centres of technical education.

"(2) In view of the importance of the part played by doctors in vocational guidance, the Congress urges that future doctors should have the opportunity during their period of training, that is to say during their university years, of acquiring a good knowledge of psychology and psychotechnics in addition to their purely medical training."

Training of Teachers giving Practical Instruction in Technical or Vocational Schools

The Congress adopted the following recommendations on this subject:

(1) That teachers giving practical instruction in industrial schools and institutions should be properly trained in the trades taught, and in teaching methods, each country being left to take the necessary measures to this effect in accordance with its educational and industrial organisation;

(2) That on the occasion of the next Congress the International Bureau of Technical Education should organise an international conference of the best-qualified technical teachers in given trades, and an international exhibition of the methods and equipment used in the teaching of the technicalities of the various trades;

(3) That the International Bureau of Technical Education should place the question of the recruiting of principals of educational schools for the training of skilled workers on the agenda of the next Congress.

Training of Women for their Social Functions in Economic Life

The Committee set up to consider the question of the training of women for their social functions in economic life, with special reference to their economic functions and the exercise of suitable trades, adopted the following recommendations, which were approved by the plenary session of the Congress:

Vocational guidance. — The Congress urged that vocational guidance for girls should be developed in all countries so as to take account of (a) their special aptitudes; (b) their physical capacity; (c) actual openings for employment.

Vocational training. — The Congress expressed the opinion that technical education for girls should be confined mainly to the manual trades, without, however, neglecting other branches open to women, such as teaching, the

liberal professions, and administrative work, and recommended that, in the interests both of individuals and the nation, the technical education authorities in all countries should take steps to increase the number of technical schools and courses for women or open to women.

Domestic training. — The Congress, considering that women as homemakers should be capable of performing their family and household duties whatever their social position, recommended that domestic training should be made compulsory in the schools of all countries.

In addition to these four fundamental problems, the Congress also considered and discussed reports on several questions relating to technical newspapers and technical films.

The International Bureau of Technical Education also took note of a number of suggestions relating to questions which might be dealt with by the next Technical Education Congress in 1938. It was decided that the first item on the agenda should be that of higher technical education, including (a) training for engineers and (b) the place of higher technical education in university training. It was also decided to place on the agenda the question of the occupational training of abnormal persons mentioned above.

International Bureau of Education

This institution convened the Fifth International Conference on Public Education (Geneva, 13-18 July 1936), which adopted a series of resolutions concerning the organisation of special education, the organisation of rural education, and the legislation governing educational buildings.

In the first of these resolutions, the Conference emphasised the necessity for providing suitable vocational training for physically or mentally abnormal, backward or mentally unbalanced children, with due regard to openings for employment.

In the resolution concerning the organisation of rural education, the Conference, while drawing the clearest possible distinction between rural education and vocational training for agriculture, nevertheless pointed out that rural education should cover the rudiments of knowledge which agriculturists need to-day in order intelligently and successfully to pursue their calling.

In the resolution concerning the legislation relating to educational buildings, the Conference pointed out that in many countries building of this type can contribute to the reduction of unemployment and to economic recovery, and that educational building schemes should accordingly be included in schemes of public works organised to combat economic depression.

Representatives of the *road transport workers' unions* affiliated to the International Transport Workers' Federation met at Amsterdam (4-5 June 1936) and drew up a new international programme of the demands of drivers of motor vehicles, including recommendations concerning their vocational training.

The *Third World Congress for the Protection of Cripples* met (Budapest, July 1936) under the auspices of the International

Society for Crippled Children. The Congress adopted resolutions urging that measures should be enacted in every country to provide suitable vocational training for cripples, with a view to equipping them with a means of livelihood and providing them with satisfactory openings for employment.

The First *Balkan Congress on Child Protection* was held (Athens, 5-9 April 1936) on the initiative of the Save the Children International Union. The Congress considered the statutory protection of young workers, and adopted conclusions urging in particular that vocational guidance offices should be attached to juvenile employment exchanges.

The International Labour Office further pursued its studies in the various fields of vocational training. In pursuance of a resolution adopted by the International Labour Conference at its Nineteenth Session (1935) in connection with the discussion of unemployment among young persons, the Governing Body decided in February 1937 to place the question of technical and vocational education and apprenticeship on the Agenda of the 1938 Session of the Conference. This question will be considered in its widest definition, including problems relating to the vocational re-training of the unemployed, and the rehabilitation of persons disabled by industrial accidents.

Utilisation of Workers' Spare Time

During 1936 there was a growing interest in the utilisation of workers' spare time in general, and one or two questions in particular came into the foreground. One of these is the problem of workers' holidays. Suggestions and practical experiments have been made which deserve the fullest study from the social and the economic point of view, for they are bound to have repercussions in a variety of other fields, such as transport, the supply of tourist requisites, the hotel industry, etc.

Another aspect of this question to which considerable attention has been paid is that of physical education and sports. For various reasons, including the necessity for national defence, practically every country has made efforts to reorganise the development and maintenance of the physical health of its citizens.

It is generally recognised that the possibilities of utilising spare time should be as varied as possible, and also that the workers must be able to obtain useful information to enable them to lead a fuller life outside their working hours. Consequently the necessity for close collaboration between different branches of the workers' spare-time movement is being more fully realised in every country. This collaboration is sometimes quite elastic and sometimes highly centralised. Two important facts may be mentioned for 1936-1937:

the creation of an Under-Secretary's Department for Spare Time in France, and the proposal in Great Britain to set up two National Advisory Councils for Physical Education and Recreation.

The workers' education movement is developing in most countries, and more especially in the United States. The fact that workers' education is being carried out in an increasing number of ways (by schools, broadcasting, the cinema, popular arts, travel, etc.), may be taken as an indication of the conscious interest of trade unionists as a whole in the general problem of the utilisation of spare time.

NATIONAL ACTIVITIES

Austria. — The General Secretary of the Patriotic Front set up a new organisation entitled "New Life" which will organise workers' spare time. Much of its activities will be devoted to folklore, processions in costume, popular festivals, etc. Conducted tours to Vienna will be organised in autumn and spring.

The People's Education Association had to give up its work because of a shortage of financial resources. It transferred its assets and liabilities to the City of Vienna, which thus took over the 57 workers' libraries, with a total of about 277,000 volumes.

Belgium. — A Royal Order of 27 July 1936 created the National Workers' Spare Time Office, to provide workers with means of employing their leisure time in a useful and healthy manner. It is essentially an information office, but it may also take practical action; its activities will supplement those of the Higher Council for Popular Education, which is an advisory body attached to the Ministry of Education.

The adoption of legislation concerning holidays with pay in July 1936 provided a fresh stimulus for research into the means of organising workers' holidays—a question which has been widely discussed in the press. The National League of Christian Workers set up a Central Tourist Office, attached to the Central Office for People's Education, and various district branch offices. In November 1936 the Minister of Transport indicated the intentions of the Government in this field. He stated that the railway companies were prepared to grant reductions of 50 per cent. to workers travelling on special trains organised for the purpose of workers' holidays. With regard to board and lodging, efforts were being made to increase the number of youth hostels for workers under the age of 25, and to obtain large Government or municipal subsidies for these institutions. In the case of the lowest-paid workers, the public authorities will collaborate with the workers' organisations in studying the possibility of setting up holiday camps, in which the cost of board and lodging will not exceed 15 francs a head per day. Proposals have already been made for setting up seven holiday camps with collapsible huts and a few permanent buildings for the general and hygiene services of the camp. Arrangements have been

made with the organisations of hotel-keepers for special rates for workers who can afford to live in hotels.

A Committee on workers' holidays was set up, with representatives of various Government departments, transport companies, tourist organisations, associations of hotel-keepers, local development associations, youth hostels, the Friends of Nature Association, trade unions, youth organisations, the Central Industrial Committee, etc. The new Committee is making an enquiry into the steps taken in other countries with regard to workers' holidays.

Canada. — The Workers' Education Association has made appreciable progress since it was reorganised in 1929. At that time it had 425 members, attending 10 different classes. In 1935-1936 there were 43 classes, attended by 2,000 students. The local associations were urged to organise three-year courses in economics.

A Labour Research Bureau was set up in 1935. This Bureau and the Research Council for the Rights of Labour both provide workers with advice on important legal matters. Attempts have been made to extend educational possibilities to agricultural workers, more particularly by means of an institution known as the Agricola Study Club. The experience gained with clubs of this type and broadcast talks prove that study circles can play an important part in the development of workers' education.

A number of industrial companies attach great importance to the utilisation of spare time. For instance, the International Nickel Company of Canada has provided its 9,000 employees with a community hall and a country club, in which there are five tennis courts and a curling rink.

China. — Workers' education in China mainly takes the form of combating illiteracy. This campaign is particularly developed in the Shanghai region, where classes for illiterates have been organised among railwaymen and among the workers in 48 spinning mills.

The Federation of Rickshaw Boys' Mutual Aid Associations organised schools for adults and for children, and also a club with reading-rooms. It is estimated that the reading-rooms were used by 260,000 persons during the year, while the number of readers in the library was 14,000.

Czechoslovakia. — The Workers' Academy celebrated its fortieth anniversary during the year. It now has branches in every part of the country, and some 575,000 persons attended the various courses and meetings during 1935. The Congress of the Academy adopted a programme of action emphasising the necessity for close collaboration with political bodies and with workers' gymnastic associations. It also laid down conditions for collaboration with schools, municipal libraries, and committees for civic education.

At Zlin the Bat'a undertaking set up a new institution which is more or less a people's university. The building in which the institution is at present housed is to be extended later.

The Czechoslovak Workers' Wireless Association, which was founded by the central educational institutions of the two Socialist parties and the workers' organisations, celebrated its tenth anniversary during the year. Speeches by more than 1,500 persons from the workers' movement have been broadcast during these ten years.

France. — An Under-Secretary's Department for spare time and sport was set up in the Ministry constituted in June 1936. At the same time an Interdepartmental Committee was appointed to consider the whole question of the utilisation of spare time and workers' sports, to which attention had already been devoted by certain Government departments. This Committee will consult representatives of the various departments concerned, the workers' organisations, and appropriate technical bodies, so as to ensure the co-ordination of all public efforts in this direction.

The Seventeenth Congress of the French Federation of Christian Workers urged that fresh legislation should be passed concerning workers' housing and spare time. The diocesan Congress at Lille proposed that a sub-committee should be set up to consider the organisation of workers' spare time and co-ordinate the efforts of Catholic workers in this direction.

In January 1937 the League of Christian Workers published the results of an enquiry into working-class leisure, with special reference to the spare time of women workers, together with the conclusions drawn from the study. The Association of Women Supervisors in Factories at its annual meeting emphasised the importance of the part played by women supervisors in the utilisation of spare time. The Congress of the Alliance for Social Hygiene (Saint-Etienne, October 1936) had before it reports on workers' allotments, sport, and the organisation of spare time. The French Federation of Professional Workers issued a report on travel, spas and health resorts from the point of view of professional workers. This question was also studied among employers.

Side by side with this campaign to arouse public interest in the subject, various positive measures were adopted. Clubs or committees were formed in many places. The Champigny Club, which is named after Albert Thomas, was opened in February 1937.

Important steps were taken in many cases by the workers themselves: the Union of Paris Metal Workers bought a large estate for sports purposes; the Union of Plumbers and Slaters, which had already organised a welfare fund and a holiday camp for children, set up a committee on spare time; the National Federation of Building Workers founded a recreation club for theatrical performances, film shows, dances, and festivals; it also intends to develop sports clubs. A peasants' club, built largely by voluntary labour, was formed at Albussac (Corrèze). The Managing Committee of the Organisation for Social Work among Seamen decided to build a Seamen's Home at Brest in 1937.

The greatest activity in this field, however, was that shown in

connection with the organisation of workers' holidays. With the introduction of the new social legislation and the generalisation of holidays with pay which resulted, the question of the organisation of travel facilities for the working classes became of outstanding importance. To meet the new holiday requirements of the people, arrangements had to be made with existing hotels and boarding-houses, and steps taken to increase the number of holiday camps and hostels for the younger generation.

A number of trade union and co-operative organisations are being set up in this connection. Their efforts may well be inspired by the example of certain workers' travel associations, such as that founded in 1933 by railwaymen in the service of the Paris-Lyons-Mediterranean Company for the purpose of arranging country holidays, excursions, and travelling facilities for railwaymen and their families. A number of other railwaymen's travel associations are being formed by the staffs of the other French railway companies. In the Jura a popular travel association was set up in July 1936, under the name of "Holidays for All". Its aim is to develop and organise holiday facilities by establishing camps and holiday centres for children, a chain of cyclists' or youth hostels with camping grounds for young persons, co-operative and other classes of hotels, and caravan tours for families.

Other schemes are under consideration, as for example, the co-operative organisation of spare time by persons entitled to holidays with pay. These groups might rent houses in the country, equip them suitably and arrange for their members to pass their holidays there in rotation.

Great impetus was given to all these movements by the work of the Under-Secretary's Department for Spare Time. In order to cope with the hundreds of thousands of workers, who in the summer of 1936 evinced a desire to travel, attempts were made to organise cruises and railway travel facilities, but only the railway companies succeeded in evolving anything notable. The railway companies issued workers' annual holiday tickets, which allowed the worker entitled to a holiday with pay, and his family, a 40 per cent. reduction on the various railway lines. It is estimated that during the month of August alone 200,000 such tickets were issued, covering a total of 325,000 persons. It was found necessary to prolong this privilege beyond the dates fixed, and to extend it to the winter sports season.

The Under-Secretary's Department granted certain advantages to the youth hostel movement which has existed for several years, and now comprises three associations: The Secular Youth Hostels Centre, The French Youth Hostels League, and the Modern Hostels Association. Applications were made for loans to finance the building of new hostels. Plans are under consideration for the organisation of camping areas for young persons, one of these proposing the utilisation of the whole of the Landes district for the installation of holiday parks, a chain of youth hostels, etc. The number of hostels for winter sport devotees will be largely increased.

Workers' education is also in process of development. There was a rapid increase in the number of pupils attending the Central Workers' Institute of the General Confederation of Labour; the Centre for Workers' Education had a total of 5,000 admissions in 1935-1936, as against 818 in 1932-1933. It is thought that this number will rise to 10,000 in 1936-1937. In 1936 the Workers' Institute gave twenty oral courses a week, as against five a week in 1932-1933, while twelve correspondence courses were given a year instead of two as in previous years. In September 1936 the Workers' Institute organised two study weeks at Pontigny, one of which was devoted to workers' education, and the other to the economic organisation of peace. These courses were attended not only by pupils of the Workers' Institute and the provincial labour colleges, but also by foreign trade unionists.

In order to promote the development of this movement, the Centre for Workers' Education adopted a plan for the establishment of a national committee of labour universities, which will include representatives of the State and the General Confederation of Labour and members of the teaching profession. The national committee will arrange for the training of tutorial staff for labour universities.

Attention may also be called to the steps taken during the summer of 1936 to found a workers' theatre, and to organise people's festivals. More recently a series of conducted evening visits to the Louvre (Louvre Tuesdays) was arranged for workers desiring to visit that institution.

Finally, a wide movement in favour of sport was noted during 1936, while in March 1937 a Bill providing for a workers' sports diploma was submitted to Parliament.

Germany. — The central spare-time organisation, "Strength Through Joy", entered on its fourth year of activity. Detailed reports on the working of the organisation were submitted to the International Congress on Recreation and Spare Time held at Hamburg in July 1936, and on the third anniversary of the foundation of the organisation. At the present time the "Strength Through Joy" movement has organisations in 32 cantons, with 800 district branches and 18,000 local services. In addition, there are "Strength Through Joy" sections in 78,000 undertakings.

During 1936 the 142,000 evenings organised were attended by an aggregate of 53 million persons. Entertainments attracted 5 million persons, and concerts 3 million, while 17 million persons attended variety performances (41,000 evenings). Broadcasts were organised during breaks in the undertakings. Special attention was given to telediffusion.

The education section of the movement organised 36,000 demonstrations, in which 6 million persons took part. In the 300 educational centres set up by the movement, 10,000 lectures were followed by over 1½ million persons. A total of 430,000 persons took advantage of the 6,700 conducted visits to places of interest. In rural districts 10,000 educational evenings were orga-

nised, and attended by slightly under 2 million persons. The section also possesses 200 circulating libraries, with 250 books in each.

The "Strength Through Joy" organisation is, however, best known for its work in connection with the organisation of workers' travel, especially during the holiday period. In 1935 the number of persons taking advantage of the arrangements made increased by over 100 per cent.; in 1936 such persons numbered 6 million, including 5 million persons who undertook long journeys and week-end trips; another million took part in hiking tours, while 150,000 went on sea cruises. During 1936, eight ocean-going vessels were chartered for cruises organised by the movement. All these arrangements naturally involved a considerable amount of money, and expenditure by tourists, which amounted in 1934 to 45 million RM., rose to 110 million RM. in 1936.

The "Beauty of Labour" section carried out a large number of investigations, which resulted in considerable improvements being made in many of the undertakings. At the end of 1936 its work had led to the installation of 1,000 meeting rooms, 3,000 canteens, 3,500 factory gardens, 200 swimming pools, and about 1,500 cloakrooms and lavatories. Steps were also taken to improve conveniences on board vessels engaged in inland navigation, and in hotels and restaurants.

Special efforts were made to promote the development of sport. In April 1936 a new physical culture school was opened, while a section for sports and physical culture was set up in the Ministry of the Interior in December 1936. Altogether about 6 million persons followed 275,000 courses. The number of sports instructors rose from 1,200 in 1935 to 2,800 in 1936.

The movement for the utilisation of spare time among young persons has a number of special characteristics. A special organisation for young persons in the "Werkscharen" Works includes young members of the National-Socialist Party between 18 and 25 years of age, who form propaganda centres in the undertakings. At the present time there are 2,150 groups of this kind with an aggregate membership of 90,000.

The youth hostels movement continues to make progress. The number of beds in hostels increased from 80,000 in 1932 to over 130,000 in 1936, while the number of nights' lodging provided rose from 4.6 million in 1933 to 7.5 million in 1936. It may also be noted that the number of young foreigners using the hostels increased from 106,000 in 1933 to 194,000 in 1936. During the year 49 new youth hostels were built at a total cost of 1.7 million RM.

Another form of activity is the organisation of holiday camps for young persons. Camps of this sort were arranged for the "Werkscharen" Works while a number of camps were opened for girls. In addition to the arrangements for a huge bathing beach on the island of Rügen, it was decided during the year to open a rest station at Königswinter for 5,000 members of the Labour Front. In September 1936 the first Congress of People's Libraries was held

at Würzburg. Since then an active campaign has been carried out for the development of works libraries.

Great Britain. — The need of promoting the healthy physical development of the younger generation was explained in a memorandum issued by the Board of Education and the Secretary of State for Scotland in January 1937. The proposals made in this memorandum include: the appointment of two national advisory councils, one for England and Wales, and the other for Scotland; the appointment of two distribution committees to provide grants for the institutions; the organisation by the national councils of local committees to develop and co-ordinate work in the various localities, and to make proposals to the distribution committees with regard to local subsidies; the establishment of a national college for physical education; the grant of a subsidy to the National Playgrounds Association, and a temporary subsidy to the Central Committee for Physical Education and Recreation.

At the same time new recreation centres were opened or proposed. In Glasgow the community centre is to include a number of rooms, a library, a swimming pool, a clinic, and administrative offices. A centre was opened at Wythenshawe at the end of February by the Minister of Health. At Hulme a club was opened in a large four-storeyed building. This building, which was originally a club for the unemployed, will be converted into a spare-time centre for the district. According to statements made by the Minister of Health at Manchester in February 1937, the Government wishes to assist the local authorities in opening centres of this kind, especially in newly built areas.

A number of similar measures were taken in favour of young persons. In March 1936 the Smith Memorial Institute was opened in London.

The national committee of the Youth Hostels Association now has 50,000 members and 250 hostels. The number of nights' lodging provided by the Scottish Youth Hostels Association increased during 1936 from 90,000 to 110,000. Six new hostels with an aggregate of 500 beds were opened.

In order to meet the reading requirements of the population the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust decided to make further grants for the establishment of libraries. The total amount contributed by the Trust for such purpose amounts to about £500,000. In a report submitted to a Conference held in April 1936, it was stated that the number of books owned by county libraries had increased in six years from 2,600,000 to 5,600,000. The number of readers increased from 875,000 to 2,164,000, and the total number of books borrowed from 18,000 to 49,000. It was found necessary to increase the number of lending centres from 14,200 to 17,000.

The Trades Union Congress General Council decided to organise a travelling theatrical company for a period of three months. Members of trade union federations, the Labour Party, co-operative

societies, and other social organisations were to be admitted at reduced prices.

At its annual conference in November 1936 the Workers' Education Association took note of the progress made during the year. The number of classes organised was 3,148, an increase of 162, with 63,000 students, or nearly 4,000 more than in the previous year. The total number of members had increased by 1,710 to over 26,000. During the last five years membership had increased by 5,000. In addition to ordinary classes, week-end schools were organised in conjunction with the trade unions. These schools were attended by 20,000 students, an increase of 46 per cent. Fourteen summer schools of 2 to 8 weeks were attended by over 1,500 students. The Geneva summer school met for the third time, at the International Labour Office, and was attended by 52 trade unionists. A school was opened during two weeks at Lyme Regis in co-operation with the Workers' Travel Association, and was attended by 50 unemployed men and women. A similar school was opened for one week in Lancashire, while more than 100 students attended a five weeks' holiday course in Wales.

Greece. — In November 1936 the Government decided to set up a national youth organisation to promote the physical and moral education of the younger generation. A hostel and a spare-time centre for working women will be opened in the centre of Athens, and a seamen's hostel in the Piraeus.

Hungary. — The National Social Insurance Institute organises recreation facilities for insured persons under 17 years of age. By arrangement with the Boy Scout Union, young persons are placed in holiday homes for the benefit of their health. There they are properly fed, go in for open-air sports, take part in excursions, and attend theatrical performances, public festivals, camp-fire meetings, etc. Young persons sent to the homes are chosen in Budapest by the Institute and in the provinces by the medical officers of the insurance funds. About 4,500 juveniles have already spent a total of 60,000 days in the rest homes.

In November 1935 the Workers' Union opened a settlement which is available to 181 families aggregating 700 persons. The Union also runs young men's clubs.

During the summer months an exchange of intermediate school pupils of 15-17 years was arranged with Bulgaria. Numbers of Hungarian children were sent to Varna for a period of six weeks.

The Trade Union Federation asked the State and the municipalities to open spare-time centres for young unemployed persons and for juvenile workers and apprentices.

Italy. — A Government Bill provides for the opening of a Saturday theatre which will enable persons of modest means to become acquainted with the theatre. The best Italian artists will take part in the performances given; the price of tickets will vary from 0.50 to 2 lire. Performances will be reserved for industrial and agri-

cultural workers, shop assistants, workers and salaried employees in State undertakings whose remuneration does not exceed 800 lire, and members of the Fascist youth organisations. Ten per cent. of the seats will be put free of charge at the disposal of persons in receipt of relief from the welfare institutions of the Fascist Party.

Japan. — The Japanese Association for Workers' Education is entrusted with the task of providing the working classes with opportunities of perfecting their general and technical education.

A report published by the Department of Education describes the work done in connection with workers' education in 1935-1936. Classes opened in eleven of the chief industrial cities were attended by 751 pupils; the ages of the pupils varied from 20 to 55 years, but the majority were between 21 and 35 years. The mechanical engineering industry provided the largest number of pupils. Lecture courses were held in 19 localities and attended by about 3,000 pupils.

Latvia. — The duties of the Chamber of Labour include the organisation of allotments, the encouragement of sport, the establishment of rest houses, the utilisation of spare time, the inspection of workplaces and workers' houses, and the establishment and upkeep of workers' clubs, sports premises and grounds, reading-rooms and libraries.

Luxemburg. — A Grand-Ducal Order issued in March 1936 lays down measures for the organisation of centres of vocational training and land settlement for young unemployed persons. In addition to their work in connection with vocational training, young persons may visit workplaces, engage in physical culture, and practise sports.

Mexico. — The National Board of Higher Education was ordered by the President of the Republic to open a secondary vocational school and preparatory schools as from 1 June 1937. These institutions are intended to be a stepping-stone towards higher education for the working classes. The new schools will be open only to workers and will be endowed with a number of scholarships.

Poland. — A Spare Time Committee was appointed to study the question of the establishment of camps at the seaside and in the country and to organise collective excursions in Poland and abroad for municipal workers in Warsaw. Enquiries made last November, which elicited 20,000 replies, showed that many municipal workers would be glad to take advantage of these facilities if the cost did not exceed 100 to 150 zloty a month, or 60 zloty a fortnight. As a beginning, the Committee is making arrangements to provide a month's holiday at a total cost of not more than 100 zloty.

The winter camps organised for Warsaw municipal workers can accommodate 220 workers. The cost of a fortnight's stay in these

camps is 55 zloty per worker, and 65 zloty for each member of their family. This covers the cost of the return journey, board and lodging, and other advantages (excursions, ski-ing lessons, etc.).

Sweden. — In March 1937 a People's Travel Association was founded for workers and their families. The Association includes representatives of the Confederation of Trade Unions, the Co-operative Union, the Social-Democratic Party, the Social-Democratic Women's Association, the Social-Democratic Youth Association, the Workers' Education Association, and the Swedish Tourist Association.

United States. — A special aspect of the utilisation of spare time in the United States is the organisation of holiday camps in the national parks. For some time past the authorities have come to regard the parks not as natural preserves but as places to be used to promote travel and holiday schemes. During the summer months 46 holiday camps were organised in 24 States. These camps are of various sizes, some of them being merely wayside halts and others tracts of several thousand acres. The work of organising the camps was carried out by the services of the Resettlement Administration and the Civilian Conservation Corps. Separate camps were built for individual campers and for families. Shelters and simple wayside halts were arranged for tourists and picnickers. These measures represent the first stage of a general plan which will include over a thousand camps.

Considerable light was thrown on the official measures taken for the utilisation of spare time by the reports of the Works Progress Administration (W.P.A.) and the Civilian Conservation Corps (C.C.C.).

The work undertaken by the W.P.A. in connection with spare time was originally inspired by the fact that for some years past large numbers of children and juveniles have been a prey to idleness. It was to combat the dangers of this state of affairs that the W.P.A. prepared a comprehensive plan for the building and repair of parks and playgrounds, theatres, gymnasiums, recreation centres, children's camps, aquatic sports centres, winter sports centres, etc.

In March 1936 a total of 33,500 persons were employed in connection with this programme. Such persons require special training, which is given, for example, in a recreation instructors' school in New York. The report of the W.P.A. observes that a new occupation is thus being created, the characteristics of which are not yet clearly defined.

The work of the W.P.A. is carried out through the medium of local committees. In the States of Michigan and Pennsylvania committees were organised in a large number of towns. This work was facilitated by gifts and donations; in Nashville (Tennessee) the gift of an eighteen-roomed house led to the organisation of a recreation centre for the coloured population. In Boston a spare-time institute with twenty-nine rooms caters for the needs of 18,000 persons daily.

These different forms of activity provide employment for a large number of workless, especially among professional workers. The 9,000 persons employed in February 1935 in connection with musical activities organised by the W.P.A. increased to 15,650 by March 1936. Besides musicians, this number included librarians, copyists, etc. In one year, 1,500,000 persons in New York alone took advantage of the concerts given. In addition, 500 broadcasting performances were organised. The study of music is promoted by the organisation of lectures. The number of persons attending such lectures in New York rose from 29,000 to 244,000. Numerous demands for the organisation of lectures in various parts of the country are received by the promoters.

It has also been found possible to provide employment for a large number of artists. The 950 employed in 1934-1935 increased to over 5,000 by March 1936. This branch of relief work includes the organisation of people's art galleries or studios of contemporary art. Art classes were organised for children's clubs, schools, churches and settlements. In the New York area 300 centres arranged classes for 50,000 children and adults.

The organisation of theatrical performances gave good results and provided employment for 12,500 employees and artistes, who formed 49 companies.

Writers are entrusted with the preparation of guide books. This scheme originated in Connecticut and met with so much success that it was extended to all parts of the country. It is thought that it will do much to stimulate travelling in the United States. Many chambers of commerce and clubs have offered to assist in the publication of the guide books. In March 1936 the preparation of guide books provided employment for 6,500 persons.

Education forms an important part of the work of the W.P.A. In one year the number of teachers employed increased from 44,000 to 58,000, the number of pupils being about one and a half million. Besides classes for children there are six branches of education for adults: general education, classes for illiterates (attended by 290,000 persons), technical education, vocational training for the disabled, parents' classes (housework in general), and workers' education.

In connection also with the education of adults, the education authorities have organised "forums" in school premises, where instruction in civic duties is given. This has led to the engagement of several hundred instructors, and it is thought that during the course of the next ten years several thousand instructors will be required.

The Civilian Conservation Corps, founded in March 1933, has more or less the same educational aims as the W.P.A. Special attention may be called to its work in connection with libraries. For example, camp libraries have been considerably enlarged and over 400,000 books are taken out every month by 180,000 readers. In addition, 10,000 educational films are shown every month. The C.C.C. is able to call on the services of 1,200 teachers living in the

vicinity of the camps. Colleges situated near the camps allow campers to take advantage of their libraries, laboratories, classes and gymnasiums. The colleges also arrange a series of correspondence classes for campers; in February 1936, 5,700 correspondence courses were followed by 25,000 persons.

The development of the workers' education movement is as a rule left to the authorities. During 1936 the Workers' Education Bureau gave a series of lectures and organised workers' institutes in 11 large towns. The lectures dealt mainly with the Industrial Relations Act. The use of broadcasting is still very limited. During the year, however, a dozen lectures, entitled "Labour Speaks", were broadcast by the Workers' Education Bureau. Special attention was also given to workers' education in the educational camps for the unemployed.

U.S.S.R. — In May 1936 the Permanent Theatre of Popular Arts was inaugurated in Moscow. Plays are given there by dramatic societies from the towns, factories, schools, the army, etc.

The organisation of sport and physical culture was entrusted to the Committee for Physical Culture and Sport, which took the place of the Higher Physical Culture Committee. The number of persons practising sports is increasing rapidly. About 2,500,000 persons go in for light athletics, 2,000,000 play volley ball, 1,000,000 indulge in ski-ing, 1,000,000 in skating, 1,000,000 play football, and 240,000 ice hockey, while 210,000 persons go in for boxing and wrestling, 200,000 for swimming, and 150,000 for tennis.

Since 1935 the part taken by the Central Trade Union Council in the organisation of spare time has greatly increased. Special attention is being given to the development of travel facilities. In order to encourage mountaineering, the Council has granted 1,000,000 roubles, of which 320,000 roubles are to be used for the establishment of training centres and 300,000 roubles for an Alpine Club in Moscow.

The measures taken by the trade unions for the establishment of cultural centres was pushed forward. No longer content with setting up cultural homes and people's institutes in the large undertakings, the unions are establishing cultural centres, generally on large estates near the towns, where those concerned have the same wide opportunities of recreation as are offered by the parks of culture and rest which have existed in the towns for the last ten years.

In April 1936 an Act was passed to consolidate the different provisions relating to funds set up for the payment of bonuses and the improvement of the living conditions of the workers. A fund established in each undertaking under the name of "manager's fund" receives 4 per cent. of the net profits of the undertaking for which provision is made in the annual plan, and 50 per cent. of any profits earned in excess of the estimates of the plan. At least half of the resources of the manager's fund is allotted for the construction of dwellings for the workers, engineers and salaried

employees of the undertakings, while the remainder is used to improve material and cultural conditions by establishing nurseries, kindergartens, clubs, refreshment rooms, etc.

Yugoslavia. — Travel facilities are being organised throughout the country as a means of utilising spare time, this movement being encouraged by an Order issued in February 1936. In September 1936 the second Congress of the Friends of Nature Society, a tourist organisation, was held in Sarajevo. Since then the Society has affiliated to the Alpine Club and has established relations with the workers' trade unions and the workers' sports unions.

The Friends of Nature Society owns 10 large buildings and intends to put up another 30. It also owns 8 tourist homes and 2 shelters, while 2 more are being built. The Society has 1,200 members, who take part in short excursions. It is intended to widen the Society's influence by setting up sections for the younger generation. The establishment of tourist hostels on a co-operative basis is also under consideration.

INTERNATIONAL ACTIVITIES

Following the International Recreation Congress held in Los Angeles in 1932 on the occasion of the Olympic Games, an *International Congress on Recreation and Spare Time* met in Hamburg from 23 to 30 July 1936. In a resolution dealing with the question of the utilisation of spare time, the Congress pointed out that this problem could not be solved satisfactorily without the help of the whole nation and the collaboration of official institutions. By another resolution the Congress decided to establish a central office for research and publicity which would include delegates from all affiliated countries, and to encourage in all countries the establishment of central recreation institutes under the supervision of official delegates from the central office.

Other resolutions concerned the beautification of workplaces and dwellings, week-end holidays, physical culture for the workers, and the utilisation of the spare time of special groups, including women, children and young persons. It was decided to hold the next Recreation Congress in Rome in 1938.

A central office has since been set up in Berlin, and, attached to it, an Institute for Research into Spare Time and Recreation. In October 1936 the Institute began the publication of a review called *Joy and Work*, which appears in several languages.

The question of spare time was also discussed at a number of international meetings.

The *First Balkan Congress on Child Protection* recommended that the private associations, acting in co-operation with the State and the employers' and workers' organisations, should give the greatest attention to the spare time of young workers, making

use of suitable measures to ensure that the young workers derive from their spare time both pleasure and profit as regards their cultural development and physical training. These measures should include recreation centres, spare-time centres, holiday camps, etc.

The *Liaison Committee of Major International Associations* called attention to the necessity of organising recreation centres in a questionnaire relating to unemployment among young persons. Early in 1937 the Committee also discussed a general report on the question of the spare time of young persons.

At the *International Congress of Local Authorities* (Berlin and Munich, June 1936), the French Minister of Health pointed out that the shortening of the working week would have no sense unless measures were taken to enable the workers to employ their leisure hours to the best advantage.

The *World Youth Congress* (Geneva, September 1936), in the conclusions of one of its committees, recommended the provision of spare-time occupations for young unemployed persons of a voluntary and non-military character.

The *Socialist Workers' Sports International* held a Congress (September 1936) at which it was decided to organise workers' olympic games in 1937. Winter games were held in Johannesburg in February 1937. The other part of the games, which could not be organised in Barcelona in July 1937, will take place in Antwerp in July-August 1937.

The *International Congress of the Friends of Nature* (Brno, in August 1936), which was attended by representatives from 33 countries, made a special study of the possibility of developing certain sports such as ski-ing, yachting and boating, in conjunction with workers' travel facilities. The Central Committee was asked to take steps to get the workers' travel associations to affiliate to the Friends of Nature International. It was also decided to promote the study of the natural sciences in the Friends of Nature associations.

The *International Youth Hostels Movement* held its Fifth Annual Conference (Copenhagen, September 1936), which was attended by delegates from 21 national associations. On this occasion the newly established national associations of Austria and Latvia were admitted to the Movement.

The *International Conference on Workers' Education* (London, 11 and 12 July 1936) met immediately after the Congress of the International Federation of Trade Unions. The meeting studied a number of practical questions connected with workers' education, the cinema, a film service, the exchange, hire and purchase of films on international lines, as also technical methods and the possibility of independent production by the workers' organisations. The Conference also discussed the possibility for educational organisations to collaborate in the field of broadcasting. A

regards education proper, the Conference considered the question of education by correspondence.

At a summer school of the *International College* (Elsinore, May to July 1936) 80 students of different nationalities studied international questions of a social and cultural nature, as well as modern languages. International holiday courses were held in July and August and were attended by several hundred students. A series of winter courses were organised between November 1936 and April 1937.

The Committee of the *International Allotments Office* (Luxemburg, June 1936) decided to hold an international congress in Paris in May 1937.

At the second *International Congress on Amateur Films* (July 1936) a proposal was made to establish an International Union of Amateur Cinema Film Associations.

As already stated, the International Labour Conference at its Twenty-first (Maritime) Session (October 1936) adopted a resolution relating to the promotion of seamen's welfare in ports. In particular, the Recommendation calls for the institution or development of seamen's hostels, seamen's institutes, and the organisation of sports meetings, excursions, etc.

Finally, the Governing Body of the International Labour Office, at its Seventy-fifth Session in April 1936, decided to set up a Correspondence Committee on Workers' Spare Time. This Committee will be required to provide information on the work of the various organisations dealing with the utilisation of workers' spare time: spare-time organisations set up by the workers, organisations set up by the employers, and official organisations such as the national organisations for the co-ordination of the various spare-time associations, spare-time institutions of a general character, etc.

Housing

The revival observed already in 1935 continued to spread. The statistics published in the League of Nations *Monthly Bulletin of Statistics* show that building activity increased, sometimes to a considerable extent, in Finland, Germany, Hungary, New Zealand, Norway, Poland, Sweden, the Union of South Africa and the United States. In Great Britain it reached a very high level and remained almost stationary. In France the rate of building remained stable, but at a low level, although there was perhaps a slight tendency towards improvement. In Switzerland building activity declined considerably during the year but a rise was discernible at the end of 1936. It should be noted that in the countries of Latin America, although activity was not always on the increase, nevertheless the outlook for development was hopeful on account of the general interest in housing problems aroused

partly by the prospect of the Pan-American Housing Conference to be held at Buenos Aires in the spring of 1937.

Argentina. — A new interest in all aspects of house-building was awakened throughout the country by the result of the enquiries of the National Committee on Cheap Housing, which decided to extend the scope of its enquiries to the whole country, and by the prospective meeting of the Pan-American Congress in Buenos Aires in April 1937, which will deal with the problem of cheap housing. In November 1936 the Catholic programme of social reforms was placed before the Government. It advocates that cheap houses should be built and allotted to large families only, and that there should be supervision over the occupants for purposes of order and morality.

Australia. — The slum clearance campaign made considerable progress in the different States, and measures were taken or proposed to the State Parliaments. In Victoria a Housing Board with an extensive programme of work was set up in July 1936. In November a Housing Bill was introduced in South Australia. At the same time the Prime Minister announced that the construction of working-class houses would begin during the year with the help of a Government subsidy of £25,000.

In New South Wales an Act passed in the summer of 1936 amended the 1934 Act on the provision of housing accommodation for the unemployed. In December 1936 a Bill introduced in the Legislative Assembly would promote the development of co-operative building societies; it proposed that the Government may authorise the societies to grant advances up to 90 per cent. of the cost price, which may not exceed £750. A Housing Improvement Board is to enquire into the demolition of unsatisfactory areas and the rehousing of the people in those areas.

Bolivia. — Two Acts were passed at the beginning of 1936, one laying down regulations for the protection of tenants, the other creating an autonomous body, the Workers' Housing Committee, which apart from its administrative duties many also buy or build houses.

Canada. — Public opinion is deeply interested in the campaign against the housing shortage and especially in the question of slum clearance. It is estimated that 70,000 new houses are necessary to make good the shortage, and this in addition to the 25,000 which are considered to be the normal annual need. The Trades and Labour Congress advocated a housing scheme as a means of reducing unemployment and improving family living conditions. In September 1936 the Prime Minister announced the introduction of a programme for increasing employment, part of which was devoted to housing—chiefly to the rehabilitation of dwellings. At the end of the year, in anticipation of its acceptance, this programme was already being put into effect, with the collaboration of the larger banks. Under the proposed legislation the Government

is authorised to guarantee 15 per cent. of the loans granted by the banks. Private individuals will be able to obtain bank loans of up to 2,000 dollars at the rate of 3½ per cent.

Chile. — A housing exhibition held at the end of 1936 provided the opportunity for a press campaign on the housing problem. A Workers' Housing Fund was created by the Act of 10 October 1936, and is to begin its work in 1937. Its duties are not only administrative; it can also engage directly in building.

China. — The Workers' Welfare Committee of the municipality of Greater Shanghai adopted a plan of improved workers' dwellings taking into account the workers' preference for houses, however simple, which were their own property. After the enquiry of April 1935, which revealed that 94,000 of the inhabitants were housed in 30,000 straw huts, the municipality undertook the work of replacing these slums with healthy dwellings. Four model villages were built with a thousand houses and common dormitories for unmarried persons.

Czechoslovakia. — After a decline at the beginning of 1935 building activity revived in 1936. During the first eight months of the year the number of building permits exceeded not only the 1935 figure but even that for 1934. The volume of construction was 50 per cent. above the 1934 level. There was particular activity in house repairing. In the principal towns the number of houses under repair was over 8,000, representing a total expenditure of 120 million Kč.

In March important Acts were passed dealing with the promotion of house building and the protection of tenants.

At the beginning of 1937 the Ministry of Social Welfare decided that the advantages offered by the Building Acts were not yet well enough known. It especially emphasised the fact that contractors could erect buildings without having bought the land on which they are building.

Colombia. — In November 1936 the "Latorre" Act was passed to promote the building of cheap houses. The Mortgage Bank is to issue shares to a total amount of 1 million pesos on behalf of a company formed to finance the purchase of land and building work. The houses and farms built are to be occupied by workers only, and the loans granted for their construction may not exceed 90 per cent. of the estimated cost.

Egypt. — At the opening of the new Parliament in May 1936 the speech from the Throne dealt with the programme of rural improvement; the Government has drawn up a plan, which includes the creation of model villages, for the betterment of the living conditions of the peasants.

France. — With the entry into power of the new Government in June 1936, the problem of slum clearance again came to the forefront.

At the Town Planning and Housing Congress held at the beginning of July the Minister of Health pointed out how necessary it was to fight against unhealthy housing conditions. A National Slum Clearance Committee was set up under the honorary chairmanship of the Minister of Health and the Under-Secretary of State for Physical Training.

The inspection of farm dwellings was introduced by the Decree of 6 August 1936. At the beginning of January 1937 an Advisory Committee on Rents was appointed by decree. Besides representatives of Parliament and official organisations this Committee also includes three landlords' and three tenants' representatives.

Germany. — The year 1936 was distinguished by a marked increase in new construction. In previous years a large part of the increased housing accommodation was provided by the transformation of existing houses and especially by the subdivision of large empty flats. In 1936 the number of transformed flats dropped by 7 per cent., and yet the total increase in the number of new dwellings was about 50 per cent. higher than the increase in 1935. The number of dwellings built was estimated at 300,000, an increase not only on the figure for 1935 (240,000) but also on that for 1934, a year in which the transformation of existing houses played a leading part.

The second characteristic of house building in 1936 was that activity was particularly great in the large and medium-sized towns, which accounted for more than half the total. In some towns the increase was enormous; the number of houses under construction doubled in Stettin, tripled in Dessau, and even quadrupled in Königsberg. This increase is in part attributable to the financial assistance granted by the authorities. The proportion of houses built with the help of official subsidies rose from 37 per cent. to 48 per cent. There has been a noteworthy change in the distribution of houses built according to categories of builders, the share of organisations and public authorities having declined more and more; whereas it was estimated at 50 per cent. before 1930, and at 7 per cent in 1935, it was only 3.3 per cent. in 1936. Private contractors accounted for more than two-thirds of the new building in 1936, whereas in 1929 they provided 8.1 per cent., and in 1935 68.4 per cent.

In short, building activity in 1936 was about as great as in the period before 1930. Statistical enquiries show that this high level ought to be maintained or even exceeded. It is estimated that a yearly average of 387,000 new dwellings will have to be maintained for the next four years. In the five following years the figure might be reduced to about 200,000.

In the Economic Four-Year Plan introduced in the autumn the question of housing was regarded as one of the fundamental problems. A Ministry of Labour circular of 17 November 1936 emphasised the need for providing dwellings for the poorest sections of the population. According to certain estimates, of the 5 million

families who will be looking for dwellings in the coming years, 3 million have a monthly income of only 100 to 120 RM. and therefore cannot afford to pay more than 20 to 25 RM. in rent.

These statements led the authorities to take measures for the protection of tenants. The Order of 30 November 1936 reinforced preceding legislation; as a general rule the rent charged in October 1936 may not be exceeded.

As regards the nature of the houses to be built, the tendency is towards small houses, but it is sometimes questioned whether this tendency does not clash with the more general provisions for encouraging large families.

Finally, another aspect of the problem is the territorial distribution of new construction. The general investigations made by the Business Research Institute show that during the next ten years great activity in the construction of dwelling-houses is to be expected in the medium-sized towns, i.e. those with a population of 10,000-100,000. There will however probably be considerable variation between one district and another.

These considerations were borne in mind during the year. The importance attributed to increasing the number of small houses, and particularly of small holdings on the land, was indicated by a certain number of legislative provisions, encouraging for example the allotment of plots of land of at least 600 square metres. The maximum sum allowed in loans for the promotion of this form of land settlement was increased by 100 million RM. At the end of 1936 the number of rented allotments thus provided was estimated at over 100,000.

At the same time the provision of dwellings for workers employed in new areas of industrial concentration began to attract special attention.

The execution of these housing programmes demands a large capital expenditure. It is estimated that 2,000 million RM. will have to be invested in housing in 1937. Of this total 1,200 million RM. may be placed at the disposal of contractors by the public authorities.

Great Britain. — Building activity during the year may be considered to have created a record. In the financial year October 1935-September 1936, 340,000 houses were built; as a result, the total number of houses built since 1919 greatly exceeds 3 million; nearly a million of these were built by local authorities. A growing share of this building activity was due to the carrying-out of the slum-clearance programme. 45,000 unhealthy dwellings were pulled down in the year (31,000 in the previous year). By 30 September 1936, 513,000 persons, who under the Act of 1930 had been evacuated from condemned houses, were reinstalled in 109,000 new houses.

An ever-increasing share in house building was taken by private and non-subsidised enterprises. They account for 275,000 of the 340,000 houses built during the year. Practically all the remaining

houses were built by local authorities with the help of State grants.

According to the Overcrowding Survey published in July 1936, there are 340,000 cases of overcrowding in England and Wales, affecting 3.8 per cent. of the total number of families. These figures show that the work of slum clearance is by no means at an end. Although on various occasions during the year there was a slight drop in the rate of building, there still appears to be room for great activity, at least in regard to the provision of cheap housing accommodation.

Hungary. — As a result of the decline in the rate of house building in the last few years, a housing shortage again began to make itself felt, chiefly in the capital. Enquiries revealed that the time had come for a fresh examination of the problem of small dwellings and working-class dwellings. A suggestion was laid before the Budapest Municipal Council that it should build one thousand relief dwellings, and that 40,000 pengö should be spent yearly on this work from the end of 1938 onwards.

Irish Free State. — Building activity revived, to a large extent in consequence of the Act of 1932. By the end of September 1936 the total number of houses built under this Act had risen to 20,000; 7,000 of these were in country districts. The declarations made by the Minister of Health in the autumn showed that the action undertaken was to be continued for some time to come. In Dublin, for example, where there are still 93,000 persons living in 28,000 one-roomed dwellings, it is estimated that it will be at least 15 years before the slums are completely cleared.

Italy. — At the beginning of 1937 the Head of the Government gave his approval to a plan for providing houses for the less well-to-do sections of the population. The credits for the construction of cheap dwellings are to be raised to 200 million lire yearly for a period of five years; they will enable 75,000 dwellings to be built, averaging 15,000 lire in value, at a monthly rent of 50 to 60 lire.

Japan. — A plan was drawn up by the Workers' Welfare Society to enable factory workers to buy their own houses and a plot of land. The work was started in three districts in Tokyo, and houses were built at a monthly rent ranging from 13 to 23 yen. The purchase interest rate was fixed at 3.2 per cent. Since there were ten times more applications than houses available, this system will probably be extended in Tokyo and its surrounding districts.

Mexico. — The Government undertook to give effect to Article 123 of the Constitution, which provides that all agricultural, industrial and mining undertakings shall supply comfortable and healthy living accommodation for their employees. The Labour Department wished to make it possible for the workers to become the owners of these dwellings.

New Zealand. — In the spring of 1936 the Government announced that it was preparing a plan to promote building and protect tenants. In September a Ministry of Housing was set up in the charge of an Under-Secretary of State. It was estimated that in the coming year £3,500,000 would be placed at the disposal of the new body by the Minister of Finance. Loans made to the local authorities for building purposes were to bear interest at 3 per cent., but would not be granted to persons earning more than £6 a week.

A Fair Rents Act was passed on 11 June 1936. Its general principle is to keep rents at the level of 1 May 1936. The Act has special provisions to prevent the arbitrary eviction of tenants.

Peru. — A Housing Inspection Service with very wide powers was created in December 1936. It has the right not only to inspect workers' dwellings but also to give orders for repairs or improvements. Penalties may be inflicted on landlords who do not comply with the requirements of the housing inspectors.

Poland. — The result of an enquiry in 1933 showed that in some respects the housing situation was far from satisfactory. Moreover, during the last few years the average number of houses built did not exceed 55,000. This figure, it is true, corresponds to the natural growth of the population, but since there is a shortage of 400,000 dwellings, a vigorous speeding-up of construction appears necessary. Since wages have fallen of late and rents have remained stationary, the proportion of a worker's budget absorbed by rent has risen from 5 per cent. to 15 per cent.

Sweden. — In May 1936 the Government passed various Bills on housing through the Riksdag. A credit of about 25 million kronor was divided as follows: 15 million kronor for the Loan Fund for the housing of large and needy families; 2 million for the Loan Fund for house building in towns and 2 million for the construction of rural dwellings. Furthermore, a special grant of 5½ million kronor was provided for building houses in country districts, and of 300,000 kronor for improving the housing conditions of agricultural workers.

Union of South Africa. — At the beginning of 1936 a conference of the municipalities and public welfare associations was held in Cape Town on the question of housing and in particular on the improvement of faulty dwelling houses. The main purpose of the discussions was to discover means of enforcing more effectively the Slums Act of 1934. Early in 1937 the Ministry of the Interior announced that in order to accelerate the execution of the housing programme of the Public Health Department, involving the expenditure of £12 million, the Government intended to place a sum of £4 million at the disposal of the local authorities for slum clearance and for building without earning a profit.

United States. — Substantial progress was made in house building in the year 1936. The Office for Labour Statistics noted an increase of 86 per cent. in the number of new dwelling houses. Private building, especially, increased by at least 50 per cent. as compared with 1935. But although about 250,000 new dwellings were built, the shortage is still estimated at 2 million dwellings. Little headway was made in solving the slum problem, since private contractors see no chance of profit in building houses for the poorer classes. Moreover the municipalities lacked funds and neither the State Governments nor the Federal Government wished to embark on large-scale housing programmes.

A large number of Bills on housing were submitted to the last Congress. The most important of these, the Wagner-Ellebogen Bill, was passed by the Senate but finally not accepted.

The six principal organisations which deal with the housing question showed a tendency towards organised co-operation. So far there only exists a central housing committee composed of representatives of these bodies.

Federal Government action follows the lines of the Acts already passed. Twenty-two States now have their own legislation.

INTERNATIONAL ACTIVITIES

The Tenth International Congress of Property Owners met at Warsaw in September 1936. It discussed housing legislation, municipal charges on urban property, the taxes on real property, and the housing of the unemployed. The Congress declared that there could be no limitation of the exercise of property rights in the relations between landlords and tenants, and that it was for the community to assist the unemployed.

CHAPTER VII

WORKERS' GENERAL RIGHTS

Right of Combination in Trade Unions

The movement in support of a reform of trade organisation (a term used in its widest sense) acquired especial depth and intensity in 1936.

The outstanding feature of the latest developments appears to be that legislatures are turning more and more to large-scale general reforms covering the whole sphere of industrial relations and often resulting in permanent changes in social and economic structure. In some countries this development followed a pre-conceived plan whose main lines gradually emerged more and more clearly; in others, again, it appears to have been the natural consequence of changing conditions which the legislature merely acknowledged and translated into law.

The following section on the right of combination in trade unions, which serves to some extent as an introduction to Chapter VII, will as usual be limited to a brief description of measures relating to organisation properly speaking, whereas in the later sections the actual powers of the associations will be considered. For the reader's convenience alphabetical order has been followed (although an analysis shows that many of these reforms are closely connected and are inspired by the same ideas) except in the case of Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania; the similarity of the information on these three countries is so great that they have been grouped together, under the special heading of "Baltic Countries".

Austria. — The first stages in the building up of the corporative organisations have been described in previous editions of the *Year-Book*¹; the establishment of the Confederation of Austrian Workers and Employees, representing all Austrian wage earners, and as a counterpart the institution of the corresponding employers' organisations. An Act of 24 November 1936 set up corporative committees to supply that connecting link between the workers'

¹ Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1934-35*, p. 361 *et seq.* and *I.L.O. Year-Book 1935-36*, p. 338 *et seq.*

and employers' groups which was provided for in the Constitution of 1934.

This Act, which the Government considers an important step towards the corporative organisation of the country, was the subject of previous detailed discussions between the General Confederation of Workers and the employers' federations, and also in the Economic Council and the Council of State.

The Act applies to occupational groups in industry and mining, handicraft undertakings, and commerce, but it does not extend to credit and banking, transport, the liberal professions, and agriculture.

In each of the occupational groups falling within the scope of the Act, corporative committees will be set up, composed of representatives of the legally recognised employers' and workers' organisations in equal numbers. The duties of these committees will be *inter alia*: to consider all social and economic questions (including apprenticeship) affecting the interests of both workers and employers and to help to set up corporative organisations; to promote the conclusion of collective agreements; to see that the agreements in force are observed and to denounce any breach of these agreements to the organisation whose duty it is to enforce them; to arbitrate in collective disputes arising out of collective agreements. The regulation rules of the corporative committees may also provide that they shall be competent to settle individual labour disputes.

Within the framework fixed by law, the committees are to a certain extent self-governing. For example they have the right to fix the details of their own work by means of regulations drawn up jointly by the employers' and workers' federations concerned. These regulations must be approved by the Federal Government, which must also give its consent to any subsequent alteration. After having been approved by the Government they must be published in the Official Journal (*Bundesgesetzblatt*).

If, however, the regulations have not been fixed by common agreement within a period of three months from the date on which the new Act came into force, they will be prescribed by the Government. The regulations will cover the institution, composition, scope of activity, procedure, and administration of the corporative committees. They may provide for the setting up of sub-committees (trade committees, arbitration committees, etc.), from among the members of the committees, to carry out some special task assigned to them; they may also provide for the establishment of a certain hierarchy among the various committees.

On each committee and sub-committee employers and workers must be represented in equal numbers.

The importance of the tasks which the committees are called upon to perform can probably be judged only in practice. Detailed methods have, however, already been established for regulating labour disputes, which will be examined later ¹.

¹ See below, under "Conciliation and Arbitration".

Baltic Countries

In the three Baltic countries, Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania, the movement of social organisation is tending more and more to the creation of occupational chambers, official bodies acting as the representatives of the various social categories in their relations with the public authorities and apparently destined to absorb the free trade unions. A whole series of chambers, for commerce and industry, agriculture, arts and crafts, the professions, private employees and labour, has been created during recent years.

As the chambers of labour in all three countries are organised on the same model, a few details on each will be sufficient.

Estonia. — Under a Decree of 8 May 1936 the Chamber of Labour is recognised as a public body whose object is to ensure the representation and the protection of the economic, social and cultural interests of the workers.

With this end in view the main duties of the Chamber are: to enquire into the material position of the workers and to make the necessary suggestions to the competent authorities to improve this position; to make reports and recommendations on the regulation of industrial relations, the settlement of disputes, the protection of labour, social insurance, the relief of unemployment, and in general on all social and economic questions directly affecting the workers; to advise on Bills and regulations which deal with social and economic matters; to take part, through its representatives, in the work of public institutions when such participation is provided for by law; to establish contact with other occupational and cultural associations; to organise exhibitions and courses of study on labour questions; to co-ordinate the activity of workers' associations; to set up and administer institutions and establishments for the improvement of economic, social and cultural standards among the workers, and in general to take any action for the achievement of its object and to fulfil any other task assigned to it by laws and regulations.

With regard to trade unions properly speaking, it should be noted that by a decision of the Minister of the Interior dated 23 September 1936 the Executive Committee of the Federation of Trades Unions was replaced by a provisional Committee nominated by the Minister, who also announced at the same time that an Act would shortly be passed regulating the rules of trade organisations.

Latvia. — Similarly in Latvia, an Act of 11 May 1936 set up a Chamber of Labour as sole legal representative of the workers. The object of the Chamber is to ensure a fair representation of the workers' interests before the authorities and to raise the standard of social and economic life and general culture of the working class.

The Prime Minister or the Minister delegated by him, in agreement with the Ministers of Social Welfare, Finance and Agriculture is to decide what classes of workers are to be represented in the Chamber.

The trade unions are to be reorganised on the basis of standard rules drawn up by the Chamber and they will be closely associated with the work of that institution. In Riga there is to be a separate union for each trade, but outside Riga the unions will include workers of all trades. The Chamber itself determines the number of unions to be set up and each union's sphere of activity.

Trade union organisations or societies other than those controlled by the Chamber are to be dissolved and their property transferred to the Chamber. The Chamber can sue or be sued in the courts within the limits laid down in the Act, and comes under the supervision of the Prime Minister.

The first sitting of the Chamber was opened on 17 January 1937 by the President of the Republic.

The close collaboration between the trade union movement and the Chamber of Labour is due to the fact that the management of the Latvian Federation of Trades Unions has been entrusted to the Directorate of the Chamber.

Lithuania. — The Lithuanian Chamber of Labour was created in October 1935 but did not begin its work until 23 July 1936. Its duties are *inter alia*, the preparation of Bills on contracts of employment, the period of notice of dismissal, collective agreements, conciliation and arbitration, and old-age and invalidity insurance.

Further, as regards trade unions, under a new Associations Act of 1 February 1936 (amending the Act of 24 November 1919 on the same subject), the Minister of the Interior now has the power to require that the formation of an association must receive previous approval, to place its activity under administrative supervision, to dismiss the members of its executive committee, and to declare its suspension or dissolution.

Belgium. — As a result of a strike movement which spread over the whole country, labour relations were placed under the *de facto* control of the central employers' and workers' organisations.

On 17 June 1936, the strike movement was ended with an agreement of principle between representatives of the Central Industrial Committee of Belgium and representatives of the Belgian Trade Union Committee and the Federation of Christian Trade Unions, concluded under the chairmanship of the Prime Minister. This agreement covered the readjustment of wage levels, holidays with pay, hours of work, freedom of association and joint committees.

The clauses of the agreement were later applied to the majority of industries and occupations in the country by collective agreements concluded for the most part under the auspices of the joint committees.

Various legislative measures were also to be taken to give effect to certain clauses in the agreement, including those dealing with freedom of association. A Royal Order of July 1936, establishing new regulations for the granting of State subsidies to recognised mutual benefit societies, provides that no employer may in future

make any deduction from wages for contributions to mutual benefit societies or unemployment funds. This measure was rendered necessary by the fact that workers would have been compelled, at the risk of losing or not obtaining employment, to joint mutual benefit societies or unemployment funds under the employer's control.

Further, an Act of 28 July 1936 granted an amnesty for offences committed during the strikes which occurred during the first half of 1936.

Finally, a Bill dealing with the legal status of trade unions was submitted to Parliament.

According to the explanatory memorandum, the chief object of this proposal is to endow employers' and workers' unions with legal personality to enable them to operate more easily and more surely. The memorandum adds that the unions should remain free associations although they are often called upon to collaborate with the public authorities for the common good. "We are resolutely opposed", continues the memorandum, "to all State control over the trade unions, and we mean to defend the freedom of association in the widest sense . . .".

It is well known that the trade unions in Belgium act more and more through the joint committees, which grew considerably in number during the year, not only in private industry but also in large administrative departments. Up till now, however, the decisions of these joint committees have not been binding. To correct the weaknesses of the present situation, a Bill was submitted to Parliament with a view to giving these bodies a legal status.

The explanatory memorandum defines its scope in the following terms:

"The events of June 1936 have given a fresh demonstration of the extreme usefulness of the joint committees, but it was discovered that in many branches of industry and trade the necessary committees did not exist and had to be improvised.

"Such a situation must not be allowed to recur.

"Nor should it be possible for heads of undertakings to evade any regulations which may be decided on for an occupation as a whole in regard to the conditions of operating the undertaking and the conditions of employment of the workers.

"We therefore repeat the request that we have often made before, that a legal status be conferred on the joint committees, thus increasing both their stability and their utility.

"It is becoming daily more apparent that trade organisations are an economic necessity if the disadvantages of cut-throat competition, which in the past have reacted not only on the working classes but also on the nation and most employers as well, are to be avoided.

"The word 'corporatism' has come to be used in an authoritative sense, as definitely opposed to freedom of association in trade unions and to democratic institutions. That is why we wish to declare that we are absolutely opposed to corporatism. Occupational organisation, as we see it, is a very different thing from corporatism, and must be absolutely compatible with freedom of association.

"It is in this sense that we regard the granting of a legal status to the joint committees as an indispensable step in the process of trade organisation.

"We are of the opinion that the problems of production are so bound up with the problems of distribution, that the future will see an ever-increasing intervention of trade organisations and joint committees in economic matters."

Under the Bill the joint occupational committees would have a fourfold task: to supply information, to carry out investigations, to conciliate in disputes, and to draw up regulations.

As regards this last and most important duty, the committees would be empowered *inter alia*: (1) to extend to one or more regions or to the whole country, or to all the undertakings in a certain branch of trade or industry, or to an organised occupation, the stipulations of a collective agreement which has been concluded and approved in the branch or in the occupation; (2) to draw up trade rules applicable to all undertakings in the branch of industry or organised occupation with which they deal.

Bolivia. — A Decree of 19 August 1936 introduced compulsory trade union organisation, which in the words of the explanatory memorandum is "the foundation of the country's new social and political régime".

Under this Decree, any inhabitant of Bolivian territory who takes any part in any way in the production, working up or distribution of goods is obliged to join a trade union, in accordance with the provisions of the new rules on trade organisations. A national trade union register including both workers' and employers' organisations is kept by the Trade Associations Department of the Ministry of Labour.

It will be necessary to present the trade union membership book issued to every person at the time of his enrolment, when application is made for a citizenship card.

The unions are placed under the permanent protection and supervision of the Government and the trade union organisation "shall form an integral part of the State institutions and shall serve the efficient organisation of the public authorities".

The trade unions are divided into two main groups; employers' unions and workers' unions. Any person taking part in production as an owner proprietor, bondholder or shareholder, or as manager, administrator or technical director, belongs to an employers' union. Any person performing manual or non-manual work and dependent on their earnings for their livelihood belongs to a workers' union.

Both the employers' and the workers' unions are divided into two grades. Primary unions include craft unions, which group persons engaged in the same specialised task, occupational unions, grouping persons engaged in similar or allied occupations in the same branch of industry, and industrial unions grouping all the persons occupied in one industry, undertaking, workplace or office, public or private. Secondary unions consist of federations of primary unions for the same branch of production. In every department or region where industrial concentration renders it possible, the federations of unions will form regional unions,

which in their turn may constitute the National Confederation of Unions.

A regional congress will be held every two years in every district, and a national congress will be held every four years in the capital. The Minister of Labour will indicate to employers and workers the primary union which they are to join and will inform the primary unions to which federations they should affiliate.

Both the workers' and the employers' unions will be self-governing. Their representatives will meet in committee or at joint congress at the request of the parties concerned or of the Government, whenever it is necessary to arrange an agreement between capital and labour or to decide the best manner of improving production. Decisions taken by a two-thirds majority shall be binding on both parties.

In order to be recognised as incorporated institutions, all unions, federations, and regional unions and the National Confederation, whether of employers or workers, must submit their rules to the Government and receive special recognition.

Each employers' or workers' union must appoint one or more delegates, who alone are legally qualified to represent the interests of the members before the State or before third parties. These delegates must be members of the managing committee of the union, whose numbers vary according to the size of the union. The "Rules for the Organisation of Trade Associations" which will be issued by the Minister of Labour, will define the details of the organisation of the unions. A special Act will govern the organisation of employers and workers in agriculture.

Bulgaria. — Following the reorganisation of the trade union movement for employers' and workers which has been referred to in previous editions of the *Year-Book*¹, the Government issued a Legislative Decree, dated 22 September 1936, which regulates in one text collective agreements, conciliation and arbitration, and strikes and lock-outs.

The first two questions will be dealt with later², and here only a brief analysis will be given of the provisions relating to collective labour disputes.

Under section 18 of the Legislative Decree, strikes and lock-outs are prohibited. A strike is deemed to be in progress when all or some of the workers leave their work with the intention of rendering it impossible for the undertaking to continue to operate. A lock-out is deemed to be in progress when an employer dismisses all or some workers with the intention of lowering their wages, or in order to influence disputes which have arisen in his own or another undertaking.

The following cases, however, cannot be considered as constituting

¹ Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1934-35*, p. 367 and *I.L.O. Year-Book 1935-36*, p. 389.

² See below under "Collective Agreements" and "Conciliation and Arbitration".

a lock-out: (1) when, on the day of dismissal, the employer pays the workers the wages owing for the period of notice and if the object of the dismissal is not to reduce wages or to influence disputes which have arisen in his own or another undertaking; (2) when the dismissal of the workers is due to the fact that work cannot be continued for reasons outside the employer's control such as: fire, flood, earthquakes, and similar occurrences.

On application by the Labour Inspectorate or the employer a worker participating in a strike may be deprived of all or part of the rights and privileges provided in the Labour Protection Act, by a decision taken by a conciliation committee after a sitting at which both parties have been allowed to state their case. An employer taking part in a lock-out or declaring a lock-out is liable to a fine of 20,000 to 100,000 leva.

Persons who incite or have incited workers to declare a strike or participate in a strike or who incite or have incited employers to declare a lock-out or to participate in a lock-out are liable to a sentence of 1 to 3 years' imprisonment.

Danzig. — The dissolution of free trade unions in Danzig declared in first instance by an award of 21 December 1934 became final as a result of a decision of the Higher Court dated 14 May 1936.

The incidents leading up to this are well known; how the organisation of National-Socialist works cells took over control of the German trade unions of 1 May 1933, and how subsequently a representative of the organisation, under a provisional award of a court of the Free City, also took control over the Danzig trade unions, confiscated their property, and dismissed their leaders.

In rejecting the appeal lodged by the General Federation of free trade unions of Danzig the Higher Court founded its decision on the allegation that the dissolution of the German organisations would automatically entail the dissolution of the organisations of the Free City, since the latter were only branches of the principal German organisations. Similarly, the dismissal of the trade union leaders was according to law, since under their rules the principal organisation had the power to dismiss leaders of subsidiary unions in whom it no longer had confidence.

The case for the defence, on the other hand, was that under Article 113 of the Free City's Constitution, which is guaranteed, by the League of Nations, workers had the right to combine in trade unions to defend their social and economic interests, and that, moreover, by a Convention concluded in 1920 with the General Federation of German Trade Unions, the organisations of the Free City were completely independent as far as the central German organisation was concerned.

Dominican Republic. — The President of the Republic issued a Decree permitting trade unions to be instituted in the various industrial centres, provided they were placed under the supervision and control of the mayor or governor as the case might be.

Ecuador. — A Decree of 31 July 1936 introduced fresh regulations on the right to strike and on conciliation and arbitration.

The Decree recognises the right to strike, but the exercise of this right is made subject to certain conditions fixed by law. Strikes must be limited to a cessation of work without damage to persons or property, and their only object must be the improvement of working conditions.

A strike may be declared only in certain conditions, the most important of which are the following: (1) 51 per cent. of the workers concerned must participate in the strike; (2) three days must elapse between the submission to the employer of demands which he either refuses to answer or refuses to grant and the declaration of the strike; (3) the persons concerned must make an immediate statement of their demands to the local labour authorities, or failing these, to the police authorities.

Workers in public undertakings or services "of indisputable social importance", may not resort to strike methods until ten days after their claims have been submitted. In this case the labour inspector or the police will immediately inform the Government in order that it may take steps to ensure that work will be continued and the dispute settled by arbitration, with due consideration for all the interests at stake. For the purposes of the Decree, means of transport and communication, lighting and electricity concerns, water supplies, and essential food supplies are regarded as public utility services.

If a strike is declared in accordance with these provisions, the strikers will receive the protection of the public authorities¹.

Estonia. — (See under Baltic Countries.)

France. — It is perhaps in this country that the trade union system changed most profoundly, both *de facto* and *de jure*. *De facto changes*: It is well known that the series of reforms which are analysed in detail in various parts of the present work² had as their origin a very extensive strike movement accompanied in many cases by "occupation" of the factories. This movement resulted in an agreement of general application, known as the Matignon Agreement³, which was reached by the General Confederation of French Employers and the General Confederation of Labour after arbitration by the Prime Minister.

Under this Agreement, which was in fact a treaty of mutual recognition, the two opposing parties accepted a certain number

¹ For the settlement of disputes, see below, under "Conciliation and Arbitration".

² See above, Chapter II, under "Hours of Work"; and below, under "Conciliation and Arbitration", "Collective Agreements", "Industrial Councils", "Economic Councils" etc.

³ For the text of the agreement, cf. INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE: *Collective Agreements, Studies and Reports, Series A, No. 39.*

of clauses which aim at establishing fundamental rules for their mutual relations in the future.

The principal clauses deal with the guarantee of freedom of association in trade unions, increased wages, and the institution of workers' delegations. Without entering into a detailed analysis of this agreement, it is important to recall its main provisions on the subject of wages and freedom of association.

According to the agreement the *real* wages paid to all workers on 25 May 1936 were to be readjusted on a descending scale from the day work was resumed. The scale of increases ranged from 15 per cent. for the lowest-paid workers to 7 per cent. for the highest-paid, but in no case was the total wages bill of any establishment to be increased by more than 12 per cent.

As regards the guarantee of freedom of association, the stipulations of the agreement were as follows:

“ On the ground that it is the duty of citizens to obey the law, the employers acknowledge the right of freedom of opinion and the right of all workers freely to join and belong to a trade union established in virtue of the Act on trade associations.

“ The employers undertake that in arriving at decisions in regard to engagement, conduct or distribution of work, disciplinary measures or dismissal, they will not take into consideration the fact of the worker belonging or not belonging to a trade union.

“ If one of the contracting parties questions the grounds for dismissal of a worker, alleging such dismissal to have been carried out in breach of the aforesaid right of association, both parties are to take action to ascertain the facts and to bring about a fair settlement of all disputed cases. Such action will not affect the right of the parties to secure judicial apportionment of damages by process of law.

“ The exercise of the right of association may not give rise to acts contrary to law.”

As is well known the provisions of this agreement were intended to be, and indeed were, incorporated in the collective agreements which govern employment at the present time in the majority of industries and occupations in the country.

De jure changes: It was not long before this purely *de facto* mutual recognition of the two most important employers' and workers' organisations—the General Confederation of Labour quintupled its membership in a year and has now more than 5 million members, and the growth of the General Confederation of French Employers was on an equal scale—was officially confirmed by a whole series of Acts.

For example the Act of 24 June 1936 supplementing and amending the Act of 25 March and 25 June 1919 on collective agreements¹ provides in section 31 *v.a.* to 31 *v.g.* for a new form of regulation of the relations between employers and workers, through the medium of the most representative occupational organisations.

¹ See below, under “ Collective Agreements.”

Under the new Act, at the request of the employers' or workers' organisation concerned, the Minister of Labour or his representative may call a meeting of a mixed committee for the purpose of concluding a collective labour agreement. This mixed committee will be composed of delegates from the most representative employers' and workers' organisations for that branch of industry or commerce in the region concerned or, in the case of a national agreement, in the whole of the country.

Moreover, under section 31 *v.c.*, any agreement resulting from such negotiations must contain provisions which guarantee among other things freedom of association in trade unions and freedom of opinion for workers.

Similarly, under the Decree of 16 January 1937 for the application of the Act of 31 December 1936 on compulsory arbitration¹ a National Inter-occupational Conciliation Committee shall be set up as the supreme court for conciliation procedure under the chairmanship of the competent Minister or his representative, with equal numbers of employers and workers chosen respectively by the General Confederation of French Employers and the General Confederation of Labour.

These two bodies have also the task of drawing up a list of persons from whom the Minister must choose arbitrators.

Finally, the National Economic Council, which since its reorganisation by the Act of 19 March 1936 (completed by the Decree of 23 July 1936), has been very closely associated with the drafting and the enforcement of social and economic laws, is now also drawn from the most representative organisations of French employers and workers².

Briefly then, by these reforms the Government may be said to have handed over the supervision and the responsibility for the organising of labour relations to the central employers' and workers' organisations, without requiring from them in exchange, any sacrifice of their freedom or autonomy.

Germany. — The principal reform in the national economic structure, and one which is connected with a whole series of measures on economic matters taken during the course of the year and already mentioned in other parts of this work, was without doubt the recasting of the status of the organisation of German industry (*Wirtschaftsorganisation*) in virtue of two Orders of 7 July and 12 November 1936. The official organisation for German industry set up by the Act of 27 February and 27 November 1934³ had not so far played an active part in the economy of the country, but henceforward it will co-operate in carrying out the Four-Year Economic Plan.

¹ See below, under "Conciliation and Arbitration".

² See below under "National Economic Councils".

³ For previous developments in the social and economic organisation of Germany, see *I.L.O. Year-Book 1934-35*, pp. 370, *et seq.* and *I.L.O. Year-Book 1935-36*, pp. 391 *et seq.*

First of all, to simplify administration, the regional branches of the commercial and industrial groups which are part of the German economic organisation were amalgamated with the 18 district economic Chambers by an Order of 7 July 1936.

But the most important part of the Order of 12 November 1936 is its new definition of the duties and powers of the Industrial Organisation.

The new Order first prescribes close and mutual collaboration between the groups of German industry in the domain of technique of production and rationalisation of work. With this aim in view the various German industrial groups are first to assist by all means in their power in solving the raw materials problem, and are to support the efforts of the official bodies which have been set up especially for this purpose.

They have also the duty of laying down the main principles on which methods of calculation (*Kalkulationsrichtlinien*) accounting, book-keeping, etc., should be standardised. After these principles have received the approval of the Minister for Economic Affairs, their observance may be enforced by disciplinary measures. The main object of this standardisation is to facilitate the task of the officials whose duty it is to supervise prices at various stages of production.

But perhaps the most important changes are those resulting from the new regulation of the relations between the Industrial Organisation and the cartels. Although a distinction will be maintained between the cartels, which are free market organisations, and the official economic organisations, under the terms of the new Order the former are to be made subordinate to the latter and placed under their supervision.

It follows that the heads of the industrial groups will not be able, as they were in the past, to combine their position with that of director or manager of a cartel. Furthermore, the keeping of the cartel's register is entrusted to them. The leaders of the official organisations of German industry may also require their members to supply information on industrial agreements to which they are a party and on the obligations which they have thereby contracted.

Finally the National Economic Chamber and the National groups for industry and commerce have the right to take part—as State representatives—in the preparation of measures to control the market and also, if need be, to veto decisions which would be contrary to the public interest.

To sum up, as a result of the new regulations, the German Industrial Organisation is now in a position to put into practice, on its own responsibility, the general principles laid down by the Minister for Economic Affairs. This reform obviously aims at engaging the organised forces of industry in building up that economic autarky which is the Government's ideal, and in particular at making use of the cartels to control prices.

Greece. — The setting up of Communist trade unions and federations was prohibited by Section 9 of the Legislative Decree of 18 September 1936.

Further, the Prime Minister announced that the rules of employers' and workers' organisations would shortly be reformed, and forecast the coming legislation by defining the rôle of the unions. He said in effect:

"The economic organisation that we are aiming at will be based on compulsory trade union organisation, divided not according to social classes but according to branches of production. The unions will be public bodies endowed with legal personality, and their decisions will be binding on all members; they will have the right to levy dues, to supervise production, to conclude collective agreements, and in general to represent their members on Government bodies or institutions."

The Under-Secretary for Labour also stated that from the day when the Act in preparation on occupational unions was promulgated, only one workers' union would be recognised, under the name of "General Confederation of Greek Workers and Employees"¹.

India. — On 27 August 1936, the Maharajah of the State of Cochin approved the regulations on trade unions for that State.

These regulations, which follow closely the Indian Trade Unions Act of 1926, provide that these organisations should be registered; they are then freed from all civil liability for measures taken to participate in a labour dispute. The resources of a registered union may be used, among other specified aims, to support the trade union cause either in the name of the organisation or in the name of its members, whoever they are. Every registered union may form a separate fund to safeguard the civil and political interests of its members. The regulations prescribe further that at least half the total membership of a registered union must be actually employed in an industry covered by the union.

Iraq. — The Labour Act of 25 April 1936 guarantees the right of association in the following terms:

"The workers are granted the right to form associations with a view to protecting their interests, promoting co-operation and mutual aid, effecting educational, cultural, hygienic, social and moral improvements, and developing industries in Iraq. Applications for the right to form such associations must be addressed to the Ministry of the Interior and signed by at least 20 workers engaged in identical or similar trades in the same administrative area. The Ministry must take a decision in regard to such applications within 15 days of receipt. Applicants may appeal to the Council of Ministers, whose decision is final. The administrative committees of such associations are to be elected under the supervision of a representative of the Ministry of the Interior. Associations, like other labour institutions, are subject to inspection by a representative of the Ministry of the Interior.

"The Act provides that in certain cases the Council of Ministers may, at the request of the Ministry of the Interior, cancel the permit granted to an association. The Government may issue special regulations defining the rights and obligations of associations, the manner in which they are to be admitted, etc."

¹ See below, under "Collective Agreements" and "Conciliation and Arbitration".

Italy. — A twofold change was made in the legal status of the corporations¹.

First, a Legislative Decree of 16 April 1936 placed the cartels (*consorzi volontari*) under the supervision of the corporations, whose duty it will be to see that these free-market combines do not exploit their privileged position and cause a movement in the prices of production and competition which would be contrary to the interests of the community.

Secondly, by a decision of the Council of Ministers dated 9 January 1937, the corporations were given powers of control over the establishment of new industrial undertakings and the enlargement of existing undertakings which are subject to a previous authorisation by the Government (Act of 12 January 1933). This power had hitherto been exercised by a special committee, the Committee of Industrial Equipment.

These two measures, which are in fact complementary, will naturally result in increased control by the corporations—and consequently by the State—over the economic life of the country.

Two important steps were taken by corporative action: the revision of wages, and the participation of occupational organisations in price fixing.

As regards the first point, an important statement was made by the Minister of Corporations to the Central Corporative Committee on 19 October 1936, to the effect that up to 15 October 1936, the various national federations had concluded 133 wage agreements providing for increases in pay ranging from a minimum of 5 per cent. to a maximum of 11 per cent. The wage adjustments affect 3,305,400 workers in industry, 2,107,488 in agriculture, 873,012 in commerce, and 61,918 in insurance.

On the second point, as a result of the devaluation of the lira, price control, which has already been in operation for a certain number of years, was considerably intensified. It is interesting to note, however, that the National Fascist Party, to which this control is entrusted, at once asked the trade unions to co-operate "so that the action of the committees of control might be directed more and more towards maintaining the purchasing power of the poorer classes of the population."

Japan. — A decision of the Minister of War taken in September 1936, prohibited unions of workers in military arsenals from joining or remaining affiliated to the General Federation of Labour of Japan or the Japanese Congress of Trade Unions.

Latvia. — (See under "Baltic Countries".)

Lithuania. — (See under "Baltic Countries".)

Luxemburg. — Following the institution of a National Labour

¹ On the development of the corporative system in Italy, cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1934-35*, pp. 373-375, and *I.L.O. Year-Book 1935-36*, pp. 393-395.

Council¹ which is based essentially on the workers' and employers' organisations, Parliament recently passed an Act to guarantee freedom of association under conditions similar to those laid down in the Belgian legislation of 24 May 1921. Under the new Act:

"Universal freedom of association is guaranteed.

"No person may be compelled to join or refrain from joining an association.

"Any person who becomes a member of an association thereby undertakes to submit to the rules of the association in question and to the decisions and penalties adopted under such rules. He may withdraw from the association, in conformity with the rules, at any time, and any provision in the rules which denies his liberty to do so is null and void.

"Any person who for the purpose of compelling a particular individual to join or refrain from joining an association, resorts to molestation, violence or threats, or who causes him to fear the loss of his employment or injury to his person, family or property, is liable to imprisonment of one week to one month and a fine of 51 to 500 francs or either of these penalties.

"Any person who with intent to inhibit freedom of association makes the conclusion, the execution or (even with due regard to customary notice) the continuance of a contract of employment or service conditional upon the affiliation or non-affiliation of one or more persons to an association is liable to the same penalties."

New Zealand. — An Act of 8 June 1936 (Industrial Conciliation and Arbitration Amendment Act) aiming at the re-establishment of compulsory arbitration in New Zealand² greatly changed the legal position of employers' and workers' industrial organisations.

Starting from the principle that the collective regulation of working conditions can be usefully effected only through the medium of occupational organisations really representing the interests of workers and employers, the Act provides first, in section 4, that without the special permission of the competent Minister, no industrial union may be registered—and thus empowered to conclude collective agreements and take part in conciliation and arbitration procedure—if there exists already in the same industry or in the same industrial district, an industrial union or trade union registered before May 1936.

Furthermore, section 18 of the Act makes it compulsory for all workers to join a union. Every award or industrial agreement made after the passing of the Act must include a provision making it unlawful for an employer in the industry in question to employ any adult person who is not a member of an industrial union of workers bound by the award or agreement or of a trade union registered before 1 May 1936 and similarly bound. For the purpose of this provision the term "adult" denotes any person of 18 years or more receiving the basic rate of wages prescribed for adult workers by an award or industrial agreement. A month after the Act became law, all existing awards and agreements were to be deemed to be amended and to contain this provision. No union may refuse to admit a person who is obliged to become a member by the operation of this provision, unless its maximum membership

¹ Cf. *I. L. O. Year-Book 1935-36*, p. 395.

² See below, under "Conciliation and Arbitration".

has been fixed by the Court and would thereby be exceeded. Any person thus prevented from joining a union with a limited membership may be given employment if no member of the union is available to perform the work in question and ready and willing to undertake it. Any other non-unionist may continue to be employed as long as there is no member of a union bound by the award or agreement concerned who is available to perform the work in question, and ready and willing to undertake it.

The new Act therefore not only obliges workers to belong to a union which is bound by industrial agreement or an award, but also obliges employers to give absolute preference as regards employment to unionists, whenever material circumstances permit.

Portugal. — A Legislative Decree of 8 July 1936 set up “ economic co-ordinating bodies ”, which are entrusted, according to the explanatory memorandum, with the task of regulating economic and social life in activities directly connected with the import and export trade.

The Government intends these bodies to act as connecting links between the State and the corporative organisations¹.

Another Decree of 20 November 1936, relating to trade union organisation, authorises the Under-Secretary of State for Corporations to permit the formation—by exempting them from the Legislative Decree of 23 September 1933—of national trade associations in two or more districts when a trade cannot be organised in any other way.

Sweden. — An Act of 11 September 1936 contains a new regulation of the right of association and collective bargaining. The Act applies not only to workers in private undertakings but also to employees in the service of the State or the communes who have not the status of officials.

The provisions in question regulate the right of association, that is to say, the right to belong to an association; but the right to refrain from membership of an association which of late has been urged in certain political circles, is not dealt with. As was observed during the debate on the Bill, this limitation is in conformity with the aim of the measure, which is to establish a legal basis for the relations between employer and employed or their organisations, but not the relations between organisations and their members.

The provisions relating to freedom of association run as follows:

“ The right of association shall not be infringed. If the right of association is infringed by the denunciation of a contract or other similar act, or by a clause of a collective agreement or other contract, such act or such clause shall be void.

¹ On corporative organisation in Portugal see *I.L.O. Year-Book 1933*, pp. 293-294; *I.L.O. Year-Book 1934-35*, pp. 376 *et seq.*; and *I.L.O. Year-Book 1935-36*, p. 345.

“ This provision shall not prevent the inclusion in a contract of a clause to the effect that a foreman may not belong to an association whose object is to protect the interests of the staff subordinate to him as against the employer. Nor shall it apply to any action taken on account of such clause.

“ The term ‘ foreman ’ means a person who is engaged as the representative of the employer to direct, distribute and supervise work which is carried out by staff subordinate to him and in which he himself takes part only incidentally.”

The Act also expressly establishes the right to damages for any infringement of the right of association. In this case, the regulations concerning damages contained in the Collective Agreements Act of 1928 apply. The Labour Court will deal with cases of infringement of the right of association or refusal to observe the provisions on this subject.

The provisions of the Act relating to collective bargaining are based on the existing system of conciliation with certain additions proposed by the parliamentary committee to which the Bill was referred. The new provisions, which are to apply to salaried employees' organisations, stipulate that any organisation which proposes to claim the appointment of an impartial chairman or an arbitration board must register with the Social Board and undertake to keep the peace. This undertaking is not absolutely binding, however, for militant action is permitted at the expiry of a specified period after an attempt at negotiation has been made, in accordance with legal procedure, but has failed.

A further point which should be mentioned in respect of the protection of trade union rights, is the Bill dealing with the eviction from their dwellings of workers taking part in a labour dispute.

According to this Bill, when an employer addresses a request to the competent authority for the eviction of one of his employees from a dwelling which he occupies by reason of his employment, on the grounds that the said employee has participated in a strike or a lock-out, the eviction may not take place, apart from certain exceptions, within three months from the date on which the worker stopped work on account of the dispute. During this period the worker must pay rent at the prevailing rate for the district in which he lives. This Bill aims in particular at protecting the interests of agricultural workers.

Turkey. — The Labour Code of 8 June 1936 prohibits strikes and lock-outs.

A strike is considered to be in progress when 10 workers in an undertaking employing less than 50 workers, a fifth of the total number of workers in an undertaking employing more than 50 and less than 500 workers, and 100 workers in an undertaking employing 500 or more workers simultaneously and suddenly cease work by common consent, in order to induce the employer to grant more favourable working conditions than those actually in force.

A lock-out is considered to be in progress, either when an employer suspends work in an undertaking in order to force the

workers to accept working conditions which would be more favourable to him than the conditions actually in force, or when the number of workpeople who are obliged to leave their work because they refuse to accept the employer's proposals reaches the number required for a strike.

Any disagreement on prevailing labour conditions must be submitted to conciliation and arbitration ¹.

United States. — Previous editions of the *Year-Book* ² have contained detailed analyses of the various measures taken by Congress during recent years to guarantee the right of association in trade unions and the right to collective bargaining: the National Industrial Recovery Act of 16 June 1933 (Section 7 *a*); the Act of 21 June 1934 amending the Act of 1926 on work on the railways; the Wagner-Connery Act of 5 July 1935 on labour disputes; and the Bituminous Coal Conservation Act (Guffey Act) of 1935.

The invalidation of the National Industrial Recovery Act by an award of the Supreme Court of 27 May 1935 ³ has also been mentioned here.

During 1936 the same fate overtook the Bituminous Coal Conservation Act ⁴. Moreover, conflicting decisions on the constitutionality of the Wagner Act were given in the Federal Circuit courts, and at present this Act is being examined by the Supreme Court.

To lessen the disadvantages of this legislative uncertainty, the President submitted to Congress a Bill for the reform of the judiciary, whose main provisions will merely be outlined here.

The Bill provides firstly that supplementary judges shall be added to the nine judges of the Supreme Court (appointed for life and irremovable) who are more than 70 years of age. Secondly the Bill aims at conferring on the Supreme Court the power of supervising the rolls of the other Federal courts and of sending travelling judges to districts where procedure is being held up by overcrowding of the rolls. Moreover, no Federal Court may in future take a decision, issue an injunction, or give a judgment or an award on questions involving the interpretation of an Article of the Constitution without having previously informed the Attorney-General so that he may submit the Government's case. Finally when a Federal Court gives an award on a constitutional question, any appeal to the Supreme Court must be lodged at once and given precedence over all other cases pending.

This Bill is of general scope but it calls for mention here because if it were passed, it would restore legal security in industrial

¹ See below, under "Conciliation and Arbitration".

² Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1933*, pp. 296 *et seq.*; *I.L.O. Year-Book 1934-35*, pp. 378 *et seq.*; *I.L.O. Year-Book 1935-36*, pp. 415-416.

³ For the text of this award, cf. *International Survey of Legal Decisions on Labour Law 1934-35*, United States, No. 1, 2nd case.

⁴ For the text of this award, cf. *International Survey of Legal Decisions on Labour Law 1935-36*, United States, No. 1.

relations. Various other measures were also taken affecting more directly the right of association in trade unions.

For example an Act of 24 June 1936 forbids on penalty of a fine the transport of strike-breakers from one State to another. It is interesting to note on this subject that under a resolution of the Senate dated 6 June 1936, a special committee was set up to enquire into infringements of workers' rights, the freedom of person and the freedom of assembly. On the basis of this huge enquiry, which deals in particular with the methods adopted by certain employers' organisations to hamper the trade union movement, a Bill will doubtless be submitted to Congress to prevent certain infringements of trade union rights.

Finally the Walsh-Healey Act of 30 June 1936 on Government contracts which has been mentioned above restores in this limited field the principles laid down in the former National Industrial Recovery Act.

U.S.S.R. — The new Constitution of the U.S.S.R. adopted unanimously by the Eighth Extraordinary Congress of Soviets (Moscow, 25 November-5 December 1936) devotes a special chapter, Chapter 10, to the fundamental rights of citizens.

The provisions relating more particularly to the right of association are summarised here.

Under Article 125, freedom of speech, freedom of the press, freedom of assembly, and freedom to street processions and demonstrations are guaranteed to the citizens of the U.S.S.R.

These rights are ensured by the fact that the workers and their organisations have at their disposal printing presses, stocks of paper, public buildings, roads, postal and electric means of communication, and other conditions necessary for the exercise of these rights.

Article 126 gives the following definition of the right of association:

“ In accordance with the interests of the toilers and in order to develop the organising initiative of the masses of the people and their political activity, the citizens of the U.S.S.R. are guaranteed the right to combine in social organisations: occupational unions, co-operative societies, youth organisations, sport and defence organisations, cultural, technical and scientific societies; and for the most active and conscientious citizens from the ranks of the working class and other strata of the toilers, the right to unite in the Communist Party of the U.S.S.R., which is the workers' vanguard in their struggle to strengthen and develop the socialist system and which represents the leading nucleus of all workers' organisations whether social or State ”.

The right of association is thus guaranteed to all, but its exercise is placed under the control of the Communist Party.

Venezuela. — Part IV of the Labour Act of 16 July 1936 regulates the right of association in trade unions.

All persons of both sexes who have reached the age of 18 years and are employed in the same undertaking or engaged in similar or allied occupations have the right to form trade associations.

No person may be forced to join or to refrain from joining a trade association. The trade association is considered to be legally constituted only when its act of constitution and a copy of its rules have been submitted to the labour inspector. After the rules of the association have been found to be in conformity with the provisions of the Act, it is registered and given a certificate of constitution. Workers' unions must contain a minimum of 20 members, employers' unions a minimum of 3.

Trade associations which affiliate with national or international organisations or political parties are liable to a fine of 100 to 1,000 bolivars¹.

Profit-Sharing and Workers' Participation in Management

PROFIT-SHARING AND SHAREHOLDING BY WORKERS

In the course of 1936 and the first months of 1937 profit-sharing schemes were introduced in several countries by means of legislation or through private initiative. In the field of legislation the measures adopted in Chile, France, and Venezuela are worthy of mention.

Chile. — By a Decree promulgated in January 1937 the Minister of Production authorised the General Director of the State railways to pay out to the workers, from the net profits of the preceding year, a bonus equal to the wages for fifteen days' work. The total amount of the bonuses was 5,300,000 Chilean pesos.

France. — A similar measure was taken in France in the Act of 23 January 1937, which finally regulates the working of the State mines, the Alsatian potash mines, and the potash industry. According to section 7 of this Act, 10 per cent. of the net yield of the undertaking must be set aside, to be used, at least to the extent of one half, to enable the staff to share in the profits of the industry.

Venezuela. — The new labour legislation of this country introduced profit-sharing as a general measure. According to section 63 of the Labour Act of 16 July 1936² the manual and non-manual workers of every establishment and undertaking, private and public, are entitled to a share of the net profits of the establishment or undertaking in which they are employed. The amount of their share is fixed by the competent Federal authorities after consultation with committees specially appointed for the purpose. The annual share may not exceed the worker's wage or salary for two

¹ See also below, under "Profit Sharing", "Collective Agreements", and "Administration of Labour Law".

² See above, under "Right of Combination in Trade Unions", and below under "Collective Agreements", "Conciliation and Arbitration", and "The Individual Contract of Service".

months in large establishments and undertakings, one month in small establishments and undertakings. The Act does not authorise workers sharing in profits to take part in the management or administration of the undertaking or establishment.

Among cases of private initiative those of Germany and Great Britain may be mentioned.

Germany. — In the course of 1936 four companies, Siemens and Halske, Siemens Schuckert, I. G. Farben, and Krupp, decided to allow their workers to share in profits.

In the I. G. Farben-Industrie every worker whose annual remuneration is not more than 7,200 RM. is entitled, after one year's service, to a "confidence prize" and to a share of the profits of the business. The amount of the prize depends on length of service, and the share in profits on remuneration. 85,990 persons out of the 148,205 workers and salaried employees of the firm (including its affiliated establishments) thus shared in profits, receiving on an average 121 RM. as against 89 RM. in the preceding year; the total shares received rose from 919 million RM. to 1,044 million RM.

In the Krupp establishments the value of the shares paid fluctuated between 10 and 50 RM. per head for workers and between 10 and 25 per cent. of the monthly salary for salaried employees.

In the two Siemens companies the figures are 50 per cent. of the monthly salary for employees with less than five years' service, and from 50 to 75 per cent. for those with more. The total sum paid out under the scheme reached 10 million RM. for over 100,000 employees.

Great Britain. — According to information collected by the British Ministry of Labour the total number of undertakings possessing profit-sharing schemes was 414 at the end of 1935 as against 436 in 1934¹. 414 undertakings distributed dividends reaching an average figure of £10 4s. 3d. per head as against £10 12s. 3d. in 1934, corresponding to 5.8 per cent. of wages as against 5.7 per cent. in 1934.

Lord Nuffield (Morris Motors Ltd.) recently created a special fund for a profit-sharing scheme. It is composed of one million ordinary shares in the company, and the dividends on these shares will be distributed to participants in the scheme. The administration of the fund is in the hands of representatives of the workers.

WORKS COUNCILS

Austria. — In virtue of Section 1 of the Federal Act of 12 July 1934 concerning the creation of works communities², the Minister

¹ Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1935-36*, p. 399.

² Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1934-35*, p. 382 and *I.L.O. Year-Book 1935-36*, p. 399.

of Social Welfare promulgated on 1 September 1936 Regulations concerning the election of confidential councillors who form these communities. According to the Regulations, confidential councillors must be elected in every undertaking employing five or more persons. In undertakings with more than one establishment, there must be an election in each one. The number of confidential councillors varies from one to ten according to the number of persons employed in the undertaking. If the undertaking already has a works community, the election is conducted by an electoral office composed of three confidential councillors specially elected for the purpose. In newly created undertakings the members of the electoral office are appointed by the competent trade union federation. The electoral office draws up a list of electors based on the register of all the workers, which is kept by the employer. Every worker has a right to vote who:

(1) has been employed in the undertaking for not less than one month, counting from the date of convocation of the electors;

(2) is at least 18 years of age;

(3) has not been sentenced in the courts for any crime, offence or contravention committed in a spirit of gain or against public peace, order, or morals, unless the legal consequences of the sentence have been annulled or unless the sentence has been served;

(4) has not been condemned under administrative law for activity hostile to the State or to the Government.

Every elector is eligible who, at the date of convocation, has been employed for six months or more, on condition that he is at least 24 years of age, an Austrian citizen, and a member of the Confederation of Austrian Workers and Salaried Employers. The list of candidates is drawn up by the confidential councillors, and in newly created undertakings by the electoral office, after consultation with the persons employed, the competent trade union federation, and with the head of the patriotic front of the country concerned.

The election is held by direct vote and secret ballot. Its validity may be impugned before the electoral office by the workers and by the head of the undertaking. If the office does not give a decision within one week, the matter is submitted to the conciliation office, which must give a final decision within a further period of one week. When, as provided in section 11 of the Works Communities Act, the election has not been held during the last month preceding the expiry of the mandate of the retiring confidential councillors, the new confidential councillors are appointed by the Confederation of Austrian Workers and Salaried Employers.

Estonia. — The Act of 10 July 1931 concerning the representation of workers in industrial undertakings was amended by an Act dated 9 September 1936. Section 44 of the 1931 Act had provided that the general meeting of workers in undertakings without a

works' council or a workers' delegate might be convened at the written request of not less than one-tenth of the workers entitled to vote in the undertaking, but not in any case of less than five. The Act of 1936 reduced the proportion to one-twenty-fifth and the minimum to ten.

France. — The Act of 24 June 1936, which profoundly modified the provisions of the Labour Code regarding collective agreements¹, laid down that every collective agreement for undertakings employing more than ten persons must contain a clause providing for the appointment of delegates elected by the staff. The function of these delegates is to submit to the management individual claims which have not been directly settled and which relate to the application of wage rates, the Labour Code, and other laws and regulations concerning the protection of the workers, their health and safety. The delegates may, if they wish, call for the assistance of a representative of their trade union.

It should be remembered that the system of workers' delegates already existed in France for certain categories of workers—miners, railwaymen, seamen in the merchant fleet, and more recently air pilots, navigators and mechanics.

Germany. — As was mentioned in previous issues of the *Year-Book*², confidential councils were set up by the National Labour Regulation Act of 20 January 1934 and by the Act of 23 March 1934 concerning the organisation of work in the administrative and public services. According to section 5 of the former Act and section 3 of the latter, the election of the members of these councils (confidential councillors) must take place in the spring of each year. An Act of 9 March 1937, however, postponed the elections for the year 1937 and extended the term of office of the existing members to 30 April 1938. The oath required by section 10 of the National Labour Regulation Act and section 8 of the Act concerning the organisation of work in the administrative and public services was not taken afresh.

In conformity with the agreement concluded on 21 March 1935 between the German economic organisations and the German Labour Front³, which provided for joint councils in the undertakings, side by side with the confidential councils, 3,000 such joint councils had been set up by February 1937, including 35,000 heads of undertakings and members of their staffs. The agreement requires these councils to promote common discussion on questions relating to the industry in question and on social policy, with a view to establishing a "just state of social equality".

¹ See above, under "Right of Combination in Trade Unions", and below, under "Collective Agreements".

² Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1934-35*, p. 383; and *I.L.O. Year-Book 1935-36*, p. 399.

³ Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1935-36*, p. 391.

The Minister of Labour, in agreement with other competent Ministers, issued a seventeenth Order in execution of the National Labour Regulation Act. This Order is intended first and foremost to strengthen the influence of the confidential councils in questions related to the settlement of conditions of employment, and it accordingly provides that confidential councillors may not be transferred from one place of work to another against their will without the consent of the labour trustee. Secondly, the Order defines the status of the establishment councils (*Unternehmensbeiräte*) which, under the National Labour Regulation Act, must be set up in undertakings comprising several establishments, but which have not yet been created. Group councils (*Gruppenbeiräte*) may similarly be set up in undertakings comprising several groups of establishments. The functions of these various councils are carefully distinguished from those of the confidential councils. Finally, the Order provides for the institution of a system of general workshop regulations covering either all the establishments of an enterprise or only some of them, and replacing in consequence individual workshop regulations.

Spain (Catalonia). — In virtue of the Decree of 24 October 1936, prescribing the collectivisation of certain industries, the Catalan Government promulgated on 30 January 1937 an Act concerning workers' supervisory committees in those undertakings which have not been collectivised. According to this Act a workers' supervisory committee of six to nine members must be set up in every industrial or commercial undertaking which has not been collectivised. In undertakings employing less than six workers the function of the committee will be exercised by a single delegate elected by the workers. Any worker employed in the undertaking is eligible for membership of the workers' supervisory committee if he has worked for at least one year in the trade and at least six months in the same undertaking. The election takes place at the general meeting of workers of the undertaking. The term of office is two years, one half of the members retiring and being replaced each year. The members of the committee are responsible to the general meeting of workers and the general council of the industry. In case of unfitness or of open resistance to the decisions of these two bodies, the members may be relieved of their functions, wholly or in part. In undertakings possessing workers' supervisory committees the representatives of the employers must submit to the committee, for its approval:

- (1) the rules concerning the beginning and end of work in the undertaking;
- (2) any projected increases or reductions of wages;
- (3) the admission, obligations, and remuneration of newly engaged staff;
- (4) communications from the employer, to be brought to the notice of the workers;

(5) proposals regarding the sum to be set aside for the employers' personal expenses when these exceed the limit fixed by the economic council;

(6) the income and expenditure account for the interval between two joint sessions of the committee and the employers' representatives;

(7) once a month, the accounts and all documents relating thereto, if the committee so requires;

(8) every three months, six months, or year, according to the decision of the workers at a general meeting, the balance-sheet of the undertaking and a statement of the use which it is proposed to make of profits.

The workers' supervisory committee must sit whenever it is considered necessary, and at least once a week. Its functions are:

(1) to consider, discuss and, where it is so decided, to approve the propositions submitted to it by the representatives of the employers; if an agreement is not reached between the committee and the employers' representatives the question at issue is submitted to the general council of the industry concerned;

(2) to see that the conditions of employment—wages, hours of work, social insurance, safety, hygiene, etc.—are in strict conformity with the regulations, and to communicate contraventions to the general council of the industry concerned or to the Ministry of Labour;

(3) to make any observations or recommendations to the workers which may be considered necessary;

(4) to propose to the employers any modification of the system of production or distribution considered necessary for the efficient operation of the undertaking;

(5) to see that the accounts are kept in conformity with the regulations and that they show the true situation in every department of the undertaking's activity;

(6) to fix, in case the economic situation of the undertaking is difficult, and with the approval of the assembly of trade union economic control, a lower limit than that set by the economic council for the sum set aside for the employer's personal expenses.

Any powers which are not given by the Decree to the workers' supervisory committees remain with the employers. The employer has control of the conclusion of contracts, the supervision of accounts, the use of the trade name of the undertaking, etc.

In case of unfitness or bad faith on the part of the employer, the workers' supervisory committee may convene the workers engaged in the undertaking in an extraordinary general meeting, presided over by a delegate of the assembly of trade union economic control. The extraordinary general meeting may decide to propose to the assembly of trade union economic control that the trade name of the undertaking, of which the employers or their legal representatives are making a bad use, shall be placed under the

control of one or two members of the workers' committee, or that the undertaking shall be collectivised.

The Decree is accompanied by an appendix containing the model rules for collectivised undertakings.

Collective Agreements

The world economic depression having apparently begun to lift, an impression may now be obtained of the profound changes which it has occasioned or at least revealed in national life; a review of developments in the field of collective bargaining will therefore be appropriate¹. In contrast to the course of events in previous depressions, collective regulation, far from having been abandoned as a means of determining conditions of work, has held its own and even won new ground. There have no doubt been movements in the other direction, but as Governments have on the whole continued to intervene in economic affairs, they have been led to assume control of the social conditions arising in the economic system; and in collective agreements they have found an instrument ready-made for the purpose. Though initiated by workers and employers acting independently of legislation and Governments, these agreements are now tending to become an integral part of State economic and social administration. This tendency is confirmed by several Acts and other regulations which were issued in 1936.

Bulgaria. — A Legislative Decree of 22 September 1936, regulates collective labour agreements and collective industrial disputes. The principal provisions relating to collective agreements are as follows.

Section 1 defines a collective agreement as an agreement between representatives of approved workers' organisations on the one hand, and individual employers or representatives of employers' organisations on the other, for the purpose of fixing the substance of the individual contracts of employment.

A collective agreement applies either to a single undertaking or to a group of undertakings in the same branch of industry. It may be concluded for a specified period not exceeding three years, or for an unspecified period or for the duration (not exceeding two years) of a particular piece of work. The agreement must be in writing, and has no force until it has been registered by the competent factory inspection service.

A collective agreement for a specified period may not be denounced before the expiry of its term. If, however, the condi-

¹ The International Labour Office has recently published a study on the whole question of collective agreements and related problems: *Collective Agreements*; Studies and Reports, Series A (Industrial Relations), No. 39, Geneva, 1936.

tions under which it was concluded have changed since it came into force, the contracting parties may apply to the Conciliation Court for its annulment before expiry; the decision of the Court is final. An agreement for an unspecified period may be cancelled when one of the contracting parties makes the necessary application to the factory inspection service which registered it.

A collective agreement is binding on all workers and employers concerned, whether or not they are members of the contracting organisations. Disputes concerning the application or interpretation of collective agreements lie within the competence of the labour courts.

Canada. — Reference has been made in the last two issues of the *Year-Book*¹ to the tendency of the Provincial Governments to encourage collective agreements or to lay down binding industrial standards. This tendency was still more marked in 1936.

In Nova Scotia an Industrial Standards Act, applying only to certain industries in the cities of Halifax and Dartmouth, was issued on 2 May 1936. In Alberta and Ontario the Industrial Standards Acts were amended in several respects with the object of securing more efficient enforcement. Similarly, in Quebec a number of alterations were made in the Act respecting the extension of collective labour agreements; in particular, the penalties were extended to breaches relating to wage rates, and the operation of the Act as regards the building industry was made more complete.

A number of Orders-in-Council issued under these Acts show that conditions of work are compulsorily regulated in many industries. According to the first report on the application of the Act relating to the extension of collective agreements, published by the Quebec Minister of Labour in 1936, 42 collective agreements—including 24 for the building industry alone—were declared binding during the first year of application (i.e. from 20 April 1934, when the Act came into force, until 30 June 1935).

China. — An Act of 23 December 1936 provides for the fixing of minimum wage rates, by special local committees, in industries or parts of industries in which wages are not regulated by collective agreements and are exceptionally low². Employers and workers may not conclude either individual contracts or collective agreements stipulating wages lower than those fixed by the committees; and where wages lower than these minimum rates have been established by collective agreement, payment must be made on the basis of the minimum rate unless the agreement has been approved by the competent authority.

Czechoslovakia. — Pending the adoption of general legislation on collective agreements, preparation for which was actively con-

¹ Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1934-35*, p. 386; *I.L.O. Year-Book 1935-36*, p. 402.

² See above, Chapter IV: "Remuneration of Labour".

tinued during the past year, the Government continued the policy described in the last issue of the *Year-Book*¹—that of keeping existing collective agreements in force and at the same time regulating conditions industry by industry with reference to the economic organisation of each. In accordance with this policy, a Decree of 30 December 1936 provided that the validity of the legislation prolonging the force of existing collective agreements should continue until 31 December 1937.

In the textile industry, the Order of 29 April 1935², originally fixed to run until 30 April 1936, was extended until 30 June 1937. The power which it gives of declaring collective agreements generally binding was widely used by the competent Minister, so that most of the workers concerned now have the benefit of collective agreements, and it is to be expected that conditions of work in the whole of the industry will soon be governed in this way.

Under a Decree of 9 July 1936, also relating to the textile industry, cartels with the power to regulate conditions of production and sale may be compulsorily extended to include all undertakings in the appropriate branch of the industry. Apart from its economic functions, a cartel is entitled also to supervise the regulation of wages and other conditions of employment by means of collective agreements; with this object it is required to act through the competent employers' and workers' organisations belonging to the Council for the Textile Industry, which is attached to the Ministry of Industry and Commerce.

As regards other industries—for instance, the production and sale of starch and dextrin, the manufacture of central heating apparatus, etc. — Decrees concerning the regulation of production also include provisions relating to collective agreements; these state that contracting out of the provisions of agreements to the disadvantage of the workers is null and void, and that collective agreements may be extended to cover undertakings not parties to them.

Lastly, a Bill relating to the occupational status of the legal profession, now before Parliament, contains provisions to prohibit contracting out of the stipulations of collective agreements between the lawyers' associations and the organisations representing barristers' employees.

France. — As was stated above in connection with the workers' right of association, a collective agreement, known as the Matignon Agreement, was concluded between the General Confederation of French Employers and the General Confederation of Labour on 7 June 1936. In this basic instrument the employers' delegates explicitly accepted an immediate introduction of collective labour agreements.

This recognition one of another by the two great occupational

¹ Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1935-36*, p. 403.

² *Ibid.*

organisations was sanctioned by the Act of 24 June 1936 concerning "the organisation of relations between employers and workers by collective agreements". This completes the system of collective bargaining established under the Act of 25 March 1919 by introducing measures to facilitate the conclusion of agreements and to extend their effects and penalties to all employers and workers within the scope of each.

The main provisions of the Act are as follows:

Conclusion of Collective Agreements. — At the request of an employers' or workers' trade association directly concerned, the Minister of Labour or his representative will convene a meeting of a joint committee with a view to the conclusion of a collective labour agreement to regulate relations between employers and workers in a given branch of industry or commerce for a given district or for the whole of France.

"The joint committee will include delegates of the most representative trade associations of employers and workers in the branch of industry or commerce in the district concerned or in the whole country, as the case may be.

"If a joint committee convened in such circumstances is unable to agree, the Minister of Labour, at the request of one of the parties and after consulting the competent trade section or sections of the National Economic Council, must endeavour to bring about agreement.

"A collective labour agreement concluded as a result of negotiations in a joint committee must indicate whether it is concluded for a definite or an indefinite period and must embody provisions relating to:

- (1) Freedom of association and the workers' freedom of opinion;
- (2) The appointment in undertakings employing more than 10 persons of delegates elected by the staff from among members of the staff to submit to the management individual claims which have not received satisfaction and which refer to the application of wage rates, the Labour Code, and other laws and regulations concerning the protection of the workers and their health and safety; these delegates may call in the assistance of a representative of their trade union;
- (3) Minimum wages for the various categories of workers and for the various districts;
- (4) Notice of dismissal;
- (5) Organisation of apprenticeship;
- (6) Procedure for the settlement of disputes arising out of the collective agreement;
- (7) Procedure for the revision or amendment of the collective agreement.

Extension of Collective Agreements. — Any trade association which is not a party to the collective agreement may subscribe to it at a later date.

"By an Order of the Minister of Labour, a collective agreement may be made binding on all employers and workers in the trades and districts covered by the scope of the agreement. Extension of the effects and the penalties of a collective agreement will be made for the duration and in accordance with the conditions of the agreement itself.

"Before taking any such decision, the Minister must consult the competent trade section or sections of the National Economic Council and allow the trade associations and all persons concerned to lodge objections and express their opinions.

"The order extending the collective agreement will cease to have effect when the parties concerned agree to denounce, revise or amend it. It may also be cancelled by the Minister of Labour by procedure similar to that observed for its introduction, when it becomes apparent that the collective agreement no longer meets the economic requirements of the branch of industry or commerce concerned."

As the Minister of Labour explained in a Circular to Prefects dated 17 August 1936, the new Act has not altered the general provisions of that of 1919, but has attached special importance to certain collective agreements, namely, those which are concluded by the most representative occupational organisations; such an agreement may be transformed, by procedure provided in the Act, into the official scheme of regulation for the occupation.

It is important to stress that the procedure of extending collective agreements is based on the assumption that these have been concluded by the most representative employers' and workers' organisations. In the Circular mentioned above, the Minister points out that the expression "most representative organisations" (not defined in the Act) is taken from the text of Part XIII of the Treaty of Versailles (Constitution of the International Labour Organisation); for interpretation, reference is made to that given by the Permanent Court of International Justice in its decision of 31 July 1922. The essential feature of this decision, the official commentary adds, is that the number of members of an organisation, though an important factor, need not be decisive; the Government retains the power—limited perhaps by a right of appeal to the courts—of deciding, according to such facts as it considers relevant, what are the most representative organisations which should be empowered to conclude collective agreements under the conditions laid down by the Act of 24 June 1936.

Greece. — The Act relating to collective labour agreements was issued on 16 November 1935, and began to be effectively applied during 1936.

A collective agreement, it provides, is binding on the organisations parties to it and their members; contracting out of its provisions to the worker's detriment is prohibited. A collective agreement may be declared binding for all employers and workers falling within its scope, if undertakings employing not less than three-fifths of the employed persons in the occupation have adhered to it. Further, a collective agreement applying to all employers and employed persons in the area for which it was concluded may be extended to cover other localities or regions by order of the Minister of Labour after consultation with a joint committee.

Under a special Act of 26 August 1936, two national collective agreements, one relating to salaried employees and one to industrial workers, received the force of law. Other agreements, one of which concerns the tobacco industry, were subsequently concluded under the same Act.

Irish Free State. — The Conditions of Employment Act of 14 February 1936 contains a number of provisions on collective agreements, which are dealt with in connection with the regulation of conditions in industry. The Act applies to industry only, and not to agriculture, commerce, domestic work (including the preparation of food in hotels and restaurants), mining, and the transport

of persons and goods. The Minister for Industry and Commerce may authorise the exclusion of certain types of industrial work from the application of the Act. Further, the Act relates only to collective stipulations concerning wage rates, salaries and other forms of remuneration.

Within these limits, a collective agreement may be declared binding on all employers and employed persons in an industry. With this object the Minister is instructed to draw up a register of wage agreements. Any agreement signed by one or more organisations representing the employers and workers in question may be presented to the Minister for registration by one or several of the parties thereto. The Minister must register the agreement if he is satisfied that the parties are substantially representative of the employers and workers concerned, that the agreement contains provisions governing its duration or termination, that it is operative for not less than a year, and that it is in all respects suitable for registration.

The collective agreement, once registered, is binding, in the area to which it relates, on every employer belonging to the industry in question, and on every worker (or, if it applies to a class of workers, on every worker of such class) employed in the industry.

Employers may not pay, and workers may not accept, wage rates lower than those provided by the agreement. Notwithstanding any contract to the contrary, a worker may obtain from his employer the payment of wages at the agreed rates.

The only reason for which the registration of a collective agreement may be annulled is that one of the parties does not substantially represent the employers or workers in question. The High Court is competent to make a decision to this effect, and may do so if one of the parties appeals to it within a month of publication of the registration.

Japan. — During 1936 the Bureau of Social Affairs published a report on collective agreements. At the end of March of that year 122 agreements, covering 136,000 persons, were in existence; this figure, of which seamen (117,000) account for the majority, is equal to approximately one-third of all organised workers. The undertakings parties to collective agreements are nearly all of small or medium size; with very few exceptions, no agreements apply to the large companies, and more than half of all those concluded cover undertakings employing less than 100 persons each. Classification by industry shows engineering (machinery and tools) first, with 31 agreements, a group of various industries second, with 28, and transport third, with 22 agreements.

As regards the substance of collective agreements, it is interesting to note an advance in the system of joint committees which determine conditions of employment and serve as a link between the employer and his staff within the undertaking.

Netherlands. — A Bill which would empower the Minister of Labour to declare collective labour agreements generally binding

was submitted to the States-General on 4 December 1936. It provides that the Minister may extend to persons, other than the original parties, the force of a collective agreement already covering a considerable majority of employed persons in the industry concerned in the area to which such an agreement applies (i.e. the whole or part of the country). The extension may hold good for not more than a year.

A collective agreement may only be so extended at the request either of an industrial council ¹ or of one or more employers or one or more organisations of employers or of workers parties to such agreement.

An interesting feature of the Bill is that the Minister would be able not only to cancel the extension of an agreement, but also to deprive specified stipulations of binding force if the public interest so required. In this case the relevant stipulation would be regarded as deleted from the agreement, and any contract between an employer and an employed person would be void in so far as it was based on such stipulation.

Poland. — The legislative authorities have for some years been closely studying the problem of collective agreements, though they have not yet achieved a general regulation of the matter. Pending issue of a new scheme, the validity of collective agreements in force in 1934 has been extended, by means of several Legislative Decrees, until 31 December 1936.

Switzerland. — Federal legislation on collective labour agreements does not provide for the extension of the force of such agreements to persons not parties to them. Nevertheless, on the basis of provisions adopted in 1935 under which the relief granted to the hotel industry may be prolonged, the Federal Council issued a Decree of 12 June 1936 declaring the agreement between the Swiss Hotel-keepers' Society and the Helvetia Hotel Employees' Union to be generally binding; this governs the question of tips in Swiss hotels ².

In the Canton of Geneva, an Act providing for the extension of collective agreements was issued on 24 October 1936. Under this Act the Government is empowered to declare an agreement binding for the whole of a trade or occupation, on two conditions: that it is accepted by the majority of the employers and of the workers in the trade or occupation; and that it is in the general interest. Collective agreements must govern the rights and duties of the contracting parties, wages, hours of work etc., and may include no stipulations contrary to freedom of association.

Any provision of an individual contract of employment which restricts the safeguards and advantages accorded to employed persons by the extended collective agreement is null and void, and the corresponding provision of the agreement is substituted for it.

¹ Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1933*, p. 304.

² See below, under "The Individual Contract of Service (Payment of Wages)."

If, when the Act has been in force for 18 months, the employers and employed persons of an occupation (except agriculture) have not concluded a collective agreement, and if the public interest so demands, the Government is required to issue for this occupation a binding standard contract, which must be approved beforehand by an arbitration court. This court will be composed of a judge as president and three representatives of employers and three representatives of employed persons (workers or salaried employees) in the occupation in question.

Any collective dispute which is not adjusted within two months by the statutory or agreed conciliation and arbitration procedure must be referred by either of the parties, or failing them by the Government, to a tribunal consisting of a judge and two employers' and two workers' assessors; one such assessor for each side is appointed by the Government and the other by the party concerned. The tribunal must issue its award within 3 months; its decision is final.

Venezuela. — The Labour Act of 16 July 1936 has a special chapter on collective agreements. An agreement concluded between one or more groups or unions of workers and one or more employers or unions of employers is binding on the employers and workers alike. The provisions of a collective agreement must become standard clauses and form an integral part of individual contracts concluded during its period of validity. A collective agreement may not provide for conditions less favourable to the workers than those stipulated in contracts already in force in the undertaking; but special contracts may apply to persons in positions of management, supervision or trust.

An employer who engages workers belonging to a trade union is obliged to conclude collective agreements with the appropriate union or group if they so desire. If members of several unions are employed in an undertaking, an attempt must be made to arrive at an understanding with them all together; failing this, an agreement must be concluded for each occupation represented.

An employer remains bound by a collective agreement even if he leaves his organisation, and the same applies to workers belonging to an organisation which signs an agreement and subsequently dissolves.

Yugoslavia. — An Order of 12 February 1937 regulates minimum wage fixing, collective agreements, conciliation and arbitration. It states that a collective agreement may be concluded either for an undertaking (between the employer and the organisation of employed persons) or for an industry (between the organisations of employers and employed persons respectively). The labour inspectors take part in the negotiations for the conclusion of collective agreements, at the request of either party or if the public interest so requires.

A collective agreement between occupational organisations applies to all the workers employed in the undertakings falling

within its scope. Any provision of an individual contract which is contrary to the terms of a collective agreement is void, unless it is more favourable to the employed person. Should there be a conflict of scope between two or more collective agreements, that which is more favourable to the workers will apply.

If a collective agreement covers more than half the undertakings and at least half the workers in an industry, the competent authority may extend its operation to all the undertakings of that industry in the district concerned.

On application by more than half the workers employed in an industry, or more than half the employers whose undertakings employ at least half the workers, the competent authority must request the employers and workers in that industry to conclude a collective agreement within a period fixed by him. If the parties fail to do so within this period, the authority issues binding wage rates for the undertakings of that industry which are situated in the district; such rates may be higher than the minimum wages for which the Order provides ¹.

Conciliation and Arbitration

The increasing frequency with which recourse was had to conciliation and arbitration procedure—prompted by a wave of industrial conflicts such as always accompany economic recovery—was one of the characteristic features of social development in 1936. Indeed many countries have appreciated the regulating influence which may be exerted by a well-planned conciliation and arbitration system based on the consent of the parties concerned; its effect may be that of a brake in depression periods and of a rein in times of recovery—a moderating effect in both cases, since conciliators and arbitrators will always try to maintain a certain equilibrium between the earnings of capital and of labour, between productive capacity and consuming power.

But though the aim, thus defined, is common to all countries, the methods used to achieve it vary widely. In some States the Government attempts to regulate and standardise competition in the field of employment by placing ready-made machinery for the settlement of disputes at the disposal of the parties, but leaves to them the responsibility of fixing their own conditions of work and wages; in others the Government takes over this responsibility, which it exercises by means of compulsory arbitral or judicial award, usually involving the prohibition of strikes and lock-outs.

These two tendencies may be observed in the many legislative measures which were taken during the year, and which are briefly summarised below.

¹ See also below, under "Conciliation and Arbitration".

Australia. — In Victoria an amendment to the Factories and Shops Act, coming into force in January 1937, considerably increased the powers of the wages boards.

Hitherto their powers were confined to the fixing of wage rates and hours of work (except in trades already covered by a Federal award or cases in which a board came to a unanimous decision); they are now empowered to deal with a wide range of conditions, including—in addition to wages and hours of work—the privileges, rights and duties of employers and employees; the mode, terms and conditions of employment or non-employment; relations of employers and employees; employment or non-employment of persons of any particular sex or age; demarcation of functions of any employees or classes of employees; and any question of what is fair and right in relation to any industrial matter.

A new section of the Act provides for the appointment of a general board to fix wages, hours and conditions in trades not at present governed by a tribunal.

It is specifically provided in the amending Act that wages boards may not determine any matter relating to the preferential employment or dismissal of persons as being or as not being members of any organisation, association or body.

Austria. — The Act of 24 December 1936 relating to corporative committees, which is analysed above,¹ also lays down the general lines of procedure for the adjustment of collective industrial disputes. Such a dispute is deemed to have arisen (1) when no agreement can be reached as to whether negotiations should or should not be opened with a view to the conclusion of a collective agreement; (2) when the parties concerned cannot agree as to the contents of a collective agreement; (3) when the existence, interpretation, amendment or premature termination of a collective agreement is in dispute.

Rules to be drafted by the corporative committees will define the conditions under which the awards of the arbitration boards are to be binding. Binding awards will have the effect of officially published collective agreements.

In connection with the settlement of collective labour disputes, the explanatory memorandum to the Act states that the introduction of compulsory arbitration procedure had become necessary "in view of the fact that in a corporative State strikes and lock-outs have no justification as weapons of economic defence".

Bulgaria. — The Legislative Decree of 22 September 1936² has a special chapter on the adjustment of collective industrial disputes. It provides that disputes arising out of the fixing or improvement of wages or other conditions of work must be referred to the

¹ See under "Right of Combination in Trade Unions".

² See above, under "Right of Combination in Trade Unions" and "Collective Agreements".

conciliation and arbitration authorities, which are hierarchically organised as follows: municipal conciliation committees (first instance); a central conciliation committee attached to the Department of Labour (second instance); the Ministry of Commerce, Industry and Labour (third instance); and the Council of Ministers as the final instance. If a committee arrives at a unanimous decision, this has immediate force; if not, it must be referred successively to each of the higher instances, and finally to the Council of Ministers, whose decision takes the form of an Order with immediate force. The conciliation and arbitration authorities may not introduce conditions of work less favourable to employed persons than those laid down in labour legislation, and if they do so, the ruling in question remains null and void. The decisions of these authorities are assimilated to collective labour agreements, and disputes arising out of the interpretation or application of such agreements must be referred to the conciliation courts. Strikes and lock-outs are prohibited.

China. — In order to prevent industrial conflicts in the city of Shanghai, the local Bureau of Social Affairs, in agreement with the local office of the Kuomintang, issued on 8 September 1936 an Order under which all "unauthorised" strikes and lock-outs are prohibited. All disputes, it is provided, should be settled by direct negotiation between employers and employed persons; if such negotiations fail, the services of the Bureau are offered. Refusal to make use of the conciliation and arbitration procedure will involve the statutory penalties.

Colombia. — Section 20 of the Act of 5 August 1936 which amends the Constitution proclaims the right to strike, except in public services. Subsequent legislation will govern the exercise of this right.

Denmark. — A special arbitration board, to settle a lock-out which affected some 125,000 employed persons, was set up by an Act of 17 March 1936. According to the ruling of this board, work was to be resumed by a certain date, and a new agreement, to remain in force for two years, included a considerable increase in the wages of the worst paid groups of workers.

Estonia. — An amendment dated 15 September 1936 to the Act of 25 October 1935¹ requires each industrial employer affected by a labour dispute to inform the district factory inspector within 24 hours of the moment when the dispute began. This moment is defined as that, at which the representatives of the employed persons inform the employer that, in consequence of a decision taken by their general meeting, they intend to go on strike if their demands are not satisfied.

¹ Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1935-36*, p. 410.

The representatives of the employed persons are required to inform the employer of the danger of a strike. The following are considered to be representatives of the employed persons: members of works councils, shop stewards or, failing these, delegates elected by the whole staff of the undertaking.

Ecuador. — The Strikes Act of 31 July 1936¹ also introduced procedure for conciliation and arbitration in case of industrial disputes. Within twelve hours of the beginning of a strike, the employers and employed persons concerned must establish an arbitration and conciliation committee composed of two delegates of the employers and two of the employed persons, with a representative of the local labour authorities as chairman.

The committee must give its decision, by majority vote, within 48 hours, or within ten days in exceptional cases. If the circumstances so require, the Department of Labour may appoint expert assessors to the board; they will be entitled to take part in its discussions and to vote. Appeal against the committee's decisions may be taken to the Department of Labour, either by the employers or by the employed persons, provided in the latter case that a secret ballot has shown a majority in favour of appealing.

If the committee's decision goes against the employer, he is liable for the workers' wages for the duration of the strike; if it goes against the workers, they may be dismissed without notice.

Workers who do not accept a decision of the conciliation and arbitration authorities may be constrained by force to resume work. Any promoter of an "illicit strike" is liable to thirty days' imprisonment if he belongs to the undertaking in question, or to three years' imprisonment and a fine of 50 sucres if he does not. These penalties are imposed by the labour or police authorities after the facts have been ascertained.

An employer or his legal representative who refuses to apply a decision of the conciliation and arbitration authorities is liable to a fine of 100-1,000 sucres, to be imposed by the Minister of Labour at the suggestion of the Department.

France. — The establishment of arbitration in France by the Act of 31 December 1936 crowned the vast structure of social re-organisation already referred to in these pages².

According to the Act, all collective labour disputes in commerce and industry—for the time being agriculture remains outside the scope of the Act—must be submitted to conciliation and arbitration before a strike or lock-out is declared.

The Act applies to disputes already in progress; in such cases the opening of conciliation or arbitration proceedings makes it

¹ See above, under "Right of Combination in Trade Unions".

² See in particular above, under "Right of Combination in Trade Unions" and "Collective Agreements".

compulsory for both parties to go back to work or reopen their establishments, as the case may be.

In the absence of a collective agreement defining procedure for conciliation and arbitration, the Act empowers the Government, until the close of the 1937 Parliamentary session, to fix the rules for such procedure by Decree. All such Decrees will lapse at the end of the session. But proceedings opened at that date will be continued until their conclusion.

If it is necessary to appoint an umpire and the parties or their respective arbitrators cannot agree as to the choice, a person will be selected from among officials on the establishment or retired officials of the State legal institutions.

Compulsory conciliation and arbitration proceedings must be organised in accordance with existing legislation, the two arbitrators and the umpire having the powers of conciliators. The aim of arbitration is to establish fair conditions of work likely to create in workplaces a spirit of collaboration and of respect for the mutual rights of both parties—right of ownership, freedom of association, individual freedom, freedom of work, and trade union liberty. The arbitration award must be reasoned and is final and binding. It must be made public.

The Administrative Decree of 16 January 1937 establishes a detailed procedure for the adjustment of collective disputes. There is no need to give a full analysis here; it will suffice to say that two principal stages are provided: compulsory conciliation proceedings, followed by compulsory arbitration.

For purposes of conciliation alone, three authorities are set up—departmental committees as a first instance, national trade committees as a second, and national committees covering several occupations as a third.

At each stage the conciliation committee is presided over by a representative of the Government (the competent Minister or prefect, or his representative) and consists of employers and workers in equal numbers.

Failing an agreed solution as a result of the conciliation procedure, the parties are requested to appoint a common arbitrator or one arbitrator each. If one of the parties refuses to nominate an arbitrator, the competent Minister may choose him from a list of fifteen persons drawn up in advance by the most representative employers' and workers' organisations concerned, or, failing such list, may appoint the arbitrator himself.

If the arbitrators cannot agree within three days as to the arbitration award or the designation of an umpire, the Prime Minister may choose the latter from a list of thirty persons drawn up jointly by the most representative organisations of employers and workers.

It is interesting to note that the Compulsory Arbitration Act, while making awards binding, does not provide for penalties. The explanatory memorandum to the Act states that this omission is voluntary. "Pecuniary penalties", it says, "are likely to be useless, and in such matters the main question is to define the moral

responsibilities. It is thought that very little experience will be necessary to introduce compulsory conciliation and arbitration proceedings into the habits of the country and to impose respect for a procedure the violation of which would offend public opinion".

The Act's validity is limited, as has been said, to the duration of the present Parliamentary session—clear evidence that the Government regards the scheme as experimental.

It would no doubt be premature to express a view so soon on the probable effects of the Act. But it may be pointed out that since its enforcement the wave of strikes has receded, and that certain big conflicts—in the Paris metal industry, for instance—have been settled by means of the new procedure. If the experiment is satisfactory, the Government will perhaps decide to make this provisional scheme a permanent institution.

The main lines of the Act of 31 December 1936 were extended, with certain changes in detail, to Algeria and Tunisia. Lastly, a Decree of 13 February 1937, also issued under the Act, reorganised the procedure of conciliation and arbitration for collective disputes in the maritime transport and sea-fishing industries.

Germany. — Reference has been made in previous issues of the *Year-Book*¹ to the sweeping changes which were introduced in industrial relations when the National Labour Regulation Act came into force on 20 January 1934. First, the old conciliation and arbitration scheme was abolished and strikes and lock-outs were prohibited, and secondly social honour courts were established with the object of preventing or punishing "gross breaches of the social duties incumbent on members of a works community".

According to the annual report on the work of the social honour courts in 1936, the number of complaints taken before the courts increased slightly, from 204 in 1935 to 251 in 1936. The proceedings (189 in all) against heads of undertakings concerned in most cases "offences against the honour of employees", while those against employed persons were most frequently for "endangering industrial peace in the undertaking". The penalties imposed were usually fines but in 6 cases the courts decided on "disqualification to act as head of an undertaking" and in 3 they deprived the worker of his employment.

It is interesting that, in connection with the reorganisation of the German economic system,² courts of honour have also been established for economic affairs. Such a court is now attached to each of the 18 district economic chambers, with a Supreme Economic Court of Honour attached to the National Economic Chamber as an appeal authority. These courts are composed of a judge with special knowledge of economic affairs, and two assessors who are themselves heads of undertakings. The object of the scheme is to "introduce a sentiment of honour throughout the German economic

¹ Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1934-35*, p. 394; *1935-36*, p. 412.

² See also above, under "Right of Combination in Trade Unions".

system"; but it is not to take the place of the civil and criminal courts, which remain competent for all infringements of an economic nature, particularly those relating to unfair competition.

Apart from milder disciplinary measures (warnings, reprimands, and fines), the new scheme provides, as maximum penalty, disqualification—permanent or temporary—to occupy a post in the organisation of German economy; thus it does not go so far as the social honour system, which provides for disqualification to act as employer. It should be pointed out that the new regulations cover not only heads of private undertakings but also heads of organisations and economic chambers, high officials of cartels, etc. who exercise functions, as the official commentary states, "which are to-day of a public as well as of a private nature".

Greece. — The Act of 16 November 1935 concerning the compulsory arbitration of collective industrial disputes was put into force by Decree on 18 June 1936. Under this measure arbitration committees in two stages are set up. A committee of first instance is composed of two employers and two employed persons from the industry concerned in the dispute, with the president of the court of first instance as chairman. There are four arbitration committees of second instance, one at each of the principal industrial towns (Athens, Piraeus, Salonica, and Patras). They are composed of a president of the court of appeal, a university professor, an official of the Department of Labour and two employers' and two workers' delegates.

Collective disputes which cannot be settled by agreement must be brought before the arbitration committees, whose awards may be declared binding on the parties by order of the Minister of Economic Affairs. As soon as the conciliation and arbitration procedure has been started, strikes and lock-outs are prohibited.

A special Act of 25 October 1936 established compulsory arbitration procedure for collective disputes in the shipping industry.

Italy. — According to a report of the Minister of Justice on the working of the labour courts in 1935, which was published in November 1936, no collective dispute was referred to the courts during the year in question. This, states the report, proves that the conciliating activity of the occupational and corporative organisations and the Ministry of Corporations was fully successful.

On the other hand, 15,853 individual disputes—arising in most cases out of the application of collective agreements—were settled by the labour judges of first instance; 5,969 others were settled by conciliation, and a further 11,008 by agreement on the basis of recommendations from the labour judges; 2,255 disputes were referred to the courts of appeal sitting as labour courts, and of these 1,817 were settled by award and the remainder by conciliation. Lastly, the Court of Cassation, as final instance, gave rulings on 209 appeals.

These figures show, the report continues, that the labour courts play a part of the greatest importance in the Italian legal system.

It is further pointed out that, since the Corporations Act of 5 February 1934 came into force, the labour courts have also been required to deal with collective disputes concerning the interpretation and application of "the standards laid down by the corporations with a view to governing production on a uniform basis and securing the collective regulation of economic relations".

Lithuania. — In the Memel Territory, an Act of 31 August 1936, to supplement the Order of 9 August 1922 concerning the settlement of collective industrial disputes, provides that, on application by one of the parties, awards against which no appeal has been introduced in the prescribed period and those which have not been accepted by the two parties may be declared binding for all the persons concerned.

New Zealand. — The Industrial Conciliation and Arbitration Amendment Act of 8 June 1936 (already referred to as regards its trade union provisions¹) reintroduced compulsory arbitration after an interval of four years and thus resumed a tradition which goes back to 1894. The powers of the Arbitration Court were not only restored, but considerably increased, particularly as regards the fixing of basic wage rates, the regulation of hours of work, and the scope of arbitration awards. It is interesting to see that the reduction of hours of work to 40 in the week, with no reduction in weekly earnings, has been confirmed by the legislation on conciliation and arbitration.

Peru. — A Decree of 23 March 1936, relating to the organisation of the Department of Labour and Social Welfare, devotes a special chapter to the settlement of collective industrial disputes by means of conciliation and arbitration.

Under this Decree, organisations or groups of employed persons are required to inform the Labour Section of all industrial disputes and to submit to it a copy of their demands. Within 48 hours of the receipt of such information, the Labour Section must establish a conciliation committee, composed of two delegates of each party, with the head of the Section or his representative as chairman. The committee then attempts to secure settlement of the dispute by agreement. If conciliation fails or if an agreement is found impossible owing to the nature of the dispute, the matter must be referred within 48 hours to an arbitration court. This is composed of an employers' and a workers' arbitrator appointed by the parties (or, failing agreement, by the Department of Labour) and an umpire chosen from the judiciary by the president of the Supreme Court (for Lima) or the president of the high court of the appropriate district.

The court may require witnesses to attend, order enquiries, demand the submission of books—in short, it may carry through

¹ See above, under "Right of Combination in Trade Unions"; Chapter II, under "Hours of Work"; and Chapter IV, under "Wage Policy".

an investigation by all the means which it considers likely to aid in ascertaining the facts. Its decisions are taken by majority vote. If the arbitrators fail to agree, the umpire must attempt to find a compromise which both can accept.

An arbitration award is binding in the following cases: (1) if the parties agree during the conciliation proceedings or after it has failed to submit the dispute to an arbitration court; (2) if the dispute affects a public service or if the Government decides that the parties must accept the award because the dispute is continuing indefinitely and cannot be settled by direct agreement between the parties; (3) if the dispute is between agricultural workers (*yanaconas*) and landowners or agents; (4) if the award has been declared binding by Act, Decree or Resolution.

For the whole duration of the proceedings, each party must refrain from any action calculated to injure the interests of the other, and after the award has been issued, the employer must refrain from any action which might be considered as a reprisal against his employees.

Parties to disputes who infringe the provisions of the Decree are subject to fines of 50-5,000 soles or imprisonment for 10-30 days.

Poland. — An Act of 14 April 1937 amends the Order relating to extraordinary arbitration committees of 27 October 1933.

The procedure provided for under the old scheme had only been used on very rare occasions, since both the opening of proceedings and the enforcement of awards depended on a decision by the Council of Ministers. Under the new Act, if it is impossible to settle by agreement a collective dispute between employers and workers in industry, mining, commerce, transport or public utilities, and if the dispute takes on a character involving danger to the national economic interests, the Minister of Social Assistance alone may order its submission to arbitration procedure.

Similarly, if the Minister of Social Assistance considers that the award of an arbitration committee is of preponderant economic importance in the industry concerned, he may, in agreement with the Minister of Industry and Commerce and on application by one of the parties to the dispute, issue a Decree declaring this award binding in the relevant industry, either for the whole of the area it covers or for that part in which it is of preponderant importance.

When such a Decree has been issued, all the employers and workers concerned must respect the award when concluding individual contracts of employment.

The new Act applies to the whole of Poland except the province of Pomerelia, the Upper Silesian part of the province of Silesia, and the districts of Szubin, Wyrzysk, Inowroclaw and Bydgoszcz.

Sweden. — The Conciliation and Arbitration Act of 28 May 1920 was supplemented in a number of respects by a new Act dated 11 September 1936. This provides *inter alia* that if, during negotiations arranged by the conciliator, one of the parties does not fulfil the requirements concerning freedom of association and

collective bargaining¹, the conciliator may, on application by the other party, submit this infringement to the Labour Court, which may impose a fine.

Switzerland. — In the Canton of Geneva, a Decree of 11 March 1936 consolidated previous legislation on the Cantonal Conciliation Office. This institution is required: (1) to prevent or adjust all disputes which may arise between employers and workers, or between several employers or associations of employers and the workers or associations of workers in a given occupation, concerning conditions of work and the interpretation and application of collective agreements or standard contracts; (2) to encourage the conclusion of collective agreements; (3) to draft standard contracts; and (4) to settle collective disputes, if necessary, by arbitral awards.

The Office has competence in respect of all undertakings, whether covered or not by the Federal Factory Act. It is composed of a judge, as president, and four members (two employers and two workers) and eight substitutes (four employers and four workers), all of whom are appointed by the conciliation councils.

The Office intervenes either on its own initiative or at the request of the authorities or of the parties to a dispute. The procedure is free of charge. If a number of employers and their workers in a given industry voluntarily establish a conciliation office of their own, this replaces the Cantonal Office as far as they are concerned.

If the Office is to be convened, the parties to the dispute are required to appoint their representatives, who then state and defend their respective causes. Once constituted, the Office attempts to induce the parties to agree; if this first attempt at conciliation is not successful, it has full powers to adjourn until a later sitting, and may repeat this procedure as often as it considers necessary.

Should the Office's effort at conciliation fail, the Government may make a further and final attempt to secure agreement, either itself or through one of its departments, if it considers such action advisable or if an application to that effect is made by the two parties.

If the representatives of the two parties agree on the terms of a collective agreement, this must be drawn up in writing, signed by the parties concerned only, deposited in duplicate at the Department of Commerce and Industry, and published in the Official Gazette. If it is impossible to conclude a collective agreement, the Office must hold a special sitting to draft a standard contract governing conditions of work in the occupation, if it considers this advisable. The Office's decision in this case must then be taken by a majority vote of all its members.

The parties may, by agreement, instruct the Office to decide their dispute by arbitration. The resulting award is then assimilated to a judgment of the common law courts, and is not subject to appeal².

¹ See above, under "Right of Combination in Trade Unions".

² See also above, under "Collective Agreements", the principal provisions of the Act of 24 October 1936 concerning the extension of collective agreements and the establishment of arbitration courts and an arbitration tribunal.

Turkey. — The Labour Code of 8 June 1936 contains, in its Fifth Chapter, a detailed scheme for the adjustment of collective labour disputes, first by conciliation and thereafter by arbitration.

Any disagreement regarding conditions of work in force or their application between the employer and not less than one-fifth (but at least 10 members) of his staff is regarded as a collective dispute, and attempts must be made to adjust it by conciliation.

With this object, the staff of each undertaking is required to elect delegates—two if the number does not exceed 50, three for staffs of 51-200, four for staffs of 201-1,000 and five for those of over 1,000 persons. These delegates, with the employer or his representative, attempt to adjust collective disputes.

If an agreement is reached, it must be drawn up in writing, signed by the parties and posted in the undertaking. Neither the employer nor the workers may then take part in a collective dispute of the same character and with the same object, in respect of a matter within the scope of the agreement, until expiry of the sixteenth week from the date at which the agreement came into force.

If, on the other hand, the attempt at conciliation has failed, the employer and the workers' delegates are required to notify the competent authority not later than the evening of the following working day. Within six days, the competent authority must send to the undertaking where the dispute has arisen an official whose duty it is to seek a basis for conciliation in agreement with the employers' and workers' delegates. If this second attempt at conciliation also fails, the dispute must be submitted to an arbitration committee. Such a committee, over which the *vali* or his assistant presides, consists of: (1) the senior official among those required to enforce the Labour Code in the vilayet; (2) the director of legal affairs of the vilayet, or, if there is none, the head of the legal department; (3) two persons, chosen by the *vali* or his assistant, neither directly nor indirectly concerned in the dispute.

The arbitration committee sends for the employer and the workers' delegates concerned in the dispute, and may question any person—expert or witness—whose statements it may consider advisable to hear. Decisions are taken by a majority vote, and come into force unless appeal is made to the *vali* within 12 working days of the date of notification to the parties.

An appeal, if any, is transmitted by the *vali*, with the records of the case, to the department at Ankara responsible for the administration of the Labour Code. Not more than 8 working days after receipt of these documents by the Department, the High Court for the Arbitration of Industrial Disputes is convened by the Minister of Economic Affairs and starts examination of the case.

The High Court consists of one of the vice-presidents of the Council of State, appointed by the Prime Minister, as chairman, and the following persons: (1) a university or high school professor, nominated by the Minister of Economic Affairs; (2) the head of the administrative service responsible for the enforcement of the

Labour Code; (3) the head of the administrative service of the Ministry of Economic Affairs which is competent in respect of the nature of the work in question; (4) the Director-General of Legal Affairs at the Ministry of Justice; (5) the legal adviser to the Ministry of Economic Affairs; and (6) the legal adviser to the Ministry of the Interior.

Decisions of the High Court of Arbitration are taken by majority vote and are final. They become effective from the day following their notification to the parties. No collective dispute concerning the matter to which the decision relates may arise until 26 weeks have passed.

The decisions of the arbitration authorities apply to all the persons employed in the relevant undertakings, including those who took no part in the dispute. Further, the Council of Ministers, at the suggestion of the Minister of Economic Affairs, may declare the conditions of employment laid down in an arbitration award applicable to other undertakings working under similar circumstances, even if they were not parties to the collective dispute.

During the period between the day on which the procedure of conciliation or arbitration began and the final decision the original conditions of work remain in force in the undertaking. No deduction may be made from the wages of workers required to take part in negotiations for conciliation or to appear before an arbitration authority, in respect of any absence due to the fulfilment of such obligations.

Strikes and lock-outs are prohibited, on point of rigorous penalties (fines and imprisonment).

United States. — The new wave of strikes which occurred in 1936 naturally forced public attention towards the problem of adjusting industrial disputes. It should be noted in this connection that the Wagner Act, which became law on 5 July 1935 and established a National Labour Relations Board¹, was declared constitutional by the Supreme Court on 11 April 1937². There is no doubt that the confirmation of the constitutionality of the Act, which had been contested by certain Federal district courts, will have good effects on the development of industrial relations in the United States.

According to a report on the first ten months following its appointment, the National Labour Relations Board and its regional offices received 1,068 charges and petitions, involving 240,865 employees, during this period; of these cases, 738 had been disposed of, 381 through settlement by the Board. In most instances the decisions tended to prevent unfair practices by employers towards their employees; in 31 instances elections were conducted by the Board to decide which was the most representative employee organisa-

¹ Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1935-36*, pp. 445 and 434.

² For text of this award, cf. *International Survey of Legal Decisions on Labour Law, 1936-37*, United States.

tion. The Board also settled 103 strikes and prevented 78 other industrial conflicts. The above figures would appear to show that the Board functioned to the satisfaction of the groups concerned.

The constitutionality of the Railway Labour Act of 1926, as amended on 21 June 1934¹, was also confirmed by a judgment of the Supreme Court issued at the beginning of 1937². This Act has been supplemented by the addition of a new chapter, under which a National Air Transport Adjustment Board will be established and required to settle collective disputes between the air transport companies and their staffs.

It will be remembered that the Federal Acts referred to above apply only to inter-State commerce, and do not affect undertakings of a local character engaged in intra-State commerce only. In order to have the latter covered by similar schemes, Bills based on the Wagner Act have been introduced in a number of States, including Arkansas, California, Colorado, Georgia, Maine, Massachusetts, Michigan, New Jersey, New York, Ohio, Oregon, Pennsylvania, West Virginia, Utah and Wisconsin.

Venezuela. — Part VIII of the Labour Act of 16 July 1936³ is devoted to the adjustment of collective industrial disputes. The conciliation procedure provided is compulsory, for in any undertaking in which 10 or more persons are employed, work may not be stopped by the staff and the employer may not proclaim a lock-out until this procedure has been exhausted.

Every union or group of workers and every employer or organisation or group of employers is required to inform the factory inspector in writing of any dispute which has arisen in an undertaking. Within 24 hours the labour inspector must call upon each party to nominate two representatives and a substitute, who form the conciliation board. The board must meet within 72 hours. The inspector presides at the sittings, without the right to vote. The board continues to sit either until a unanimous decision has been reached or until it is convinced that no conciliation is possible.

A collective stoppage of work by the workers may not occur, nor may the employer declare the undertaking closed, within 120 hours of notification of the dispute to the inspector.

If conciliation fails, a full report of the proceedings must be prepared and published. The conciliation board or, failing it, the labour inspector must then propose to the parties that they accept arbitration.

An arbitration board is composed of two employers' and two workers' arbitrators, chosen by the conciliation board, or by lot if no agreement can be reached, from lists of candidates drawn up by the employers' and workers' organisations in the district. The

¹ Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1934-35*, p. 400.

² For the text of this award, cf. *International Survey of Legal Decisions on Labour Law, 1936-37*, United States.

³ See above, under "Right of Combination in Trade Unions" and "Collective Agreements".

inspector presides, with the right to vote. Arbitration boards have the same powers as ordinary courts; their decisions are taken by majority vote. An award must be issued within 30 days, unless it is decided in exceptional circumstances to extend this period by a further 30 days; its terms are binding on the parties for a period of six months. In case of a strike or lock-out in an undertaking or service the stopping of which would place the health or the political or social life of the population in immediate danger, the Government may take the necessary steps to secure resumption of work by issue of an Order with reasons attached.

During the proceedings and during the validity of the award, no employer may dismiss workers by reason of their legitimate activity in connection with the dispute, and during the same period workers may not molest or boycott an employer concerned therein because of the part he has played. The parties are required to notify the civil authorities of strikes and lock-outs and of the resumption of work or the re-opening of the undertaking.

Yugoslavia. — Conciliation and arbitration, as well as minimum wage-fixing and collective agreements¹ are dealt with by the Order of 13 February 1937. This makes provision for three methods of adjusting collective industrial disputes: compulsory conciliation, voluntary arbitration, and, in certain cases, compulsory arbitration.

In case of dispute between an employer and his staff, either party, before having recourse to a strike or lock-out, must apply to the competent administrative authority for the opening of conciliation procedure. If the dispute is particularly serious on account either of the number of workers involved or of the importance of the undertaking or industry, such application may be made by the labour inspector, or the Director of Mines in case of a dispute in the mining industry.

A meeting of the parties, which they must attend, has then to be arranged as soon as possible. If an agreement is reached, a record embodying it must be signed, and the agreement binds the parties for six months. If, after repeated negotiation, no agreement can be reached, the competent authority declares that the negotiations have failed. Strikes and lock-outs are prohibited during compulsory conciliation proceedings.

Instead of attempting conciliation, or after an attempt at conciliation has failed, the parties may agree to refer the dispute to arbitration. In this case an arbitration committee, composed of an official appointed by the competent authority and at least two representatives of the parties is established. The committee is competent only in so far as the parties agree to refer the dispute to it. Its decisions are taken by majority vote, and its awards bind the parties and take the place of a collective agreement between them. No appeal may be made against such awards.

¹ See above, under "Collective Agreements".

In case of disputes in national, provincial or local undertakings of public utility (transport, production of gas or electricity, and distribution of water), recourse to arbitration is compulsory if the conciliation proceedings terminates without a settlement. Strikes and lock-outs in these undertakings are prohibited.

Contraventions of the provisions of the Order are punishable by fines ranging from 100 to 10,000 dinars. The proceeds are paid into funds to secure the enforcement of the Order; one such fund will be established at the headquarters of each provincial authority.

No employer may dismiss or threaten to dismiss a worker for having taken part in conciliation or arbitration proceedings, provided the worker has informed the employer of his intention before doing so.

The Individual Contract of Service

The legislative movement noted in previous editions of the *Year-Book* showed continued progress. Acts on the contract of service were promulgated in Bulgaria, China, and Estonia. In the Irish Free State and Norway the previous legislation was replaced by new Acts on the protection of labour, which also contain provisions on several questions relating to the contract of employment. The Labour Codes drawn up in Turkey and Venezuela devote entire chapters to contracts of service. The Civil Code which came into force in Peru on 14 November 1936 has several sections dealing with contracts of service. Finally, apart from legislative action on this large scale, there are also numerous Acts regulating certain aspects of labour contracts and completing previous legislation.

Among the various questions on which there are regulations of labour relations between employer and employed, three are of particular social and international importance: the payment of wages, dismissal, and rules of employment. The legislation promulgated in the different countries in the course of the year is therefore described in the following pages under these three headings.

PAYMENT OF WAGES ¹

Belgium. — In virtue of the Act of 16 August 1887 on the payment of workers' wages, deductions could not be made except in the cases fixed by law. Under section 7, such deductions were per-

¹ The reader will not be surprised to find under this heading some of the facts which have already appeared in Chapter IV, under "Wage Policy". Such repetitions are unavoidable in a work covering so large a field as the *Year-Book*, particularly when the same problem is examined from different angles. In Chapter IV the question at issue is the measures taken to ensure a minimum rate of pay for workers. that is to say, the State's policy in this respect. In this Chapter attention is chiefly directed to the rights which are recognised to workers by legislation on contracts of service.

mitted for "contributions due from the worker to benefit and welfare funds".

This provision was repealed by the Act of 7 July 1936, in order that the worker should be guaranteed freedom of choice in the matter of mutual aid societies, unemployment funds, and any other benefit and welfare funds.

Bulgaria. — An Act of 5 September 1936 on the individual contract of service stipulates that wages must be paid in cash. Allowances in kind (food, housing, clothing, etc.) are considered as additional payments and are calculated at the average market rate. But clothing and other accessories which the employer must provide in virtue of special regulations are not considered as wages.

Fines may be imposed if a worker does not obey the rules of employment of the undertaking. The highest fine incurred for a single offence may not exceed a quarter of the daily wage, and the total fines for one month may not exceed one-tenth of the net monthly wage. The proceeds from fines are to be used for purposes of unemployment insurance.

The worker is liable for damage caused by his own carelessness up to one-third of his net monthly wage.

China. — Under the Act of 25 December 1936 on the contract of service, a contract is null and void when the employer takes advantage of the poverty, inattention or inexperience of the worker to fix a very low rate of pay bearing no just relation to the work performed or to draw up a contract whose conditions are manifestly contrary to those usually obtaining. Workers paid by the piece may check, either personally or through representatives, the measuring of products whose quantity or quality determines the amount of their wage. A minimum output must be fixed by agreement with the employer or by an employers' organisation and a workers' organisation. If the output falls, there is a corresponding decrease in the wages paid to the worker who is paid by the piece. If the employer is responsible for the fall, the worker will be paid for that amount of the work at the wage rate prevailing in the district. If neither side is at fault, the worker will be paid at half the prevailing rate. Bonuses and special payments are considered as wages if they are expressly stipulated or tacitly recognised by custom. Wages are paid when the work is finished, at the end of the month at latest. At the end of a fortnight, a worker paid by the piece is entitled to the payment of wages for the work done.

If the average wage does not exceed one dollar per day, there can be no deduction or compensation. Should the employer become bankrupt, the worker has a preferential claim for wages owing for the preceding year.

The employer may not oblige the worker to purchase goods in shops or other places specified by him.

Denmark. — An Act of 7 April 1936 regulates the payment of wages in the Faroe Islands. It provides for payment in cash at

least once a week, during the working day and at the workplace. Deductions not specified in contracts of service are prohibited. The working week ends on Friday, the weekly wage period on Thursday.

Ecuador. — An Act of 21 May 1936 governs the wages of textile workers. Five classes of persons are distinguished: apprentices, temporary workers, assistants, labourers, and skilled workers. Skilled workers are those who mind the machines and who, on account of their technical knowledge and their moral qualifications, are given permanent employment under an individual or collective contract of employment. To obtain this position, the worker must have served an apprenticeship of two to six months at least—according to whether he is a spinner or a weaver—and must then have passed a technical examination held by a tripartite qualification committee.

The Act prescribes minimum wage rates for the different classes. Workers in the textile industry receive their wages in money or in kind, according to the usual practice of the factory. If the remuneration takes the form of the use of a plot of land, the value of this remuneration is fixed by the qualification committee. Money wages, however, must never fall below one sucre per day.

Estonia. — The Act of 7 October 1936 forbids employers to pay wages by means of bills of exchange, receipts for debts incurred, tokens, goods or other objects.

Employers may open factory shops with the permission of the competent factory inspector. The prices of goods sold in such shops must be approved by the inspector and displayed to the public; they may not be higher than the average prices in the local markets.

Employers must keep wage accounts and provide their workers with wage books. Wages are paid twice a month, unless it is otherwise agreed to pay them by the month or at longer intervals. In case of delay in the payment of wages, the employer must pay $\frac{1}{3}$ per cent. interest for each day's delay, the rate of interest being reduced by half when the employer pays the delayed wages of his own free will.

The employer may not deduct any sums from wages, with the exception of advance payments made to the worker, the cost of foodstuffs or necessary articles bought by the worker in the factory shop, the rent and cost of lighting and heating of premises let by the employer to the worker at a price fixed in advance, and any sums which may be deducted from wages in execution of a judicial order. The total amount of such deductions may not exceed that part of the wages which may be distrained under the Civil Code. The worker may not sign away or pledge his wages in advance.

If the employer entrusts the execution of the work to a sub-contractor, the workers may require the original contractor to pay the agreed wages if the sub-contractor fails to meet his obligations in due time.

An employer who does not personally act as manager is required to appoint a manager and to transmit his name to the competent factory inspector. The manager then has the same responsibility for the observance of the Act as the employer.

India. — An Act of 23 April 1936 regulates the payment of wages in industrial establishments, and also in certain plantations employing at least 25 persons.

Among the most important provisions is that stating that no wage period may exceed one month. Wages must be paid in cash, on a working day, within seven days at most of the close of the wage period in establishments employing less than 1,000 persons, and within ten days in the others. When a worker is discharged, the employer must pay him the wages owing not later than ten days after the end of his engagement.

The most important part of the Act deals with the question of deductions, which are permitted only in the cases specified by the Act. They may take the form of fines for absence from duty, loss, or to recover damages or advances made in the form of subscriptions to provident funds or co-operative societies, payment of income-tax, or for certain services provided by the employer. The Act provides for supervisory measures, fixes maximum penalties, and confers on the local governments the power to make rules for its application.

As regards fines in particular, these may be imposed only if they have been specified in a regular notice at the workplace. The offender must be permitted to state his case. The sum of the fines which may be imposed on a worker in one wage period may not exceed the maximum fixed by the Act. Workers under 15 years of age may not be fined. The employer must keep a register recording the fines imposed and the amounts realised, which must be credited to a common fund for the staff as a whole.

In the case of unjustified absence from work, the maximum amount which the employer may deduct from wages must be in the same proportion to the amount due for the wage period as the hours of absence to the statutory hours of work during the wage period. An exception is made when ten or more workers, acting in concert, absent themselves without reasonable cause and without giving the required notice. In these circumstances the deduction may be equal to the wages due for the required period of notice but must not exceed the wages for eight days.

In the Central Provinces an Act which came into force on 29 March 1936 provided for a new procedure of settlement of workers' unsecured debts. According to the Act any industrial worker may present a petition for the settlement of his debts if they exceed the aggregate value of his assets and three times his average income. If the petition is received, the court takes charge of the petitioners' assets and determines the true extent of the debts, investigating each transaction and reducing usurious rates of interest. If the debts are found to be within the means

of the petitioner to repay, the court prepares a schedule showing the adjusted debt to each creditor and discharges the debt. If the debts are not within his means, the court declares the debtor to be an encumbered worker, and after realising his assets makes over the proceeds, in due proportion, to the secured creditors. The balance of assets, if any, is assigned to other creditors, including unsatisfied secured creditors in order of priority.

Iran. — A Factories and Industrial Establishments Regulation issued on 10 August 1936 provides, *inter alia*, that the employer must keep special records showing what raw materials are used in his establishment, the number of workers employed, their wages, the expenditure of the establishment, output, etc. He must likewise submit an annual summary of such information to the Department of Industry and Mines. A register must be kept, showing the date of each worker's engagement, the work for which he is engaged, and his conduct.

Workers are required to observe strictly the rules on health, technique and discipline. If a worker neglects his work, the employer is entitled to reduce his wages in proportion to the number of hours during which work was neglected. If, as a result of neglect by a worker, the employer's interests are in any way prejudiced, the latter may claim compensation through the competent authorities. If a worker is guilty of a penal offence, action may be taken against him in the criminal courts.

Irish Free State. — The Conditions of Employment Act of 14 February 1936 has several provisions dealing with piece-work wages. Unless exempted by the Minister for Industry and Commerce on account of the special circumstances of the undertaking, every employer who pays any worker or outworker remuneration calculated with reference to the amount of work done must give him a note in writing showing particulars of the rate of piece-work wages and of the work in respect of which it is payable. Moreover, the employer must exhibit in the workplace a placard giving the piece-work particulars. The placard must show no other matter but the piece-work particulars, which must be expressed in letters and figures used with their ordinary significance. If, however, the piece-work particulars are too complicated to be comprised in a placard, the employer must keep a book containing them readily available for inspection by the workers concerned.

The reckoning of the amount of work done to ascertain piece-work wages must be carried out in such a manner that the worker has an opportunity of checking the result before the wages are paid.

Morocco. — Following the example of French legislation, a Decree on the payment of wages was issued on 18 June 1936. It contains provisions on the manner, period and day of payment, fines, sub-contracting and wages as a preferential claim. The

Decree also requires that, in the absence of a written contract, the employer shall issue to the workers a work card showing the wage rate, manner of payment, allowances in kind, deductions, advances, etc.

Factory shops are prohibited on principle. They may, however, be permitted in certain circumstances in workplaces, agricultural or industrial undertakings, mines and quarries which are at some distance from provisioning centres of supply. No foreman, gang leader or any other person in general who has a position of authority over the staff may re-sell goods at a profit, directly or indirectly, to the workers or salaried employees of the undertaking in which he works.

The same Decree also fixes a minimum wage of 4 francs for workers and salaried employees. For public works, minimum wages are fixed by mixed regional committees. If the workers and salaried employees engaged in this work are paid lower wages than the fixed rate, the administration will compensate the workers directly for their loss by making deductions both from the amount due to the contractor and from his deposit. Repetitions of the offence may result in the contractor being excluded from the public works market. Moreover, criminal proceedings may be taken against any employer who breaks the law.

Netherlands. — An Act of 5 November 1936 regulates the legal position of commercial agents and travellers. A commercial traveller is defined as a person who is engaged by an employer to conclude contracts between the employer and third parties whom he visits for this purpose, or a person who concludes such contracts in the name and on the account of the employer.

Unless otherwise stipulated in writing, a traveller has the right to remuneration as soon as the contract is concluded between his employer and the third party. If it is stipulated that remuneration is due only after fulfilment of the contract, the traveller is entitled to payment even if the contract is not fulfilled owing to the fault of the employer. Again, unless otherwise stipulated in writing, the traveller has the right to demand payment when contracts are signed without his intervention with customers whom he has introduced or with persons belonging to a group or living in a district which falls exclusively within the range of his activity.

The traveller is entitled to adequate remuneration for contracts which he has led up to but which are signed after his contract of employment has ended.

Norway. — Chapter VI of the Workers' Protection Act of 19 June 1936 contains provisions on the payment of wages. Wages fixed per hour, day or week are normally to be paid weekly. Salaries fixed monthly or yearly are to be paid twice monthly.

Deductions may be made from wages only by written agreement, apart from the exceptions specified by legislation or in the case of social insurance contributions or of recovery for loss which the

worker has caused the employer deliberately or through serious negligence.

At the time of payment, the worker may demand a written confirmation, showing the amount of the wage, the method of calculation, and any deductions.

Switzerland. — In virtue of the Federal Order of 5 April 1935 prolonging the measures of relief for the hotel industry, an Order of the Federal Council was issued on 12 June 1936 making generally binding a collective agreement on the regulation of gratuities in the hotel industry, concluded between the Swiss Hotel-Keepers' Society and the Helvetia Union of Hotel Employees.

This agreement, which is considered as owing effect to the Order, fixes the rate of gratuities (10 to 15 per cent. in principle), regulates their payment and their distribution, and provides for supervision. The Order prescribes penalties for an employer who appropriates or misuses the gratuities he has received in accordance with the distribution regulations, or who hampers the arrangements for supervision by refusing admittance to an official entrusted with this duty, by withholding vouchers or by preventing his employees from stating their case. Similarly, any person entrusted with duties of supervision who violates the pledge of secrecy to which he is bound under the Order is liable to punishment.

Turkey. — The Labour Code of 8 June 1936 contains a number of provisions on the payment of wages. It prescribes payment in cash, fixes wage periods, restricts deductions, attachments, etc. Factory shops may not be opened without a permit from the Minister for Economic Affairs, which is granted only if it is difficult for the workers to obtain necessities—the only articles factory shops are allowed to stock—and if the opening of the factory shop is a recognised advantage to the workers. If at a workplace at some distance from any centre neither the workers themselves nor the employer by agreement with the workers has opened a factory shop, then the employer may be required to open one. The Minister for Economic Affairs is empowered to fix the kinds and qualities of necessities sold in factory shops and also the prices and conditions of sale. He must also supervise the running of the shops. The workers may not be forced to make purchases in the factory shops.

United States. — An Act of 30 June 1936 fixed the minimum conditions of employment for public contracts in excess of 10,000 dollars entered into by the United States Government. Every contractor must pay his workers, without subsequent deductions or rebates, the minimum wages which according to the Secretary of Labour prevail in the respective branch or locality. It is the duty of the Secretary of Labour to enforce this provision. To ensure strict observance of the Act, the first series of regulations giving it effect aims, *inter alia*, at eliminating "bid-brokers" having no established place of business by giving a written definition

of the terms "manufacturer", "regular dealer", etc. used in the Act. The regulations also require employers to keep registers showing the number of workers employed, their wage rates, the wages actually paid, hours of work, and hours worked per day.

The *I.L.O. Year-Book* for 1935-36¹ mentioned the attempts made to generalise and standardise legislation on the payment and recovery of wages, a matter which falls within the competence of the individual State. As a result of these attempts, a text to be used as a model for legislation of this kind was drawn up by a committee of experts appointed by the Second National Conference on Labour Legislation and the International Association of Governmental Labour Officials. Under the terms of these provisions the employer is required to pay wages regularly and in full at least twice a month. A discharged worker must draw any wages owing within 24 hours, and a worker who leaves of his own accord, within 72 hours. Workers on strike must receive their wages on the nearest regular pay-day. The application of these provisions should be entrusted to the Labour Commissioners of the States, who should also be empowered to settle rapidly any disputes that may arise without being bound to follow normal procedure. Should the dispute arise over a point of law and the parties be unable to reach a compromise, the matter may be submitted to a court of law; instead of having recourse to a lawyer the worker may entrust his case to the Labour Commissioner, who will undertake the prosecution of the employer on his behalf.

This plan is among the recommendations adopted by the annual conference of the International Association of Governmental Labour Officials which met in September 1936; it was also adopted by the third National Conference on Labour Legislation held in Washington from 9 to 11 November 1936.

The Acts passed by the States during the year contain several provisions which call for mention. In Louisiana any person engaging a worker with the intention of defrauding him of his pay is liable to punishment; an employee who leaves his job must be paid within 24 hours. In New York persons occupied on public works may be paid their wages by cheque. In Virginia the workers have been authorised to obtain from a court of law a certificate stating that their wages or a part of their wages are not distrainable.

Venezuela. — Important provisions of the Labour Act of 15 July 1936 refer to the payment of wages. The interval between payments may not exceed one week for manual workers and one month for salaried employees and domestic servants. Wages must be paid directly to the worker or to a person indicated by him and only in legal tender.

If the workers contract debts towards the employer for provisions or other goods supplied on credit, the employer may not deduct

¹ Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1935-36*, pp. 424-425.

during any one wage period an amount exceeding 50 per cent. of the wages due to the worker. In large establishments at some distance from a town and in oil and coal districts, employers must provide healthy living quarters for their staff at a monthly rent not exceeding one-third per cent. of the value of the dwellings.

DISMISSAL

Bulgaria. — An Act of 5 September 1936 on the contract of employment contains important provisions regulating dismissal.

No worker may be discharged when he is on sick leave during a maximum period of three months, and no woman worker within the six weeks before or after her confinement. No worker may be discharged for three months during his period of military service, compulsory labour service or other public duties, or when he has made application for his holiday or is already on holiday.

Contracts concluded for indefinite periods must provide for periods of notice. These periods are of 15 days for workers without responsibility, 45 days for those with limited responsibility, and 90 days for those holding posts of accountancy, supervision or management.

The Decree provides that the contract may be terminated without notice for certain serious reasons.

When a worker who has had five years' uninterrupted service with the same employer is dismissed without justification he is entitled to compensation equal to one month's pay, and to two month's pay if he has been employed for 10 years or more.

China. — The Act of 25 December 1936 on contracts of employment regulates the termination of the contract. In the case of a contract concluded for an indefinite period the Act provides for minimum periods of notice corresponding to the nature of the engagement; if a worker is engaged by the day, he must be given notice on the day before; if by the week, three days before the end of the week; if by the month, 7 days before the end of the month; if by the quarter, 15 days before the end of the quarter; and if by the year, a month before the end of the year.

On the other hand an employer may terminate any contract before its expiry by giving 7 days' notice, if he wishes to stop or slow down operations for economic or financial reasons, or to suspend work for a month on account of the bad condition of the material, or if the worker is unfit to carry out the work for which he was engaged.

Either the employer or the worker may terminate the contract without notice for several serious reasons mentioned in the Act. They include serious or infectious disease.

Czechoslovakia. — By a Decree of 18 December 1936 the validity of the Decree of 26 June 1935 restricting the suspension of work and collective dismissals was extended to 31 December 1937.

Ecuador. — The Acts of 6 October 1928 on contracts of employment and periods of notice received several amendments during 1936.

If a contract of employment is terminated without observance of the period of notice for one of the serious reasons mentioned in the 1928 Act on the contract of employment, notice of this action must be given to the labour inspector within three days for his approval; should the inspector declare that the reason adduced for terminating the contract is not valid, the contract will remain legally in force.

Apart from this case, when a worker is discharged without observance of the period of notice prescribed in the Act, he is entitled to compensation equal to one month's wages if his period of uninterrupted service does not exceed one year and to a further month's wages for each additional year of service. After 5 years' service, he may claim compensation even if he was given the statutory period of notice of dismissal or if his contract was for a specified period but had been renewed either tacitly or expressly. In this case the compensation is equal to one month's wages for each year of service, provided that the maximum limit of 20 years is not exceeded.

Collective dismissal is forbidden; in particular, in an undertaking employing less than 20 workers not more than 2 workers may be discharged at a time, and in larger establishments not more than 5.

Estonia. — The Act of 7 October 1936 on contracts of employment provides that a contract concluded for an indefinite period may be terminated only by at least two weeks' notice. In industrial and mining undertakings employing five or more workers, 3 weeks' notice must be given to workers with two years' service, and 4 weeks' notice to those with five years' service in the same undertaking.

The employer's right to terminate a contract is suspended when the worker is on holiday or on compulsory military service, and for a period of four weeks if the worker is absent from work as the result of sickness or accident.

Either the employer or the worker may terminate a contract without previous notice in the circumstances specified in the Act, but this must be done within seven days following the occurrence of the event justifying such termination.

Any change made in the conditions of employment entails the prior termination of the contract of employment.

Germany. — Several of the legislative measures for the application of the four-year plan which have been referred to above¹ are intended to ensure a rational distribution of workers in the principal industries covered by the Plan. In particular the engagement and dismissal of workers are made subject to a certain supervision

¹ See, *inter alia*, Chapter I: Economic Developments.

in the building and metal industries and employers are required to employ an adequate number of older workers.

The Sixth Decree for the application of the plan, dated 12 December 1936, covers the metal and building industries, brick and tile works and agriculture, and aims at preventing illegal termination of contracts by workers. For this purpose it provides for an exception to the general rule that the employment book which each worker must hold in order to be employed in Germany may not be retained by the employer when a worker leaves his employment¹. Under the new Decree, if the worker terminates the contract of employment prematurely and illegally, an employer whose establishment belongs to one of the four branches mentioned above may retain the employment book up to the time when the engagement would have ended if the contract had been terminated regularly, i.e. in practice, until the end of the period of notice fixed for the class of workers concerned.

An employer may take this serious step only if the worker has acted unlawfully; otherwise he is liable for damages and incurs the penalties prescribed by the legislation on employment books. In the case of a dispute between an employer and a worker concerning the latter's right to terminate the contract, the labour court may issue a provisional order (*einstweilige Verfügung*) that the employer should at once return the employment book to the worker.

Japan. — An Act incorporating the usual practice in Japanese industry was issued in May 1936 and came into force on 1 January 1937. It provides for retirement allowances for workers (with the exception of salaried employees and members of a managing staff) in mines or industrial establishments employing at least 50 workers.

Three funds are to be instituted. The first is to be formed by a deduction of 2 per cent. from every worker's wages. These amounts are to be deposited in the Savings Bank to the worker's account and repaid to him with interest when he leaves his employment.

Further, the employer is required to create a retirement allowances fund out of a contribution equal to 2 per cent. of the total wage bill and a supplementary sum varying in accordance with the profits made by the undertaking, but not exceeding 3 per cent. of the total wage bill. The whole of this fund remains the property of the employer, who must deposit it in a Savings Bank, and an account must be opened in the name of each worker. The employer stands surety for this fund, which is exempt from taxation and attachment up to a sum equal to 7 per cent. of the wages.

The retirement allowance is constituted by the sum thus standing to each worker's separate account. This is paid to him on his discharge, but it may be diminished or suppressed entirely in circumstances to be specified by Decree. These will consist prin-

¹ Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1935-36*, p. 421.

cipally of cases in which a worker is discharged for serious misconduct or when he leaves his employment voluntarily and without sufficient reason. Marriage and sickness are recognised as sufficient reasons.

Finally, when a worker is refused his allowance in whole or in part, the remainder of the amount due to him is paid into a common fund of special dismissal allowances which will enable supplementary payments to be made to workers discharged by the employer for no fault of their own but reasons arising out of the working of the undertaking. This allowance is equivalent to 20 days' pay when the worker has been in the employer's service for more than a year but less than 3 years, and 35 days' pay after 3 years' service or more. However, the employer's liability is limited to the amount placed to reserve in this fund and he has no obligation in cases where no sums have been paid in.

The Act provides for certain exceptions, among others for establishments already possessing a system of retirement allowances (which must receive official approval) as well as for those which have adopted a system ensuring the payment of 12 days' wages per year of service, increased by a special allowance of 20 to 35 days' wages according as the length of service exceeds one or three years.

Penalties may be imposed on employers who infringe these legal obligations. Supervisory committees will see that the Act is enforced.

Netherlands. — The Act of 5 November 1936 on commercial agents and travellers contains several sections on the termination of contracts. If the contract is concluded for an indefinite period, the party who wishes to terminate it must observe the period of notice stipulated by written agreement or the rules of employment of the undertaking. In the absence of any such stipulation the period of notice is to be 6 weeks. In no case may the period of notice be less than 1 month or more than 6 months. It may not be shorter for the employer than for the traveller. If the latter's salary in cash does not exceed 4 gulden per day, the period of notice may not be more than 6 weeks.

Notice must always be given for the last day of the calendar month.

Norway. — The Workers' Protection Act of 19 June 1936 regulates dismissal from three points of view; it fixes periods of notice for all workers coming within the scope of the Act; it contains special measures for workers over a certain age whose length of service exceeds a fixed minimum limit; and it provides for a dismissal allowance.

Workers paid by the hour, the day, the week, or the piece must be given a fortnight's notice of dismissal. For workers paid monthly or annually this period is extended to one month and the notice must be given for the end of the calendar month. The parties may, however, be exempted from these clauses by a written agreement or in virtue of the rules of employment of the under-

taking. In any case the periods of notice must be the same for the employer and the worker.

A worker of 25 years of age with a record of 5 years' service in the same undertaking must be given notice of at least a month and may only be dismissed at the end of the calendar month.

Workers over 21 who are discharged after not less than 3 years' or more uninterrupted service in the same undertaking may claim an allowance provided that the dismissal is not materially justified by the circumstances of the employer, the worker or the undertaking, but results solely from external causes. This does not apply in the case of a worker who is discharged as a result of the pressure brought to bear on the employer by the other workers or by a trade union. The allowance is fixed with reference to loss of wages, length of service, the amount of wages previously drawn, the chances of finding other employment, the worker's personal circumstances, and all other facts relevant to the case. The amount of the allowance may not exceed half the worker's last yearly earnings. To obtain an allowance the worker must send in a claim within two weeks of receiving the notice of dismissal. An allowance may not be claimed when the dismissal is connected with a labour dispute or if the worker has a right to a pension by virtue of regulations drawn up by the employer.

In the case of operations being suspended for reasons of *force majeure* the periods of notice need not be observed in respect of workers who were engaged in the work thus suspended. On the other hand, workers are entitled to the period of notice in the case of the death or bankruptcy of the employer, or if the suspension of work is due to the fact that the workplace, the machinery, the materials or the tools which the employer is required to supply are unusable through no fault of the workers.

Contracts may be terminated without previous notice in cases provided for by law or by rules of employment.

Turkey. — The Labour Code of 8 June 1936 contains provisions on the termination of contracts in respect of long-term work of over 30 days, whereas contracts for short-term work continue to be subject to the provisions of common law.

In the case of contracts which are for long-term work but are concluded for an indefinite period, minimum periods of notice are prescribed, graded according to the length of service and the nature of the work. For example, for manual workers, the period of notice varies between 1 and 4 weeks according as the person in question has been employed for 6 months, 18 months, 3 years or 5 years. Notice must be given for the end of the week. As regards workers whose work is both manual and non-manual, the contract may be terminated after a period of notice twice as long as that given above, according to length of service.

Moreover, in the case of dismissal after more than 5 years' service, for each additional year the worker draws an allowance equivalent to 15 days' wages.

The party who fails to observe the statutory period of notice must pay, besides the wages due for that period a special sum in compensation, the amount of which is to be fixed by the judge with reference to the nature of the work.

The Code provides that for certain reasons a contract, whether it is for a specified or an indefinite period may be terminated without notice. However, when by *force majeure* the employer is obliged to suspend operations or the worker is prevented from working for more than a week, the latter is to receive half his wages during this waiting period of one week.

United States. — Last year's issue of the *Year-Book*¹ referred to the recommendations made by the Federal Co-ordinator of Transportation on the subject of the compensation to be paid to railway employees in the case of the co-ordination or merging of certain transport companies. With these recommendations as a starting point, a collective agreement for a period of 5 years was concluded on 21 May 1936 between committees representing the unions of the workers concerned and the railroad managements.

It will be remembered that the office of Co-ordinator was set up under the Emergency Railroad Transportation Act of 1933, which also instituted labour committees in each of the three regional groups of railroads to protect the workers' interests during the period of co-ordination. The members of these committees were to be selected by the workers' unions, and before reaching decisions on matters affecting railway workers the Co-ordinator was required to consult these committees.

Under the terms of the agreement any railroad carrier contemplating co-ordination must give at least 90 days' notice to the workers concerned, together with a statement of the proposed changes and an estimate of the number of persons affected by co-ordination. Within 10 days of receipt of this notice a conference of the representatives of the two parties must be convened, which must begin within 30 days.

The agreement provides for machinery for the adjustment of any disputes between employers and workers which may arise from the displacement of the latter through co-ordination.

Among the many stipulations to protect the workers' interests, those ensuring compensation to workers for the loss incurred as a result of the co-ordination of railway companies should be particularly noted. In these circumstances, when the worker is transferred to a post which is less well paid than his previous one, the employer must make good the difference in wages for a maximum period of 5 years, or until the worker by promotion or otherwise reaches a wage at least equal to his former one.

If as a result of co-ordination a worker is deprived of his employment after service of one year or more he may claim a monthly allowance equal to 60 per cent. of his average monthly wage during the 12 months prior to co-ordination. This allowance

¹ Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1935-36*, pp. 424-425.

is payable for at least 6 and at most 60 months according to length of service. A worker with less than a year's service receives a lump sum equivalent to 60 days' salary.

At the time of co-ordination, workers covered by the agreement have the right to resign. If they make use of this right, they may, in lieu of other payments, claim their compensation in a lump sum amounting to between 3 and 12 months' wages according to length of service. Should this be less than a year the worker draws 5 days' pay.

U.S.S.R. — The examination of complaints submitted by workers was the subject of an Order issued by the Committee of Soviet Control attached to the Council of Peoples Commissars of the U.S.S.R., which met from 22 to 26 May 1936.

This Order prohibits the dismissal of or the refusal to engage a worker for reasons such as social origin, previous convictions, etc. It proposes the revision of the penalties imposed on salaried employees in Soviet administrative services as the result of previous "purges", since in present conditions these penalties have in most cases lost their significance, and forbids any fresh "purges" without the special permission of the Committee of Soviet Control. The Order forbids communications of a confidential character about workers transferred from one institution to another. Disciplinary penalties may not be imposed without the person concerned being allowed to state his case. Organisations and establishments are required to register every complaint, to fix a time limit for its consideration, and to supervise the enforcement of the decision taken.

Venezuela. — The Labour Act of 15 July 1936 provides for minimum periods of notice. For workers and salaried employees who have concluded a contract for an indefinite period these periods of notice are graded according to length of service. After a month of uninterrupted service the period of notice is one week. After 6 months it is 15 days, and after a year or more, one month.

Contracts for either specified or indefinite periods may be denounced at any time for reasons indicated in the Act. When a worker is discharged, or when the contract comes to an end, for a reason over which he has no control, the employer must pay him a dismissal allowance at the rate of 15 days' wages for each year of uninterrupted work in the employer's service. The amount payable may not exceed 6 months' wages.

For domestic servants the period of notice is 15 days, unless the contract is terminated for any serious reason. In the case of maltreatment or an attempt to incite him to a criminal or immoral act, the servant can claim the payment of a month's wages.

RULES OF EMPLOYMENT

Estonia. — Under the Act on contracts of employment, rules of employment are compulsory for undertakings in which 15 or

more workers are employed. The Act specifies the minimum conditions which the rules must determine, with special reference to the beginning and end of the working day, breaks, public holidays, the day and place of payment of wages, etc.

The rules must be submitted in draft form to the workers, who are entitled to express their opinions and propose amendments through the medium of their representatives, or individually in undertakings where no representatives are elected. The draft rules must be approved by the competent labour inspector, who must refuse his approval if they are not consistent with existing statutory provisions. When approved, the rules must be displayed in the undertaking and become binding on both the employer and the workers.

Norway. — In virtue of the Workers' Protection Act of 19 June 1936 workshop rules of employment are compulsory in every industrial or commercial establishment employing more than 10 workers or in any case in which the labour inspector deems it necessary whatever the number of workers. The Ministry of Social Affairs is also authorised to prescribe the introduction of rules of employment in other undertakings.

The rules must deal with the internal working of the undertaking, the organisation of work, the conditions of engagement and dismissal, and the payment of wages, but they may not prescribe fines for breaches of their clauses.

The staff is called upon to participate in the drawing up of rules of employment, for which purpose it elects five representatives to confer with the employer. If these representatives are not in agreement with the employer, they may draw up separate proposals. The draft rules must be approved by the authorities. They are therefore submitted to the Labour Inspectorate, which transmits them with its opinion at the earliest possible date to the Labour Council provided for in the Act, a body of five members, four of whom are representatives of employers and workers. The Council may refuse to approve the rules if they have not been drawn up in accordance with the law or if they contain clauses contrary to the Act or unjust to the workers.

The rules must be posted up, and a copy given to each worker individually.

Turkey. — Under the Labour Code of 8 June 1936, which applies to undertakings employing not less than 10 workers, employers are required to draw up rules of employment laying down the conditions of work and the workers' obligations in respect of discipline, hygiene and safety.

Before coming into force the rules must be approved by the competent authority. They must be posted up, and a copy given to every worker on request.

Yugoslavia. — Rules of employment are the subject of several sections of the Industrial Code of 5 November 1931. Under

section 340 the Minister of Social Policy and Public Health is authorised to draw up a model for such rules; and in pursuance of this provision, on 15 May 1936 the Minister issued model workshop rules of employment for industrial factories.

Administration of Labour Law

Austria. — The competence of the labour courts was not affected by the passage of the Act of 24 November 1936 respecting the establishment of joint industrial committees for the settlement by voluntary arbitration of collective disputes and, under certain conditions, of individual disputes arising out of employment relations. The Act expressly lays down that no agreement of the litigants to have a dispute adjusted by voluntary arbitration can supersede the jurisdiction of the labour courts.

Ecuador. — The Act of 6 October 1928 which provided for the settlement of individual labour disputes by the labour commissaries, or in their absence by the superior police authority in the district, was replaced by an Act of 24 April 1936, which reproduces the main provisions of the earlier Act and introduces more detailed rules of procedure for the hearing of disputes. It also allows a further appeal to the Supreme Court against the judgments of the superior court of the district, which under the previous Act was to serve as the final court of appeal against the decisions of the labour authorities.

Peru. — A labour court was set up in the district of Lima in accordance with the provisions of the Act of 21 March 1935, which is itself based on the enabling Act of 12 April 1930. The latter had stipulated that labour courts composed of a single labour judge would be established in the most important industrial centres of Peru, that is in Lima and Callao.

Two Decrees dated 10 July 1935 and 6 December 1935 contain provisions for the creation of a legal section in the Department of Labour to advise and represent the workers, free of charge, in actions before the courts.

Spain. — An Act respecting the joint labour boards, dated 30 May 1936, repealed the Act of 16 July 1935 which had been brought into operation by the Decree of 29 August 1935. The purpose of the 1935 legislation had been to abolish the industrial courts which since 1908 had been entrusted with the settlement of individual labour disputes, and to entrust such disputes to the jurisdiction of the joint boards intended particularly for the settlement of collective disputes. With the repeal of the 1935 Act, the 1908 legislation, as modified by the Decree of 23 August 1926 for the creation of industrial courts to handle individual labour disputes, again came into force.

Venezuela. — The new Constitution which came into force on 21 July 1936 provides for the creation of labour courts consisting of the labour inspector, or a person designated by him, as chairman, and of two assessors nominated one by each of the parties to the dispute. The proceedings are governed by the rules which apply in ordinary civil cases. The decisions are taken by a majority vote and are subject to revision by the National Labour Office. They may be enforced in the same manner as the decisions of the ordinary courts.

Scientific Management

The year 1936 saw a revival in the movement for scientific management, due partly to the general economic recovery and partly to the new conditions resulting from the practical application of economic and social measures in certain countries. The public occasions on which the problems of scientific management were raised are too numerous for individual mention here; but certain cases of official action and certain meetings of a more than national importance cannot be passed over.

The first National Management Congress of *Czechoslovakia* was held at Prague in May 1936. It examined 124 reports on widely varying problems of production, public administration, training of workers, and general economic organisation.

Towards the end of 1936 the Government of *France* established a national centre for scientific management at the Ministry of Economic Affairs. The new body, on which the International Labour Office is to be represented, will act in an advisory capacity as regards both private industry (suggestions to heads of undertakings) and public economic affairs (consultation with the Government).

In *Japan* the Rationalisation Office at the Ministry of Commerce, which was founded in 1930 but had a provisional character only, was reorganised and transformed into a permanent administrative body.

In *Sweden* the Minister of Social Affairs ordered the establishment of a special committee to study the social effects of rationalisation, particularly as regards unemployment; its further aims will be to neutralise such of these effects as are undesirable and to examine the means of adapting society to the new situation which technical development has created.

Reference was made, in the *Year-Book* for 1935-36¹, to the profound effect which the "Stakhanov" movement for increasing individual output has had on economic and social life in the *U.S.S.R.* As a result of this movement, new standards of industrial

¹ Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1935-36*, p. 428.

output were introduced early in 1936; and in heavy industry, 70-80 per cent. of the workers paid on piece rates were able, it was stated, to equal or exceed these standards by the end of August. In light industry the movement led to the establishment of "stakhanov liaison groups", that is to say, groups of stakhanov workers linking up the different vertical sections of an industrial establishment which represent the successive stages of production.

In an Order issued on the first anniversary of the "Stakhanov" movement, the General Trade Union Council, however, pointed out that full use had not been made of the possibilities of increased output due to the movement, and that it was developing too slowly in certain industries; stakhanov workers, though their numbers had considerably increased, were not yet a majority of the working class. The Council particularly emphasised that special attention must be paid to the millions of "shock workers", who were the principal reserves for the "Stakhanov" movement, and the problem of socialist competition, which was the indispensable basis for the further progress of the movement.

The International Congress on Administrative Science, which was held in Warsaw from 9 to 16 July 1936, devoted a large part of its proceedings to the question of rationalisation in public administration and to the organisational questions raised by the exercise of authority in Government departments, etc. Particular attention was paid to the humane and social side of the problem.

As was stated in the *Year-Book* for 1935-36¹, the Governing Body of the International Labour Office has set up an Advisory Committee on Scientific Management. This Committee held its first session in April 1936, and adopted a programme providing for study of the following questions: (1) terminology of rationalisation and scientific management; (2) concerted action for the elimination or conservation of surplus undertakings and machinery; (3) the effects of technical progress on unemployment and employment; (4) vocational guidance and particularly the re-adjustment of the unemployed and the raising of the school-leaving age; (5) rationalisation in its relation to monotony and fatigue.

The Advisory Committee on Salaried Employees, meeting in November 1936, also discussed a problem of scientific management which was on the agenda: the use of office machinery and its influence on conditions of work for staff.

Finally, the International Labour Office has collaborated in the study of certain aspects of the effects of mechanisation on modern life, which had been undertaken by the International Institute of Intellectual Co-operation. The Office also continued during 1936 its own series of studies on rationalisation and the development of industrial relations in different undertakings; the enquiry related on this occasion to a large shoe factory in Yugoslavia; the results will be published shortly.

¹ Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1935-36*, p. 427.

Participation of Workers in National Economic Life

NATIONAL ECONOMIC COUNCILS

Except in a few instances, the movement to establish national economic councils or similar bodies and to increase their activity continued during 1936. As in previous years this progress was due in most cases to the need felt by Governments for some machinery by which their attempts to regulate the different fields of economic life might be co-ordinated and rendered mutually consistent.

Austria.— The National Economic Council (*Bundeswirtschaftsrat*) held 29 plenary sittings and 37 meetings of committees during 1936. It gave its opinion regarding 50 Bills on social, economic and financial subjects which the Federal Government had submitted to it. These related in particular to the following: social insurance, minimum price fixing for mechanical embroidery in Vorarlberg, the railways, rents, compulsory labour service, the Guarantee Fund of the National Bank, motor traffic, the establishment of a Chamber of Journalists, aerial protection, co-operative societies, viticulture, collective agreements, domestic service, suppression of usury, aid for small *rentiers*, shop closing, etc.

China. — The National Economic Council continued its work of reorganisation and improvement. The following achievements deserve special mention: improvement in tea production; improvement in the cultivation of cotton and the raising of silkworms; organisation of stock-raising; establishment of agricultural co-operative societies; construction of grain mills; analysis of water and foodstuffs; reforestation work; organisation of the fishing industry; encouragement of the pottery, paper, and colour manufacturing industries; encouragement of the sugar industry; establishment of match factories; organisation of transport; building of roads and of dykes, dams and other works for the prevention of floods. Further, the Council continues to organise investigations of all sorts and to engage in the training of specialists who will be able to direct enquiries and laboratory work.

Czechoslovakia. — As in previous years, the various committees of the National Economic Council and the special Commissions were faced with numerous questions of a social, economic or financial nature, including: affiliation of employed persons to Chambers of Commerce by means of special sections; placing; the social conditions of employees of public services; emigration (certain commercial companies to be authorised to recruit settlers if the economic, social and sanitary conditions of the country of destination are satisfactory); aid for farmers in debt; "frozen" credits; credits for building; remission of taxation for persons carrying out

certain building operations and for export firms; organisation of long-term credits; reorganisation of financial establishments in Slovakia; intensification of the building movement in industry; construction of gasworks; production, extraction and marketing of substitutes for raw materials; and problems of all sorts relating to transport and the tourist industry.

Estonia. — The National Economic Council met four times during the year. After a statement by the Minister of Economic Affairs on the economic position of the country, it discussed and approved the Government Bills concerning the establishment of a State undertaking for the production of sulphate cellulose.

Finland. — A Bill to establish a National Economic Council had been voted by Parliament in February 1935; for constitutional reasons, however, it had to be approved by a two-thirds majority of the Chamber elected in 1936; and on 29 September 1936 the Bill was unanimously rejected.

France. — An Act to reorganise the National Economic Council was issued on 19 March 1936, after which Administrative Regulations dated 23 July 1936 and a number of Decrees more exactly defined the working of the new Council. It is composed of three bodies: the trade sections (20 in number), the General Meeting, and the Permanent Commission. Each of the trade sections is formed by joint representation, and is required to study problems concerning the trade in question and make proposals for their solution. The Act states that the main objects of these proposals shall be: the improvement of apprenticeship; the organisation of production, exchange, and services; fair dealing and morality in competition and commerce; the organisation and remuneration of labour; and the adjustment of disputes relating to the occupation or occupations concerned.

The General Meeting is composed of delegates of the trade sections, national economic organisations, chambers of commerce and of agriculture, and trade chambers, organisations of manual and non-manual workers, and a number of other persons. It may be required by the Government, one of the Houses of Parliament or a parliamentary committee, to examine economic Bills and other drafts of national importance, and to study any economic problem. It is also entitled to perform these functions on its own initiative. Further, the Meeting may give its opinion on draft administrative regulations of national economic concern. Lastly, it appoints the Permanent Commission, which distributes duties among the sections, co-ordinates their work, prepares the sessions of the General Meeting, undertakes urgent enquiries, and decides matters in respect of which the General Meeting has delegated powers to it.

The National Economic Council, thus reorganised, is playing a more and more important part in the new legislation. It has become an advisory body to which Government Bills and draft Decrees on economic matters must be submitted, e.g. concerning

the extension of collective agreements, the regulation of hours or the adjustment of collective disputes. In 1936 the Council also continued its great study of the principal branches of production, and successively investigated the fishing, cinema, and motor-car industries. It also adopted a report on the protection and encouragement to be given by the authorities to the various industries. Lastly, it was instructed by the Ministry of Labour to carry out an investigation into unemployment in the textile industry.

Greece. — The legislation concerning the National Economic Council was amended and supplemented by a Legislative Decree of 13 October 1936. The Council is now required to give its opinion on any question of an economic, financial or social character submitted to it by the Government, to prepare legislation, and to carry out enquiries. The Head of the Government is President of the Council, which is composed of thirty persons chosen from the different occupations and from scientific circles. Apart from the twenty members of the former Council, it includes five new members nominated by that body and five nominated by the Government. The members are divided into five committees: industry; commerce and transport; public economy; currency and credit; and social and labour policy. The secretariat of the Council is similarly divided. The new Council is to meet at least once a month; the first meeting was held on 21 February 1937.

Hungary. — A National Industrial Council was established during the year. Its duties are to give its opinion and to prepare draft legislation on questions falling within the competence of the Ministry of Industry, either at the Minister's request or on its own initiative. The Minister of Industry is president of the Council, which comprises a presidential section (the president and vice-president of the Council, and the reporters of the trade sections) and seven trade sections (small-scale industry, manufacture, public contracts, labour, power, mining and metals, building). The number of members of each section is limited to twenty. Members of the Council are appointed for three years, some on nomination by the representative organisations concerned, others in virtue of their personal qualities or competence.

Italy. — The Central Corporative Committee, which now performs the functions of the old National Council of Corporations¹, held two sessions in 1936. It approved numerous reports from corporations, and dealt with a great variety of legislative questions, including the following: wage adjustment; extension of family allowances; collective agreements in the building, metal, and engineering industries; extension of tuberculosis insurance to share-farmers; amendment of rules of trade associations and assistance

¹ Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1935-36*, p. 432.

institutions; organisations of health services and staffs of hospitals; the assistance and welfare funds of the National Fascist Union of the Fine Arts, and general problems relating to the assistance of persons belonging to the liberal professions; the establishment of technical corporative committees for building, aeronautical engineering, shipbuilding, private insurance, and home-grown textile fibres; the price of electric power; use of electric power in agriculture and housework; price of water for irrigation; production, transmission, distribution and use of electric power; contractual relations between the State and private undertakings operating public services (railways, tramways, inland navigation, and road transport) under concession; the establishment of a technical corporative committee to examine the position of the hotel and tourist industry; the working of the traveller's cheque system; the work of guides; regulation of travel agencies; and problems relating to curative establishments.

Japan. — The Government Political Council was abolished on 10 April 1936, and its duties transferred to the Cabinet Investigation Office. During 1936 the Office devoted special attention to plans for parliamentary reform, nationalisation of the electrical industry, and fiscal reforms.

Latvia. — The National Economic Council, for which provision was made in the Act of 30 December 1935 has not yet been established. It will consist of representatives of the Chamber of Agriculture, the Chamber of Industry and Commerce, the Chamber of Trades and Labour, and the Chamber of Culture.

Luxemburg. — The National Economic Council examined the following questions: the economic situation arising out of the changes introduced in the currency systems of the members of the Economic Union; a memorandum from the Federation of Christian Trade Unions concerning the establishment of new industries; economic relations with France; the effects on economic conditions in Luxemburg of the monetary changes which had occurred in different European countries.

Netherlands. — A Bill which has been prepared by a special committee and submitted to the States-General provides for an amendment to the Constitution making it possible to establish official occupational and economic bodies. The composition and competence of such bodies would be determined by subsequent legislation.

Rumania. — A new Superior Economic Council was established by Act of 28 April 1936. It is composed of 26 members—5 delegates of the Federation of Chambers of Agriculture, 4 manufacturers and 4 merchants delegated by the Federation of Chambers of Commerce and Industry, 3 delegates of the Federation of Chambers

of Labour, and 10 members appointed by the Council of Ministers (one delegate of the Banking Council, one delegate of the Federation of Agricultural and Viticultural Unions, one delegate of the General Federation of Rumanian Manufacturers, one delegate of the Board of the Central Social Insurance Fund, one delegate of the Board of the Central Co-operative Fund, and representatives of the Departments of State). Members of the Council are appointed for periods of five years. Apart from the ordinary members, temporary members may be appointed, and to this effect the Council may call on any person who is in a position, by reason of his qualifications, competence or experience, to aid in the performance of the work entrusted to it. The Council is divided into three sections, for agriculture, commerce and industry, and labour respectively. Each comprises the delegates of the corresponding Union of Chambers, the other members being allotted according to their personal competence. The Council also has a secretariat, with a special section for scientific investigation, research and preparation.

The Council gives its opinion on Bills of an economic, financial and social character. As a permanent body for research and investigation, it is also instructed, at the request of the Government or on its own initiative, to propose such action as it considers advisable in connection with foreign trade, improvement of the value of agricultural products, industrial relations, and any other economic, financial or social problem.

Spain. — The Minister of the Interior and Commerce submitted to the Cortes the final draft of a Bill for the establishment of an Economic Council as an advisory body. The duty of the Council will be to inform the Cortes on problems relating to the national economic system, to prepare draft regulations for submission to the Cortes, to propose to the Government any measure likely to further the revival and rationalisation of the national economy, to draw up an inventory of the national wealth, to aid in the preparation of commercial treaties according to the Government's instructions, and to do any necessary research work. The Council will comprise the following: a plenary meeting, an executive, a research committee, and a number of permanent sections. Each section will be responsible for an important branch of production, and will have an information committee attached to it, composed of representatives of labour and capital who will be appointed on the lines laid down in the Decree which sets up the Council.

In Catalonia a Decree of the President of the Generality and the Minister of Economic Affairs established an Economic Council. This will link up the different trade unions and undertakings, and regulate economic life in Catalonia; it will comprise representatives of all the workers' organisations.

Switzerland. — The Department of Public Economy established a committee of experts, which held its first meeting in November 1936. The head of the Department presides over the committee,

which includes representatives of industry, commerce, agriculture, and labour, as well as other persons specially competent in matters of economic policy. The committee has been instructed to study problems of future economic legislation and to give its opinion on the measures required to end the depression and strengthen the national economic system.

United States. — Several committees and councils have been established in recent years, some—like the National Emergency Council and the National Resources Committee—with very wide powers, and others required to organise some special economic field—industry, agriculture, finance, commerce, transport, etc.

Workers' organisations are not as a rule represented on these bodies. As regards industry, however, a first experiment in workers' representation was made under the National Industrial Recovery Act in the shape of the Labour Advisory Board, the code authorities, etc.; but the decision of the Supreme Court invalidating the Act automatically resulted in the abolition of the authorities in question.

More recently, the President created the office of Co-ordinator for Industrial Co-operation, by Executive Order dated 26 September 1935; the duties of the Co-ordinator were set forth as follows: "to supervise, subject to the direction of the President, conferences of representatives of industry, labour, and consumers for consideration of the best means of accelerating industrial recovery, eliminating unemployment, and maintaining business and labour standards."

To facilitate these conferences, the Co-ordinator established the Council for Industrial Progress and invited to its membership voluntary representatives of investment, management, and labour in industry and of consumer organisations.

More than 650,000 employing units are now represented on the management side of the Council, while the labour group represents the entire organised labour movement, including the American Federation of Labor. The Council has set up a number of committees, each of which is composed of an equal number of management and labour representatives. It held three meetings in 1936—the organisation meeting of 6 January and two others on 12 March and 11 December. At these meetings the Council examined the reports of its committees, and adopted a number of recommendations, which were submitted by the Co-ordinator to the President, in the form of drafts for legislation, on 17 January 1937. Among other important subjects, these recommendations concern on the one hand the establishment of a maximum for hours of work, with a minimum wage for each of the several industries and trades, and the abolition of child labour; and on the other, the establishment of a national economic advisory council which, among other things, would make a study of "national income, the sources from which it springs, the channels through which it flows, the uses to which it is put", and a study of hours, wages, and conditions of employment.

U.S.S.R. — Reference has already been made in the *Year-Book*¹ to the reorganisation of the State Planning Commission (Gosplan) in 1935. The duties of the Commission were changed again in several respects during the past year. The Government decided that "Gosplan is required to prepare guiding lines and to draft conclusions concerning the plan for each branch of industry; the plans will be prepared and submitted direct to the Government by the Commissariats themselves". This new method is calculated, above all, to increase the responsibility of the planning service at each Commissariat, to enable more importance to be attached to the quality of output in the preparation of plans, and to make it easier for the staff of the Commission to undertake a thorough study of the complex problems raised by a plan for the whole of the national economic system.

CO-OPERATION

The co-operative movement not only held its ground and strengthened its position during the worst days of the economic depression, but even succeeded, by untiring adjustment and organisation, in achieving some degree of expansion and self-improvement, despite obstacles and difficulties of every sort; now it is apparently benefiting from the recovery under way in many parts of the world.

The results achieved in certain countries, thanks to co-operative cohesion and loyalty, have been most significant, and the light they throw on the part which the co-operative movement may play as a factor in economic and social recovery has aroused further efforts elsewhere.

Although, when this issue of the *Year-Book* was prepared, the total trade figures of the co-operative wholesale societies and the central organisations of agricultural co-operatives were not available for 1936, those of the preceding year show a remarkable increase both in value and in volume.

Between 1934 and 1935 the total trade figures of most of the wholesale societies rose as high as those registered in the pre-depression period, and in the case of the Bulgarian, Finnish (S.O.K.), Netherlands, Norwegian, Swedish and Swiss societies, even higher. The increase was 1 per cent. for the Polish wholesale society, 3.4 per cent. for the Czechoslovak (V.P.D.), 5.3 per cent. for the Swiss, 5.5 per cent. for the Scottish, 5.8 per cent. for the Austrian, 7.5 per cent. for the Swedish, 8.9 per cent. for the English, 9.6 per cent. for the Danish, 12.4 per cent. for that of the Netherlands, 13 per cent. for the Hungarian, and 14 per cent. for the Norwegian; the Finnish co-operative wholesale societies (S.O.K. and O.T.K.) registered increases in total trade of 11.9 and 13.3 per cent. respectively; perhaps the most remarkable increases were those of the

¹ Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1935-36*, p. 434.

wholesale societies of Estonia (23 per cent.), Saskatchewan (Canada) (29.5 per cent.), and Bulgaria (38.9 per cent.); and even behind the fall in value shown in the total trade figures of the French wholesale society (5.7 per cent.) there is an increase in quantities handled.

This forward movement is confirmed by such figures as are already available concerning the work of the movement in 1936. Thus, as compared with the previous financial year, the Netherlands co-operative wholesale society increased its total trade in 1936 by 2.2 per cent., the Danish by 5 per cent., the Swiss by 6.4 per cent., the Swedish by 8.5 per cent., the English by 9.6 per cent., one of the Finnish societies (S.O.K.) by 10 per cent., the Scottish by 10.4 per cent., the other Finnish society (O.T.K.) by 12.2 per cent., the Norwegian by 12.4 per cent., and the Lithuanian by 14.9 per cent. In the U.S.S.R. the annual plan for 1936, which provided for a total trade of 19,650 million roubles, was completed by 15 November; and during this same year the distributive co-operative societies distributed goods to a value of over 23,300 million roubles to the rural population—an increase of 50.9 per cent. over the preceding year.

Similarly, in Yugoslavia the total trade of the rural consumer's co-operative wholesale society was 17 per cent. higher in 1935 than in 1934.

Co-operative production is also rising steadily—for instance in France, Sweden and Switzerland; in Great Britain it has reached nearly 2 per cent. of national output in the whole of industry.

In many countries—Finland, Germany, Greece, Palestine, Switzerland, Turkey, and Yugoslavia, for instance—the records of the rural co-operative credit societies show considerable progress over activity in preceding years, as regards both the loans allowed and the number and size of deposits.

In almost every country, the agricultural co-operative societies have also shared in the forward movement of the distributive societies.

In Czechoslovakia the aggregate trade of all the co-operative marketing societies rose by over 12 per cent. In the Netherlands, the total trade of the agricultural co-operative societies' supply society rose by 3 per cent. in value and over $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. in volume. In Switzerland the increase registered by one of the purchase and sales offices (V.O.L.G.) was over 8.3 per cent.

In the United States, where there were 10,700 farm co-operatives (buying and selling) in 1935, the dairy co-operatives accounted for nearly 36 per cent. of the national output of butter; the central organisations handled 18 per cent. of the total grain crop; the co-operative organisations for the sale of cattle made nearly 22 per cent. of total sales; and the fruit marketing organisations handled proportions ranging from 50 to 95 per cent. of the total crop of certain types of fruit.

Further, except in a few countries such as Germany, the increase in co-operative loyalty referred to above and the more intensive

organisation and recruiting led in the past year to an increase both in the number of societies and in their total membership; this movement is confirmed by information from Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, Denmark, England, Finland, France, India, Italy, the Netherlands, Norway, Palestine, Poland, Scotland, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkey and Yugoslavia.

In connection with the recent general progress of the co-operative movement, special mention should be made of the United States.

No doubt the movement is not a new one in that country. As is stated above, farm co-operative organisations have long been playing a leading part in the national economy of the United States. Credit unions, too, have grown remarkably, above all in the last ten years; there were hardly more than 400 of these unions in 1925-1926, whereas in 1936 there were nearly 3,000, with a total membership of 600,000; in 1935-1936, 2,589 credit unions had a share capital of nearly 35 million dollars, apart from guarantee and reserve funds, totalling 3 million dollars, and their loans to members during the same year amounted to over 24 million dollars. The consumers' co-operatives, among which those distributing motor spirit, motor tyres, fodder and other necessities to farms and agricultural families are among the most important, also expanded rapidly during the depression years, and now number 6,500, with a total membership of nearly 2 million persons; their aggregate turnover is 365 million dollars a year.

Nevertheless the fact that there is a vast field of action for co-operative organisations of various sorts, and for relations between them, in the systematic re-construction now in progress in the United States has not failed to attract the attention and arouse the interest of the masses; and during 1936 there was a veritable wave of public opinion in favour of co-operation. In this connection the appeal to the President made by the National Religion and Labour Foundation in the name of 22 of the chief religious denominations of the country, the support given to the co-operative movement by organised labour, and the holding of debates on co-operation in most of the universities and colleges, are particularly significant and bear witness to a great increase in general interest.

Lastly, reference should be made to the official mission sent to Europe by the President of the United States with the object of studying the principal instances of co-operation and the methods most suitable to the movement; this mission, led by Mr. Jacob Baker, undertook a wide tour of investigation in the summer of 1936 in Scandinavia, Great Britain, France, Switzerland and a number of central European countries, and was in touch with the International Labour Office.

Furthermore, the reconstruction campaign undertaken in Canada (Nova Scotia) under the auspices of the St. Francis Xavier University and the recovery programme of the Government Committee in Newfoundland aim largely at a co-operative organisation of economic forces. In Mexico, too, co-operation has attracted atten-

tion, and the Senate has decided to send a Committee of three of its members to make a tour of inspection of the co-operative movement in Europe.

In South America, among events which typify and confirm the growing importance of the co-operative movement there were the establishment of a co-operative research and propaganda centre in the Brazilian State of São Paulo; the decision of the Third Argentine Congress on co-operation to encourage the establishment of a national co-operative federation which would found co-operative schools, promote direct relations between distributive and agricultural co-operative societies, and set up model farms and a co-operative bank; the increase in the number of consumers' co-operative organisations in Chile; and the support given in the form of Government credits to co-operative organisations in Columbia.

In the Federated Malay States, reference should be made to attempts to solve local problems by concerted action, i.e., by the establishment of "general purposes" societies with bye-laws sufficiently elastic to meet different conditions in different localities.

Parallel with the resumption and rapid increase of co-operative activity, legislation and regulation has been going on in many countries, sometimes giving a legal status to co-operative organisations of various sorts, and sometimes adapting their status to changed circumstances or new developments. To give a few examples only, reference may be made to the Austrian Act of 24 November 1936, which renders compulsory the auditing of accounts of co-operative societies by an Audit Union; the French Act of 26 August 1936 (the Chanal Act), which gives a legal status to mixed unions of agricultural and distributive co-operative societies; the Act of 25 July 1936, which reorganised the Native farmers' welfare, relief and mutual loan societies of the French Sudan; the Bombay Act, assented to on 7 May 1936, which gives a legal status to the new societies for the protection of the harvest; and the Act passed in Prince Edward Island (Canada) concerning credit union societies.

Lastly, it should be noted, as has been done in previous issues of the *Year-Book*, that co-operative organisations, and particularly agricultural co-operative organisations, still occupy a place of growing importance in national schemes for economic recovery and reorganisation. The part played by the grain co-operatives in France in the reconstruction and protection of the grain market, and their aid in working machinery set up under the Act of 15 August 1936 which established the national Inter-occupational Grain Office; the continued dominating influence of the co-operative organisations in the Czechoslovak Grain Society, which has a monopoly of purchase on the home market and import and export trade in wheat, rye, barley, oats, maize, bran, crushed grain, and washed and dried beet strips; and the participation of co-operative undertakings in a number of mixed bodies set up in Latvia to govern the export of butter, meat and grain—these are typical instances of the

useful collaboration of co-operative forces in the general work of economic organisation.

In the international field, the salient events of the year were the two sessions of the International Committee for Inter-co-operative Relations (set up jointly by the International Co-operative Alliance and the International Commission of Agriculture). During these meetings, the Committee took the opportunity of examining and completing its enquiry on the measures adopted by co-operative organisations to improve, define, check and guarantee the quality of the products which they put on the market or distribute. This enquiry constitutes a contribution by the International Committee to the general study of co-operative problems undertaken by the official international institution.¹

¹ INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE: *The Co-operative Movement and Better Nutrition. Standard Definitions of Foodstuffs. Education of Producers and Consumers.* Geneva, 1937.

CHAPTER VIII

SPECIAL PROBLEMS OF CERTAIN CATEGORIES OF WORKERS

Salaried Employees

The changes that have been taking place in the number of non-manual workers were already referred to in the last edition of the *Year-Book*. They were also dealt with in a comparative study published by the Office in the *International Labour Review* in August 1936—a study which is of exceptional importance because it was entirely novel. Tables were drawn up for 21 countries and were accompanied by notes concerning the sources, scope, and method of compiling the statistics. A series of international tables shows the variations in the number of salaried employees in various branches of the economic system. The following general conclusions can be drawn from that study.

In modern industrial countries non-manual workers constitute generally between 20 and 30 per cent. of all gainfully employed. The proportion is higher in more industrialised than in industrially less advanced countries.

The proportion of non-manual workers to wage-earners has increased very considerably since before the war; this development still continues, but at a somewhat reduced rate since 1920.

The proportion of non-manual workers is relatively low in agriculture and similar occupations; it increases in a very marked fashion in manufactures; the highest proportions are found in commerce and, to a less degree, in transport.

The proportion of women among non-manual workers has increased very much since before the war; in some countries, however, the proportion has decreased since 1920 and in other cases the rate of increase has slowed down since that time.

The reasons for these changes are well known: the course of industrial development, the growth of retail trade, the development of various systems of selling and the increase in the volume of private industrial, banking, credit and insurance undertakings, etc. In view of this situation it is obviously necessary to supervise more strictly the training of young persons for commercial occupations so as to guarantee them stability in their employment.

During 1936 the fundamental problem for commercial and office employees was still that of *remuneration*.

It is true that the extensive drop in wages and salaries which occurred during the slump has now generally stopped and that in a large number of countries there is a tendency to readjust wages. During the year measures to stabilise or raise the remuneration of salaried employees were taken in such countries as *France, Germany, Great Britain, Italy*, and the *United States*. In some countries, however, progress in restoring the successive cuts made from 1930 onwards is very slow. The indications contained in the reports of various occupational organisations bring this out very clearly, and show the extent of the efforts that are still required to secure a readjustment of the remuneration of non-manual workers. In this connection special mention may be made of the measures advocated in *Hungary* and *Switzerland*, where it is proposed to set up wage boards to supervise conditions of remuneration and prevent the material situation of salaried employees from becoming worse.

The problem of unemployment and the possibility of finding fresh employment has naturally been one of the main preoccupations of Governments and of trade unions. In some cases the system of direct relief of the unemployed by certain occupational organisations of salaried employees has given very valuable results. To quote only one example, the Federation of Salaried Employees' Trade Unions in *Czechoslovakia*, which has 65,000 members, paid more than 24 million Kč., including Government subsidies, by way of unemployment allowances to salaried employees who were out of work during 1935.

The reports published by salaried employees' organisations show how difficult it has been for them to take steps to increase the openings for employment for their members. In spite of the very real difficulties, the organisations have sometimes been able to achieve positive, if not very extensive, results. In several countries, including *Austria, Czechoslovakia, Germany, Great Britain, Hungary, Sweden*, and *Switzerland*, the public authorities, with the help of the occupational organisations, have been able to provide opportunities for employment for a certain number of skilled and specialised employees and technical workers. In many of those countries also the public authorities have endeavoured to lead back into manual employment some of the unemployed young persons who had entered commercial occupations accidentally and without due preparation.

This raises a very important point which deserves the most careful consideration, that of blind-alley employment. A study made in 1936 by two important occupational organisations in *Great Britain* clearly shows that in some occupations mechanisation has to all intents and purposes done away with the system of apprenticeship, and young persons are merely required to mind machines. The enquiry also led to the conclusion that in commercial establishments, which employ more young persons than any other

branch of activity, these young persons were often doomed to unemployment as soon as they reached the age of 18 or 20. That is why steps have been taken in some countries to remove young persons from blind-alley occupations and guide them—in spite of the difficulties which may be met with at the outset—into occupations as peasants or craftsmen.

A study of the conditions of employment of salaried employees during 1936 shows that very definite progress was made in regulating the relationships between employers and employees by collective agreements. The promulgation of the Collective Agreements Act in *France* on 24 June 1936 was an event which will have an important influence on the conditions of employment and remuneration of salaried employees in that country. In *Italy* new collective agreements were drawn up between the important confederations for commerce. Similarly, in *Czechoslovakia*, *Great Britain*, the *Netherlands*, the *Scandinavian* countries and *Switzerland*, steady progress was made in regulating the relationships between employers and employees by means of collective agreements.

The legislation passed with regard to the conditions of employment of salaried employees would appear to have been more extensive in 1936 than in 1935¹. The most important Acts dealt with hours of work, shop closing, annual holidays with pay, the development of provident systems and social insurance, conditions for the termination of contracts of employment (notice of and compensation for dismissal), and the protection of young persons. This protection takes a variety of forms, ranging from vocational training and the supervision of apprenticeship to the application of legal measures concerning the hours of work of young persons, or sometimes even a tightening up of the regulations concerning rest periods and holidays, the organisation of spare time, and the prohibition of certain tasks.

Appreciable progress was made in regulating the conditions of employment of industrial and commercial travellers, representatives, and local salesmen. In practically every country the demands of the organisations of these workers took more definite form and led to the conclusion of collective agreements or the preparation of standard forms of contracts to give effect to the demands. In *Belgium*, *Czechoslovakia*, *France*, *Germany*, and *Switzerland* Bills were submitted to Parliament, and there is reason to hope that they will soon be promulgated.

* * *

The reports published by salaried employees' organisations concerning their activities indicate in practically every case a very

¹ Cf. above under the appropriate heads: "Hours of Work", "Social Insurance", "Vocational Training", "The Individual Contract of Service", etc., where the main legislative and other provisions concerning salaried employees are analysed.

marked increase in membership. Generally speaking the documents published by these organisations show that their services have extended very considerably (in the matter of social protection and mutual aid, unemployment insurance, legal assistance, vocational training, placing, and the improvement of working conditions). But it is the importance of the Congresses held in 1936 in a number of countries, and more especially in *Belgium, Czechoslovakia, France, Great Britain, Hungary, Italy, and Switzerland*, that brings out most clearly the revival in the trade union movement among salaried employees. The necessity for studying important new social problems such as the protection of salaried employees whose occupational activity threatens to come to an end when they reach a certain age, or the very important question of providing young salaried employees with occupations in which they can count on a certain degree of stability of employment, gave rise to research, leading in many cases to official action.

With regard to economic problems, the organisations carefully followed the developments in different branches of the economic system, which always exercise a great influence on the occupational and social conditions of the workers. In many cases the collaboration of the salaried employees' organisations helped to bring about a solution of important problems, such as that of the measures that might be taken to stimulate a revival in international trade. Several Governments showed a desire for the collaboration of these organisations in the search for a solution for economic problems. This was made clear by official statements in such countries as *Czechoslovakia, France and Switzerland*. Reference may also be made to the contribution made by the two Fascist Confederations of Salaried Employees towards the study of price control and banking reform in *Italy*. In the extra-European States, and more especially in the countries of *Latin America*, the trade unions of salaried employees also played a large part in the solution of economic problems.

The international organisations of salaried employees continued to assist their affiliated national organisations in drawing up uniform programmes of demands.

The International Federation of Commercial, Clerical and Technical Employees continued to collect information concerning the salaried employees' movement in general. As it is in direct touch with the national organisations of employees, it is able to publish regular information on the trend of the movement and the position of salaried employees not only in European countries but also in the United States.

The International Federation of Independent Trade Union Organisations of Salaried Employees is still engaged in giving effect to the programme adopted at its last Congress in Brussels in June 1935. This programme included among other things the study of various aspects of unemployment among salaried employees and the means of dealing with it. The observations made on that occasion as to the absolute necessity for preventing young persons

from entering blind-alley employment in commerce were confirmed this year by the enquiry carried out by the British salaried employees' organisations.

The Inter-Scandinavian Union of Associations of Travellers and Representatives held a meeting at Malmö on 28 March 1936, at which it decided to make a direct appeal to the Danish, Norwegian, and Swedish Governments to revise the conditions of employment of commercial travellers, and instructed its executive to draw up a standard form of contract of employment for the commercial travellers of the Scandinavian countries belonging to the Association.

A few weeks later, on 15 May 1936, the International Federation of Christian Salaried Employees' Unions held its Congress at Karlovy-Vary in Czechoslovakia. The main problems on the agenda, such as the present and future activities of the Christian salaried employees' unions, the question of holidays with pay, the protection of young and elderly employees, and the professional situation of industrial and commercial travellers and representatives, were all carefully examined. Resolutions were adopted on all these points, and the resolution concerning the protection of young and elderly employees is reproduced below:

The Congress notes that the working and living conditions of many employees of all ages and grades are to-day threatened by the disorder of social and economic life. It considers, therefore, that to improve the position both of young and of elderly salaried employees certain general reforms should be undertaken and rapidly completed, among which may be noted the following:

- (a) Control of access to the profession of salaried employee by means of vocational guidance and examinations with a view to reducing the number of young employees and eliminating those who lack the necessary gifts or training;
- (b) Measures to encourage vocational training of salaried employees;
- (c) Regulation by collective agreements of wages and other conditions of work in order to prevent their degradation;
- (d) Prohibition of plural employment where carried to excess;
- (e) Reduction of hours of work, strict enforcement of the legislation relating to this question and restriction of overtime, care being taken, however, that exemptions in respect of positions of management or trust are limited to the absolute minimum.

As regards young salaried employees in particular, the Congress is in favour of the following:

- (a) Raising of the school-leaving age;
- (b) Measures to improve the position of young workers corresponding to those suggested in the Recommendation adopted by the International Labour Conference in 1935, including the utilisation of employment centres to the extent to which this is compatible with the profession of salaried employee; and wherever necessary, measures to facilitate and organise the emigration of young salaried employees so as to enable them to earn a living in the new countries.

As regards elderly employees in particular, the Congress is in favour of the following measures:

- (a) The period of dismissal notices should be longer for elderly employees than for employees in general;

- (b) The right to dismiss salaried employees having a certain number of years' service in the same undertaking should be restricted;
- (c) Employers when taking on staff should be bound to take on a certain proportion of elderly employees in return for certain privileges in the matter of taxation, etc.;
- (d) The qualifying age for the grant of the old-age pension should be lowered as far as possible;
- (e) In granting unemployment relief special account should be taken of the difficult position of elderly salaried employees, most of whom have no longer any hope of again finding work. Unemployed elderly salaried employees should be granted pensions at an earlier date than that to which they are entitled.

The International League of Commercial Travellers' Associations held a Congress in Vienna from 9 to 13 September 1936 in connection with the fiftieth anniversary of the foundation of the Austrian Association of Commercial Travellers. After laying down a certain number of guiding principles for the future conduct of the economic and corporative policy of the Commercial Travellers' Associations, the Congress put forward recommendations on certain technical questions such as the introduction of customs visa books for samples, the unification of tariff reductions on sample cases, and the relationship between commercial travellers and the hotel industry.

The Association of Salaried Employees' Unions of Central Europe (*Arbeitsgemeinschaft der freien Angestelltengewerkschaften Mitteleuropas*) continued to publish during 1936 its bulletin and its special studies on the conditions of work of salaried employees. In collaboration with the Czechoslovak Federation of Salaried Employees' Unions, it organised an enquiry into the position of commercial employees in general, sending out a very detailed questionnaire and inviting various Governments to collaborate. But it is mainly in the economic sphere that the work of this Association is of special interest. Its programme for the economic organisation of the Danubian countries emphasises the need for developing the exchanges between those countries. The Association considers that it is not sufficient to ensure a mechanically stable trade balance from country to country; what is required is to promote the general prosperity of the Danubian economic group and an increase in the volume of exchanges within the group. In its studies the Association emphasised the fact that the Swiss occupational organisations could not remain indifferent to the problem of Central Europe because their country could not fail to benefit from any improvement in the commercial relations with the Danubian States.

It will be seen from the above that the international organisations of salaried employees maintained and appreciably extended their principal activities during 1936. They also remained in constant touch with the International Labour Office.

* * *

With regard to the activities of the International Labour Organisation, it may be mentioned first of all that the International

Labour Conference at its Twentieth Session in June 1936 adopted a Draft Convention concerning holidays with pay and a Draft Convention concerning the reduction of hours of work in public works. These texts apply equally to manual and to non-manual workers.

A certain number of the Recommendations and resolutions adopted by the Conference also apply to salaried employees.

The Advisory Committee on Salaried Employees held its Fourth Session at the Office on 18 and 19 November 1936. It had on its agenda the following questions:

(1) The termination of contracts of employment with special reference to salaried employees and technical staff (periods of notice and compensation for dismissal);

(2) Statistical survey of non-manual workers in various countries;

(3) The use of office machinery and its influence on conditions of work for staff;

(4) The regulation of health conditions in shops and offices.

The resolutions adopted by the Committee are reproduced below.

Notice of Termination of Contracts

"Whereas the practice of giving notice of the termination of a contract of employment at all times affords both employers and employees a very substantial safeguard against the effects of sudden breach;

"Whereas this practice may do much, particularly in a period of economic depression, to assist in reducing unemployment by making individual and collective dismissals subject to a certain number of conditions;

"The Advisory Committee on Salaried Employees, after considering the regulations in force in certain countries,

"Expresses the wish that in countries where formal rules are not yet in existence they should be introduced by legislation or collective agreements, with a view to securing all desirable safeguards in regard to, among other things, the form of notice, the date from which it starts and the period of notice, exceptions, the conditions under which compensation is granted, and the protection of the right to notice in the event of the transfer, closing down or bankruptcy of the undertaking or in the event of death.

"In order to facilitate the framing of these national regulations, the Committee requests the International Labour Office to collect all the material necessary and to keep it at the disposal of the persons concerned.

"It also asks the Office to follow closely the development of the question, with a view to determining, as soon as possible, what principles may serve as a basis for international regulations.

"Such regulations should provide:

- (a) a minimum period of notice of one month to be given by the employer, which should be increased in accordance with the importance of the work performed or the remuneration therefor;
- (b) the notice to be given by the employee should always be less than that to be given by the employer;
- (c) the notice should be in writing;
- (d) if the employment is terminated by the employer, the employee should receive a leaving grant based on the importance of the work performed and on length of service."

Statistics of Non-Manual Workers

"The Advisory Committee on Salaried Employees has taken note with great interest of the statistical survey of non-manual workers made by the International Labour Office. As this is the first international comparative survey that has been published on this subject, it is of special importance to organisations of employees.

"The Committee notes the general tendencies indicated by this survey to the effect that the proportion of non-manual workers to manual workers has increased considerably since before the war and forms in some modern industrial countries from 20 per cent. to 30 per cent. of the employed population, and also that the proportion is higher in more industrialised countries than in those industrially less advanced. The proportion of females amongst non-manual workers has also considerably risen since before the war, although in certain countries this tendency has been reversed in recent years.

"The Committee regards these facts as confirmation of the growing importance of the category of non-manual workers and considers that they should be taken into account in all social and economic measures which may in any way affect them.

"The Committee recommends that the International Labour Office should continue its studies of non-manual workers and should take steps to develop the statistics in collaboration with interested organisations and the national statistical authorities. It is in its view desirable that statistics should be compiled on uniform lines in different countries by the adoption of common definitions and schemes of classifications, particularly as regards sex, age, and occupational category, and that in future greater attention should be paid in social statistics of family budgets, cost of living, fluctuations in employment, and remuneration, to the particular problems of non-manual workers."

The Use of Office Machinery and its Influence on Conditions of Work for Staff

"The Advisory Committee on Salaried Employees,

"Having taken note of the documentary material submitted to it by the International Labour Office, finds that the development of mechanisation in offices has involved very appreciable changes in the conditions of employment of office employees.

"While considering that technical progress should be encouraged, the Committee is of opinion that steps should be taken to improve the standing of office employees and to protect them against some of the effects of mechanisation. To this end it suggests the following measures in particular: selection of office employees with a view to employing them on work for which they are naturally fitted; study of the best methods of performing the work; introduction of variety into the duties of employees in charge of machines; application of motive power to the operation of most machines; elimination of noise and vibration; any measures which will tend to prevent overstrain, and above all, the reduction and better arrangement of hours of work.

"The Committee considers that these measures should be applied by means of legal regulations or through the general extension of the system of collective agreements to office employees."

The Regulation of Health Conditions in Shops and Offices

"Whereas in many shops and offices, including warehouses and the premises of forwarding agents, the conditions of work of the staff are still very unsatisfactory from the point of view of health, comfort and safety;

"Whereas it would everywhere be of the greatest interest to take the necessary measures for protecting all employees, whether in private establishments or in public administration, in regard to these matters;

"Whereas, further, such measures would contribute to better output and form an important factor in social progress;

"The Advisory Committee on Salaried Employees thanks the International Labour Office for having drawn attention to the methods that should be used

for bringing about the necessary improvements in existing working premises and for securing satisfactory working conditions in new buildings.

"The Committee is further of opinion that all necessary measures should be proposed for protecting staff employed in stalls outside shops, and in kiosks and similar places of sale.

"Pending the possibility of considering the adoption of international regulations, the Committee expresses the wish that the widest possible publicity should be given to the "standards" of labour hygiene set out in the two reports submitted to the Committee at this its fourth (1936) session as soon as they have received the final approval of the competent bodies of the International Labour Office.

"Finally, the Committee urges that all necessary steps should be taken in the various countries to ensure that the protective regulations are properly enforced and accordingly that the inspectorate staffs for this purpose are adequate in strength and quality."

* * *

The Governing Body considered these resolutions at its session on 5 February 1937 and instructed the Office to consider later whether the question of the period of notice was sufficiently ripe to be placed on the Agenda of an International Labour Conference. In the meantime the Office will keep at the disposal of all who are interested the information which it has already collected on this point and which it will endeavour to keep up to date.

With regard to the other questions the Governing Body approved the Committee's conclusions.

* * *

In connection with the study of the problems affecting the staffs of public administrations and services, the Office continued the procedure of consultation adopted in recent years, which has enabled it to establish and maintain very valuable contacts with those directly concerned. Several persons belonging to important organisations of public officials met in the Office on 10 and 11 February 1936. After considering with the Office services concerned the reports prepared by the Office on the various items on its agenda, the meeting adopted for transmission to the Director of the International Labour Office the following resolutions:

The Regulation of Multiple Employment

The Advisory Meeting of Public Servants has noted with great interest the information collected by the International Labour Office on the question of multiple employment and remuneration in the public services of certain countries. It considers that the first step should be to distinguish between the various forms of multiple employment, each of which gives rise to special problems.

Having examined the new regulations introduced during the past few years in some of the countries suffering most severely from unemployment, the Advisory Meeting notes that the question of multiple employment has given rise everywhere to problems that are difficult of solution and are described in certain cases in the official memoranda.

The Advisory Meeting considers that intervention may be called for in certain cases in order to put an end to abuses which may arise, but recommends

that even greater caution should be observed in respect of the regulation of multiple employment carried on by public servants in intermediate and lower grades whose major employment is not sufficiently remunerative to meet their family expenses.

In any case, it considers that any measures that may be taken can do little to reduce unemployment.

The Meeting requests the International Labour Office to keep up to date the information it has collected, which may profitably be used both by the organisations of public servants and by the authorities responsible for the administration of public services.

The Conditions of Employment of Public Servants

Having examined the report prepared by the International Labour Office on the regulation of the conditions of employment of the staffs of public administrative departments and services, the Advisory Meeting of Public Servants places on record that 1935 was a year marked by two opposing tendencies: the first in the direction of a complete or partial restoration of cuts in salaries and wages and a return to normal conditions of appointment, promotion, and rises of pay; the second in the direction of further restrictions, such as cuts in pay, abolition of posts, slower promotion, and smaller retiring pensions.

Whereas the fresh sacrifices imposed on public servants in certain countries have had no favourable effects on the general situation, but have rather helped to aggravate depression by reducing the purchasing and consuming power of a large body of workers, the Advisory Meeting of Public Servants requests the International Labour Office to promote, by whatever means it considers most expedient, any measures within its competence that are likely to assist a general economic revival, thereby giving an opportunity for consideration of the very difficult situation of public servants in a certain number of countries.

The efforts of the organisations of public servants in certain countries to solve the problem of the involuntary indebtedness of public servants incurred owing to low wages deserve sympathetic support by the adoption of a higher wage policy, particularly in regard to the lower-paid grades.

Status of Women in Public Administrations

The Advisory Meeting of Public Servants, having taken note of a report prepared by the International Labour Office on the status of women in public administrations and dealing with the following points: admission of women to the service, promotion to the higher posts, equal or unequal pay of both sexes, continuation of employment after marriage or compulsory retirement, residence of married women officials, maternity leave and other conditions for women officials who are mothers, pensionable age;

Urges:

That women shall enjoy the same rights as men with regard to admission to the service, promotion to the higher posts and remuneration for all posts according to the principle of "equal pay for equal work", affirmed in Article 41 of the Constitution of the International Labour Organisation;

That administrative rules shall tend to facilitate the transfer of a married woman official to a post in or near the locality in which her husband resides, or *vice versa*, if the husband is himself in the public service;

That maternity leave of three months on full pay—six weeks before and six weeks after confinement—in accordance with the standards set by the International Labour Convention of 1919 applying to women occupied in industry and commerce, shall be granted to all women officials, and that they shall be entitled to interrupt their work for such periods as may be necessary to enable them to nurse their children;

That, upon request, women officials who are mothers shall be granted special unpaid leave for an extended period, to facilitate the performance of their domestic duties, with a prior right to subsequent reinstatement in their posts;

That married women officials or mothers shall be entitled, if they so desire, to retire before they have reached the pensionable age without losing the pension rights acquired in accordance with their length of service.

Hours of Work in the Postal, Telephone and Telegraph Services

The Advisory Meeting of Public Servants, having examined the study prepared by the International Labour Office on hours of work in the postal, telegraph and telephone services, which describes the various problems to which the regulation of the hours of work and rest periods of the staff of these services give rise and the solutions adopted in most European countries, and taking into account the data contained in that study,

Recommends that, subject to the adjustments required by circumstances and by the special needs of particular services the rules governing hours of work and the spells of duty and rest of the staff of postal, telegraph and telephone services in all countries should be internationally standardised on the basis of a 40-hour week, inclusive of rest and meal reliefs;

And requests the International Labour Office to study the means by which this standardisation may best be carried out.

Professional Workers

The problem of unemployment remained, for professional workers, in the forefront of attention during 1936. There is as a rule a time-lag between unemployment among manual workers on the one hand and non-manual—or at least salaried professional—workers on the other. But the latter phenomenon, though it starts later, would appear to last rather longer; for heads of undertakings prefer not to run the risk of increasing their technical staff before they are certain of a permanent business revival.

When the professional workers' organisations and the authorities set themselves to combat unemployment, they at once found that the complete lack of data—often even of approximate information—on the state of the labour market was a serious obstacle in their path; and the efficacy of the various remedies contemplated (restrictions on recruiting, retraining of the unemployed, placing, relief works, etc.) seemed likely to be much diminished as a result. Therefore, while setting the most urgent of these measures on foot, the authorities in many countries opened enquiries and established national research institutions whose duty it should be to throw as much light as possible on the employment position and to guide future policy regarding the reorganisation of the professions.

In *Austria*, the most recent enquiries have shown that 1,500 "recruits" are required annually to keep the total of 50,000 employed graduates up to strength, but that from 3,000 to 3,500 young men and women leave the universities and colleges annually; the balance (about 2,000) remain unemployed.

In *Belgium*, the Governing Body of the University Foundation realised, after a first investigation, how necessary it was to obtain reliable data concerning the labour market; and in October 1936

it established an Office of University Statistics. After six months' existence this institution published most valuable statistics on recruiting for the professions and on the employment position. These figures showed the considerable increase in the number of graduates since 1913 and the uneven manner in which members of the professions are distributed over the different parts of the country—two phenomena which may be found in many other parts of the world.

In *China*, according to a Ministry of Education enquiry carried out in 1936, 13 per cent. of the persons who graduated in 1933 and 1934 were then completely unemployed; and this percentage did not cover those who were engaged in other types of occupation unconnected with their training.

In *France*, the University Statistics Office compiles statistics on the employment situation in the various professions, and the resulting information is of great value in the placing of graduates. As a result, early in 1937, the University of Paris was able to open a service of information on the liberal professions, to which persons of secondary school as well as of university standard have access free of charge.

In *Germany*, the National Institute for Employment Exchanges and Unemployment Insurance, with aid from the Ministry of Education, has undertaken a thorough investigation of the employment situation in the professions. According to a first estimate, the aggregate number of graduates in the country is about 350,000, while some 10,000 are required annually to fill vacancies.

In *Hungary*, in accordance with a Government decision, the Central Statistical Office has undertaken a wide investigation concerning unemployment in the professions. The first results show that in November 1936 there were 2,980 university graduates without employment. Among secondary and technical school teachers the number of unemployed was 1,250, or about 30 per cent. of this whole group; and there were also 6,350 primary school teachers unemployed.

In the *Netherlands*, the special committee set up in 1933 in connection with the General Statistical Office published a report in 1936; this showed that there were some 25,000 members of the professions in the country, and that by 1939 a total of 4,700 new graduates would be required to meet the demand (vacancies and additional openings). It is computed that 7,700 persons will have graduated from the universities and colleges by 1939; if the 1,400 graduates now unemployed are added to this number, a total is obtained of 9,100 persons—90 per cent. more than the estimated demand.

In *Rumania*, the Central Statistical Institute was instructed in the middle of 1936 to make a special census of unemployed professional workers. The investigation is not to be limited to graduates, but will cover all persons who may be regarded as potential professional workers.

In *Sweden*, following the work of the official committee on the professions, the Government has decided to establish a special university statistics service, and Parliament has voted the necessary expenditure.

The object of the research measures mentioned above is to enable the struggle against unemployment to be continued on a sounder basis. No doubt, as the I.L.O. Advisory Committee on Professional Workers pointed out in 1935, unemployment in the professions is but an aspect of the general depression, and any action against the latter—a rational hours of work scheme, or economic reorganisation—is of the greatest importance for professional workers. But there are other measures in which the professions are more directly concerned. These have changed little in recent years, but it would appear that less importance is now attached to restricting entrance into the professions by “weeding-out” candidates at the university stage. In some countries and in some professions, however, such action is still believed to be of value; and in *Italy* the National Medical Union demanded, at its 1936 congress, that the number of doctors be reduced to one for every 1,500 of the population.

The struggle against overcrowding in the professions is carried on by another method also—the protection of professional titles, intended to prevent the influx of amateurs. Of two Bills introduced in the *Belgian* Parliament in May 1937, one provides for the establishment of an association of the medical professions, which would be required to supervise these professions and to take disciplinary action, while the other protects the title and profession of architect, the exercise of which would be made dependent on the fulfilment of certain conditions. In many countries, expert accountants are also calling for the recognition and protection of their titles, either by means of self-imposed regulation (as is the practice in Great Britain) or by legislation governing admission to the profession and its exercise. A recent measure in this field is the *German* Act of 7 July 1936, which establishes an official body of industrial and commercial auditors with a monopoly of certain work. As a rule professional workers are in favour of rational organisation of their occupations, but only on condition that access to them is governed by strictly professional standards, that any person showing himself to be properly qualified may enter the profession, and that the method of acquiring such qualifications is not too strictly determined.

The problem of placing also claims the attention of professional workers. For many years the principal methods of finding employment for this group of workers were personal acquaintance and influence, and the rudimentary information services of a few schools and associations. In the *United States*, a recent enquiry shows that out of a group of engineers, 68 per cent. had obtained their posts by means of personal relations. This method, which sufficed in times of prosperity, turned out far from satisfactory during the depression; more systematic action was required, and the placing of

professional workers was organised in several countries on an official basis with the collaboration of the organisations concerned. In many cases such placing is accompanied by the retraining of the unemployed, who can then be placed in occupations less overcrowded than those for which they had originally been prepared. Thus in *China* vocational training courses were organised under the auspices of the National Placing Office for Professional and Technical Workers in October 1936. These courses, which about a thousand graduates can attend, are followed by periods of probation in public or private undertakings; participants receive monthly allowances for the duration of these additional studies, and employment is then found for them by the State. In *Egypt*, a Placing Office for Graduates was set up in July 1936 by the Ministries of Finance, Education and Commerce, and Industry; the office also provides final technical training in the form of probationary periods of employment, travel, study, etc. In *Hungary*, the Government is now organising a central vocational guidance and placing office for young non-manual workers. In *India*, the Governments of the Punjab and the United Provinces decided early in 1937 to establish central placing services for graduates, which will co-ordinate the work of the regional offices and link these up with educational establishments. Reference has been made in previous issues of the *Year-Book* to the work of the *Polish* Retraining Institute for Non-manual Workers; the research carried out by this body regarding employment and unemployment, and the retraining courses which it holds, enable it to find fresh productive work for numerous unemployed non-manual workers, who frequently exercise their new profession in groups on a co-operative basis.

But it is realised in many countries that placing, even when seconded by retraining, is not sufficient in a time of depression, when the available posts are far less numerous than the number of unemployed; and that to create fresh openings, either temporarily (by relief work) or permanently, is essential.

Of the steps taken to create fresh opening by making existing employment available for newcomers, reference should be made to superannuation, prohibition of plural employment and reduction of hours of work. In *Australia*, the Government of New South Wales expects to provide work for about 500 young persons by reducing the retiring age for civil servants to 60 years. In *Hungary*, the Minister of Education has been requested to prepare in 1937 a plan providing for the abolition of plural employment and the regulation of weekly hours, which—combined with various other measures—is expected to provide employment for several thousand young non-manual workers.

The most widespread form of action, however, has been in the field of relief work and the deliberate creation of employment. A large number of professional workers have been provided in this way with temporary posts or even, when the relief scheme in question is on a large scale, with permanent occupation.

In *Bulgaria*, the establishment of the "rural medical officer"—

posts which recently qualified doctors must occupy for two years—tends to evoke needs in the field of health in the country districts, leading to a permanent expansion in the number of openings for the medical profession. In *China* the National Placing Office has organised a plan under which it will act as intermediary between capitalists and unemployed professional workers with a view to enabling the latter to establish industrial undertakings; moreover, the expansion of the school system and of continuation classes which is planned for 1937 will provide employment for over 50,000 teachers. In *France*, the Professional Workers' Mutual Aid Society—founded in 1933 by the Confederation of Professional Workers—continues to organise relief work; the sale of surcharged postage stamps enabled them to employ a number of unemployed professional workers at cataloguing work from the end of 1936 onwards. In *Germany*, the National Institute for Employment Exchanges, etc., has put 1½ million marks at the disposal of the Engineers Service to enable it to provide unemployed technicians with work in the course of which they can complete their vocational training. In *Great Britain*, a London teachers' association with 16,000 members referred to the tragic position of many members of their profession, and called for the raising of the school leaving age and a reduction in the size of classes. In *Hungary*, following an appeal from the Prime Minister, private employment was found for some 500 unemployed graduates at the beginning of 1937; provision is made for additional posts in public administration and in the schools; the official committee on unemployment among graduates has prepared over 70 projects, most of which concern the provision of professional workers for the country districts and an improvement in urban health. In *Switzerland*, under a Decree of December 1936, the Federal authorities grant subsidies, which may amount to 50 per cent. of the total cost, to administrations desirous of organising relief works to provide occupation for unemployed technicians (preparation of plans for future works, surveying, etc.).

In the *United States*, extensive relief projects for professional and technical workers have formed part of the national recovery programme. A report published in 1936 gives valuable information on the subject. It was found that 30 per cent. of salaried workers in mining, manufacture, construction and transport were unemployed between 1929 and 1932; and that 560,000 white collar and service workers were on the relief rolls in March 1935. This figure included 82,000 professional and technical workers, of whom 20,000 were teachers and 15,000 musicians. The aid provided at the outset by private organisations and State and local agencies soon began to break down. The Federal Government then intervened on a large scale, and relief work was methodically provided for professional workers in all fields. In a period of only 3½ months (16 March-30 June 1937) 16,000 service projects were selected for operation, and over 117 million dollars set aside for the purpose. Every branch of professional work has received its share of relief under the federal work programme, which was framed in view

of the public benefit and the long term profit to society of the different projects. In 1936, over 300 orchestras were in existence, many of them itinerant and bringing music to the distant country districts; concerts were given in community recreation centres, public parks, hospitals and schools; music teaching and music appreciation classes were also set up under this project, and since the project started the number of enrolments has increased from 29,000 to 244,000 in New York City alone. In the fine arts, numbers of mural paintings in public buildings have been assigned, and daily classes held for children and adults; 50,000 persons attended such classes in 300 centres in New York City, and over 5,250 artists were given employment in March 1936. At the same date, the Federal Theatre Project had established 48 performing groups, employing 12,500 theatre workers; this project, like the others, has not only the purpose of providing employment for the appropriate workers, but also that of raising the level of public taste and meeting the great demand for instruction. In the field of education a vast programme has also been prepared, involving many continuation classes which gave employment to 58,000 teachers in February 1936; further, part time employment has been provided to enable young people to go to or remain in college, and approximately 228,000 high school students from needy families were receiving allowances in 1936. The research, statistical and cataloguing programmes also provide work for a large number of unemployed. Health projects have been built up all over the country; at a time when 400 private hospitals were compelled to close their doors, thousands of clinics have been opened, and as a result of these and other services employment has been found for 15,000 members of the medical profession and care provided for the many patients without means, the proportion of whom rose from 15 to 60 per cent. during the depression. Lastly, the recreation and leisure projects, also on a wide scale, have provided employment for 33,000 recreation workers under the federal programme alone.

Professional workers have considered a number of other questions besides that of unemployment. Among the most important is that of the rights which professional workers in salaried employment may claim over their creations. Professional associations have been considering this question for many years, and salaried inventors' rights, journalists' rights, and performers' rights in respect of broadcasting and the reproduction of sounds and images have in turn figured on the agendas of the appropriate meetings. More recently still, attention has been drawn to the position of artists in the applied arts who claim a moral if not a pecuniary right over their creations; this problem was brought before the Advisory Committee on Professional Workers. As regards inventions by employed persons, mention should be made of the *German Act* of 5 May 1936 which came into force on the following 1 October and which grants very extensive rights to such inventors, even in the case of "firm inventions", the result of team rather than of individual work. More and more attention is also being paid by professional

workers to the question of social insurance, and particularly that of pensions, which take on a growing significance as economic difficulties diminish the income of professional workers and also their capacity to save, and as an early retirement from professional activity comes to be considered a remedy for unemployment among young members of the profession.

Mention must be made of a number of important meetings held by the international organisations of professional workers in 1936. The Sixth Biennial Congress of the International Federation of Journalists took place in Berne from 7 to 17 September 1936; 19 associations from 13 countries were represented. Among the questions discussed were the position of correspondents in foreign countries, a court of honour for journalists and the representation of professional workers in the International Labour Organisation.

The Fourteenth Congress of the International Confederation of Professional Workers was held in Geneva on 9 and 10 November 1936. After discussion, the Confederation's conclusions were embodied in resolutions dealing respectively with freedom of association, reduction of hours of work, pensions for non-manual workers, authors' rights, the rights of salaried artists in the applied arts, the raising of the school-leaving age, the professions of accountant and expert accountant and the relations of professional workers with the International Labour Organisation.

The Committee of the International Students Organisations held its eleventh meeting in Geneva under the auspices of the International Organisation for Intellectual Co-operation. It devoted particular attention to unemployment among professional workers, and requested the International Labour Office and the International Institute of Intellectual Co-operation to study the co-ordination, on an international scale, of information concerning the employment situation and the organisation of placing for university men and women.

Lastly, the I.L.O. Advisory Committee on Professional Workers held its Sixth Session in Geneva on 28 and 29 May 1937. There were four questions on the agenda. As regards the first, "Protection of titles and professional organisation for chartered accountants", the Committee considered it desirable that this profession be provided with rules, and recommended that in each country the functions and titles of persons exercising the accountancy professions should be defined and classified, so as to permit regulation of the conditions under which titles relative to the qualified accountancy profession are acquired and used.

On the second question, the "Moral right of professional workers in receipt of a salary over their creations in the sphere of applied arts", the Committee noted the principle proposed by the representatives of the professional workers, and requested that the International Labour Office be instructed to continue its study of the question in close collaboration with the institutions concerned with the protection of intellectual rights.

The third question, "Compensation for professional workers

whose posts are abolished after long service owing to the reorganisation of an undertaking", also gave rise to a resolution; the Committee "having noted the opinion of the representatives of professional workers' organisations, who consider that steps should be taken to ensure a special compensation for professional workers who are dismissed after long service for no fault of their own", requested that the International Labour Office "continue its study of this question, paying special attention to the position of professional workers, in connection with the general problem of the relations between technical progress, employment and unemployment".

Lastly, the Committee had to study the "Application to professional workers of the protective measures laid down in the Conventions adopted by the International Labour Conference"; in this regard it drew the attention of the Governing Body to various amendments which the representatives of the professional workers desired to have made in certain proposed Draft Conventions prepared for the Twenty-third Session of the International Labour Conference (June 1937).

At its Eightieth Session, the Governing Body took note of the record of the Committee's meeting, and decided that the desires of professional workers concerning the amendment of the proposed Draft Conventions should be transmitted to the Conference.

Home Work

The problem of home work, which in the first decade after the war appeared to be well on the way to becoming a problem of the past, is beginning to reassume considerable importance. In recent editions of the *Year-Book* information on this subject may have had to be confined to a few specified countries, but the following account shows the widening circle of countries in which legislative action in this field is being found necessary.

A search for the cause of this phenomenon would entail a detailed enquiry into conditions in different countries and occupations, the economic and social structure of populations, the state of legislation, etc. All that can be done here is therefore to mention briefly some of the explanations which have been put forward during recent years. The economic depression is sometimes said to be the cause, since it led employers to resort to home work to reduce costs of production and the burden of social charges in respect of factory workers; another explanation is that the more general use of motive power, above all of electricity, and the resulting increase in mechanisation, has developed a decentralisation movement in industry. Finally, the fact is often stressed that the growing army of home workers is recruited from the ranks of the unemployed or among people with small earnings who try to supplement their income in this way.

The social position of home workers and its influence on conditions of work in general have been the subject of many discussions. In several countries where home work is already regulated, there are complaints that the laws are insufficiently enforced. In other countries where the legislation only contains a partial regulation of this problem, there has been a movement in favour of strengthening the provisions which have not developed equally with general labour legislation. Finally, in countries where no special legislation exists, an effective regulation of home work is demanded.

Apart from the questions of women's and children's work and the health problems involved in home work—already referred to in previous chapters—the central problem is undoubtedly that of wages. An important point to remember in this connection is that it is necessary not only to fix minimum wages but also to ensure their actual payment. This is the object that legislatures in several countries are trying to achieve. Other questions have also arisen of which no mention will be found in former legislation; such are the limitation of hours of work and the granting of an annual holiday with pay; the latter point was even made the subject of a resolution adopted by the International Labour Conference at its Session of June 1936. But all protective measures would be doomed to failure unless legislatures managed to establish proper supervision over home work, in which the conditions make it difficult for the authorities to interfere either with the employers or with the workers. That is why, as the *Year-Book* for 1935-36 pointed out and as the following notes show, legislators are devoting special attention to this problem.

Argentina. — On 10 November 1936 the Government rescinded the Decree of 30 December 1918 and promulgated new administrative regulations under the Home Work Act of 1918 (No. 10,505). The new regulations are based on a draft prepared by the Department of Labour and are the result of seventeen years' experience in applying the Act.

Under the terms of the Decree, a "home worker" is a worker carrying on operations for an employer in his own dwelling or workshop, either alone or with the aid of members of his family only. A "home manufacturer" is a small contractor, himself taking part in manual work, who produces articles destined in the first place for an employer, and carries on operations in his own dwelling or workshop with the aid of employed persons other than members of his family. These two groups of persons are treated alike under the scheme. On the other hand, an industrialist or trader who, for profit, has manual work performed by one or more home workers or home manufacturers, if he provides the necessary materials and tools, is an "employer". A middleman who contracts for work which he then has performed by home workers is also an employer.

Every employer must keep a register composed of two sections, "Book A" and "Book B"; Book A must contain the names of

the persons he employs at their own homes, and indicate whether they are home workers or home manufacturers, while Book B must specify the work allotted to these persons and the wages paid.

Further, every person working at home must be provided with an employment book, containing his name and address, the number under which he figures in the employer's Book A, the scheme of compensation operating in case of lost or spoilt materials, and the name and address of his guarantor, if any.

No person affected by contagious disease may perform any home work in connection with the ready-made clothing industry, the repairing of articles of clothing, the preparation and packing of consumers' goods, etc., nor may any such work be done in a building which is used by a person suffering from tuberculosis.

It is provided that the national Department of Labour shall establish a wage board in any industry at the request of not less than 50 workers belonging to that industry; this condition will be regarded as fulfilled if the request is made by a workers' organisation having at least 50 members in the industry in question. If, having fixed minimum rates, a board ceases to act, a new board may be set up, with a view to revising these rates, at the request of employers by whom an aggregate of not less than 50 home workers are employed.

Each such board will be presided over by a nominee of the Government and composed of representatives of employers and workers in equal numbers, elected by the most representative organisations on either side. In fixing minimum wages, the boards are required to follow certain instructions included in the regulations: they must take account, among other things, of the character of the work, the price which the article manufactured commands locally, the minimum wages of factory workers, and the cost of living; uniform piece rates must be fixed on the basis of the quantity of work which an adult of normal skill can perform in an 8-hour day, or a 48-hour week, and the earnings which a home worker ought to be able to obtain in view of the factors mentioned above.

Employers are required to post the minimum wage scales. No collective agreement or individual contract may stipulate wage rates lower than those fixed by the boards. The employer is required to pay the minimum wages in full, and no amount may be stopped for fines, supply of food or goods, rent of workplace, use of tools or any other allowance in cash or in kind. In case of spoilt materials, the worker may be required to make good the loss caused to the employer, but the employer may not stop such amount from the wages due to a worker unless the latter has acted deliberately. No fines may be imposed by the employer on the worker. An employer who pays wages lower than the minimum rates, or does not pay wages when they fall due, may be penalised.

If the inspectors responsible for supervision have reason to believe that contraventions have been committed, they may

enter any premises where home work is distributed, performed or remunerated; but places where only members of the same family are employed may not be inspected unless the work is carried on with the aid of steam boilers, or unless the occupation is classified as dangerous or unhealthy.

In order to safeguard the payment of wages, and for other purposes, provision is made for the establishment of mixed supervisory boards, which are empowered to be present when home work is handed over and when the workers receive their pay, and to inspect the employers' registers and the workers' employment books.

Austria. — Home work is regulated by an Act of 19 December 1918. The competent authorities have recently been notified that its provisions are not always observed and that, for example, some employers fail to keep registers of home workers, as prescribed by law, to post wage rates and working conditions, to hand over to workers the statutory employment books or to enter all the necessary data, etc.

The Minister of Labour has consequently instructed the labour inspectors and administrative authorities to pay special attention to the enforcement of the Act and in particular to take vigorous measures against any employer who breaks the law by paying lower wages than the rate fixed for home work by the competent boards. The Minister has also addressed an appeal to the employers' organisations concerned, asking them to exert all their influence on their members to bring about an improvement in the present situation.

Belgium. — By virtue of the Act of 10 February 1934¹ on home work, which is mainly concerned with regulating wages, a Mixed Committee—National Home Work Committee—has the duty of discussing wage questions and fixing minimum wages. In other respects, such as the limitation of hours of work, there is no control over home work, and abuses have been reported. The Minister of Labour decided to enquire whether hours of home work could not be regulated by limiting the amount of work to be done in a specified time, and submitted the question to the members of the National Home Work Committee as the most highly qualified persons for the task. The Committee therefore sat with no special powers of jurisdiction but as a board of enquiry. Its investigations, which were limited to six representative industries, form the subject of a report submitted to the Minister of Labour.

The conclusion of the experts was that a general regulation of the question is practically impossible, for conditions of home work vary too greatly with the region, the industry, and even with the individual. But, in some industries, such as, for example,

¹ Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1933*, pp. 340-341.

basket making and skin cutting, they considered it possible to fix the amount of work that an average worker would be capable of performing in a given time, and since wages are calculated on the time required for performing a specified task, hours could evidently be limited in this way. But even in the case of the industries specially mentioned, it was thought desirable to regulate only standardised work which could be easily inspected. In any case, all legislation should be preceded by an extremely careful study of methods of supervision and a special body of supervisors should be recruited, intimately acquainted with the industries concerned and not drawn from the ordinary labour inspectors.

Canada. — In the Province of Ontario, an amendment of 9 April 1936 to the Factory, Shop and Office Building Act of 1932 contains provisions on home work in the clothing and household goods industries. An authorisation must be obtained by employers before they can have work performed at home and also by home workers before accepting work. This authorisation can be granted to the employer only if he guarantees to observe the provisions of this Act and also of the Minimum Wage Act. The home worker must give assurances concerning his health and the hygienic conditions in which the articles in question are made. An employer may not pay, nor a worker accept, lower wages than the rate fixed by the Wage Board set up for this trade. Finally the employer is required to keep a register showing the names of home workers, the work given out to them and the wages paid. There are provisions for supervision and penalties to ensure the enforcement of the Act.

China. — Although the Act of 23 December 1936 on minimum wages, already mentioned¹, applies generally to all industries in which wages are not fixed by a collective agreement and are exceptionally low, it is particularly important for home workers. Several provisions deal with them exclusively; for example, when workers are employed at home, the employer must keep registers giving the names of home workers employed, the work given out to them, the dates of distribution and completion of work, the manner of payment and the amount, deductions and the reasons for them. The employer must post the wage rates fixed by law in a prominent place in the premises where work is distributed and returned after completion. Factory inspectors must take particular care to see that these provisions are enforced.

Czechoslovakia. — The Act of 1920 on home work is chiefly concerned with the fixing of minimum wages. But the reports of the factory inspectors show that during recent years the application of this Act has encountered numerous obstacles, chiefly owing to the difficult position of home workers, who were obliged

¹ Cf. above, Chapter VII, under "Collective Agreements".

to find work at any cost as a result of the economic depression. It is true that in certain branches, in particular the making of clothing and underwear, there has been a revival of activity; nevertheless in the ready-made clothing industry home work is threatened with extinction by the big rationalised and mechanised clothing factories. In consequence the Government prescribed, by a Decree of 4 December 1936, that no one may open a clothing factory, replace home work by the manufacture of clothing in factories by mechanical means, or install new machinery in factories where clothing is already made by mechanical means without having previously obtained a special authorisation. This authorisation is granted by the Minister of Industry and Commerce acting in agreement with the Minister for Social Welfare and taking into account the conditions of production and sale and the employment situation in the clothing industry.

Germany. — The *I.L.O. Year-Book* for 1935-36¹ described the legislative measures for the protection of home workers. The chief task during 1936 was the application of this legislation to the various industries. Among the measures taken for this purpose the most important are certainly the collective regulations fixing minimum wages and conditions of work, which are issued by the Labour Trustees under the National Labour Regulation Act. The report of the Minister of Labour for 1936 states that more than 400 regulations have been promulgated in favour of home workers since the Act came into force, that is to say, since 1 May 1934. This figure should be compared with the number of persons engaged in home work, which at a census held on 15 September 1936 stood at 394,847 as against 333,093 on 15 February 1936.

Among the collective regulations there are some which stipulate an annual holiday with pay for home workers. For example, in the textile industry, which occupies the greatest number of home workers, collective regulations of 5 February 1937 conferred on these workers the right to a holiday, which they must be allowed to take between 1 May and 30 September of each year. The days fixed for the holiday must be entered in the wage book which every home worker must possess. Home workers also draw 2 per cent. of their net pay earned in the period included between 1 May of the previous year and 30 April of the current year, provided they have received in the same period at least 100 RM. in pay. The worker gets this compensation even if he finally abandons his work before 1 May, but he loses his right to a holiday if during the holiday period he accepts paid employment and thus destroys the object of the holiday as a time of recreation.

Further a Decree of 18 June 1936 regulated hygienic conditions in the tinned fruit and vegetable industries. Besides containing general provisions on hygiene, the Decree also stipulates that

¹ Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1935-36*, p. 460.

children of less than fourteen years of age may not be employed at all on certain tasks.

Great Britain. — The Public Health Act of 31 July 1936 empowers the local authorities to forbid home work to be distributed to persons housed or working in premises where a case of infectious disease has occurred which requires notification under the terms of the Act. The kinds of home work to which the Act applies are those connected with the making, repairing, cleaning, etc., of clothing, and any other occupations to which the Minister of Health may choose to extend it by order.

Netherlands. — By an Order of 6 May 1936 the date on which the Home Work Act of 1934¹ is to come into force has been fixed for 1 November 1936.

Switzerland. — In virtue of the full powers conferred by the Act of 14 October 1933 for the defence of the economic system, the Federal Council issued an Order on 9 October 1936 regulating outside work in the watch-making industry. This measure, which came into force on 1 November 1936 and remains valid until 31 December 1937, was taken in accordance with the wish of the trade organisations of the employers and workers concerned, who complained that during recent years more and more use had been made of outside work over which there was no supervision. In introducing inspection and limitation of home work in the watch-making industry the legislators have not confined themselves to regulating home work strictly speaking, but have also provided special rules for small workshops and family establishments.

Home work is considered to be work performed for pay by a person working alone and exclusively in his home. It is made subject to regulations which affect employers as well as workers. Employers must enter their names in a register kept by the canton where the home worker lives. Home work is limited both as regards quantity and quality. Only the operations mentioned in the Act can be carried out at home; all others are excluded. The Act states to what extent these operations can be entrusted to home workers in proportion to the work done in the factory or workshop. Thus if the Act gives a rate of 100 per cent. the work can be done entirely at home, but if the rate is only 25 per cent. then there must be three times as many factory workers as home workers.

Home workers may not be assisted in their work by other persons, but every worker may engage and train one apprentice. Children under fourteen years of age and children over that age who are required to attend school daily may not be employed on home work.

Hours of work are regulated by a limitation of the amount of work given out to home workers. It may not exceed the average

¹ Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1933*, pp. 342-343.

amount which a worker employed in a workshop or factory can finish in one week in the hours fixed in the establishment. If the workshop or factory is working short time the amount of work given to the home worker must be similarly reduced. A worker who does work for several employers may not accept more work in one week than he would for one employer. In order to see that this is so, the worker is required to inform the competent authority when he is working for several employers and to keep a record of work coming in and going out.

The pay must be at the same rate as for corresponding work in a factory.

Every worker must receive a card which shows the name of the employer and the worker, serial number, date of distribution and completion of the work, type and quantity of the work, wage rates and the price of the materials supplied. Wages must be paid every fortnight; the worker receives a schedule stating the pay-days, wage period, total earnings and deductions. Finally the employer must keep a list of workers, which, together with all the other information, must be available for inspection by the supervisory authorities.

For *small workshops and family establishments*, there are provisions on the protection of workers as in the Factory Act. They deal *inter alia* with hygiene, and the work of women, young people and children. Premises which are lived in must not be used as workshops. Weekly hours of work may not exceed an average of 48 in any period of two consecutive weeks. Overtime may only be worked within certain limits, and must be paid for at time and a quarter. Night work and Sunday work is prohibited. Wages must be paid at least once a fortnight. Deductions from wages can only be made for bad work or for damage to materials. In the latter case the deduction may not exceed the cost price and may never be more than the wage for the last six days.

For women and young people under eighteen years of age, the nightly rest must extend over eleven consecutive hours at least. Women may not be required to work during six weeks following confinement, and this period may be increased to eight weeks at their personal request. No children under fourteen or children over fourteen who are required to attend school daily may be employed.

The application of the Act is to be ensured by supervisory measures such as the keeping of registers of workers, the drawing up of pay lists and schedules of wages.

United States. — The last two issues of the *Year-Book*¹ drew attention to the movement for regulating home work and making legislation uniform throughout the Union. In accordance with the recommendations made by the second National Labour Conference

¹ Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1934-35*, pp. 440-442; and *I.L.O. Year-Book 1935-36*, pp. 461-463.

of 1935, the Secretary for Labour at Washington set up a committee to draft a Bill which might be used as a model by States wishing to reform their legislation or to introduce new legislation on home work. In 1936 the Bill was submitted to the Congress of the International Association of Labour Officials and to the third National Labour Conference, and at both these sessions resolutions were adopted recommending States to pass the Bill.

The Bill aims at strictly regulating home work with a view to its gradual suppression. Certain types of work are to be prohibited at once; i.e. the manufacture of foodstuffs and similar articles, wearing apparel for children of ten years and under, toys and dolls, tobacco, drugs and poisons, sanitary articles, explosives and similar articles, and finally all articles the processing of which requires exposure to substances dangerous to the health or safety of the persons handling them.

Moreover, the competent authority may prohibit home work in cases where wages and conditions of work are harmful to the welfare of the workers or might affect the wages and working conditions of other workers in the same branch.

Home work must also be kept under strict supervision. Each employer and each representative contractor within the State will be required to obtain an employers' permit on payment of a fee of 200 dollars, and an annual renewal fee ranging between 50 and 200 dollars according to the number of home workers employed. Similarly every contractor must be in possession of an authorisation and each home worker must have a certificate. Persons under a certain age or suffering from an infectious disease or living in unhealthy conditions cannot obtain this certificate.

Employers and representative contractors must keep records of persons working at home. It is their duty to see that the work is done by persons in possession of a legal certificate, living in the place where they work, that the hours of work prescribed for factories are observed and that the workplace is in a good hygienic condition.

Further, employers must have all goods produced by home workers marked with the worker's name and address. Finally, a special quarterly tax of 2.50 dollars is levied on employers for each home worker employed during the preceding quarter. The object of this tax is, firstly, to deprive employers resorting to home work of the advantages they enjoy over other employers who have to pay fiscal dues, and, secondly, to supply the resources necessary for the application of the law without laying a burden on the whole community.

Agricultural Workers

THE ECONOMIC SITUATION OF AGRICULTURE

The general situation of agriculture during 1936 indicates a continuation of the improvement observable during the two preceding years. World prices for the principal crop products

(wheat, sugar, cotton, and rubber) have shown an upward tendency since 1933, which was especially evident during the past year, as will be seen from the table below ¹:

Pro-ducts	Money unit per measure of weight	1933		1934		1935		1936	
		Mini-mum	Maxi-mum	Mini-mum	Maxi-mum	Mini-mum	Maxi-mum	Mini-mum	Maxi-mum
Wheat	Cents per bushel	44 ¹ / ₂	115 ⁵ / ₈	75 ¹ / ₂	114 ¹ / ₂	91	125 ³ / ₄	92 ³ / ₈	144
Sugar	Cents per lb.	2.65	3.65	2.82	3.60	2.72	3.66	3.15	3.90
Cotton	Cents per lb.	5.76	11.63	10.29	13.87	10.55	12.91	11.09	12.96
Coffee	Cents per bushel	7	8 ¹ / ₂	8 ³ / ₈	11 ¹ / ₄	6 ¹ / ₄	9 ³ / ₈	6 ¹ / ₄	8 ⁷ / ₈
Rubber	Pence per litre	2	4 ¹¹ / ₁₆	4 ¹ / ₃₂	7 ¹ / ₂	5 ³ / ₁₆	6 ¹¹ / ₁₆	6 ¹ / ₂	11 ¹ / ₈

The prices of animal products (beef, pork, butter, cheese and eggs) also increased during 1936, but the table below, giving the yearly averages in gold francs from 1933 to 1936, shows that the

Products, markets and qualities	1933	1934	1935	1936
	Gold francs, per 100 Kg.			
<i>Beef:</i>				
Berlin, home-produced, live weight	78.55	83.54	100.97	103.82
Paris, „ „ net weight	112.78	104.22	97.03	112.77
London, „ „ net weight	111.23	101.57	92.84	93.83
<i>Pork:</i>				
Copenhagen, home-produced, live weight	93.20	107.97	108.89	124.83
Rotterdam, „ „ „ „	71.07	68.74	80.46	73.50
Berlin, „ „ „ „	98.52	107.88	119.29	124.83
Paris, „ „ „ „	131.04	85.77	75.97	103.95
London, „ „ net weight	131.79	129.54	116.84	111.30
<i>Butter:</i>				
Copenhagen	131.90	111.34	129.70	140.86
Leeuwarden	125.37	92.48	101.80	112.47
Hamburg	277.77	314.83	321.38	321.35
<i>Cheese:</i>				
Milan, Parmesan, reggiano	264.15	190.75	163.90	172.60
Kempton, Emmenthal (German)	178.52	174.39	189.68	197.76
London, Cheddar (English)	145.90	127.81	115.33	119.56
<i>Eggs:</i>				
Gold francs, per 100				
Dutch, Roermond	7.69	8.21	6.45	6.24
Warsaw	4.98	4.30	4.21	4.02
Berlin	12.83	12.67	13.06	13.30

¹ *Moniteur des intérêts matériels*, Brussels.

prices of animal products recovered later than those of crop products. While the latter have tended to rise since 1934, the prices of animal products have continued to decline—and in certain countries this was even the case in 1935—and in most cases they did not begin to rise again until 1936.

The improvement in the prices of certain products, especially cereals, must be attributed in the first place to a reduction in world production, caused either by the measures adopted by various countries for the restriction of production, or by unfavourable weather conditions over large agricultural areas. Since 1933, the world production of wheat has been rather small, as shown by the following figures:

Year	Wheat Production	
	Total ¹	U.S.S.R.
	(in million quintals)	
Average for 1923-1927	920	184
1933	1,000	277
1934	918	304
1935	934	308
1936 (provisional)	909	—

¹ Excluding U.S.S.R., China, Manchukuo, Turkey, Iran and Iraq.

Production in the U.S.S.R. in 1936 apparently did not differ much from that in 1935, and under these circumstances the 1936 production alone will not be sufficient to meet the needs of consumption. The world wheat stocks already drawn upon in previous years will probably undergo a further reduction. The visible world stocks of wheat, at the beginning of January of each year, have been estimated by the expert, Broomhall, to have been as follows:

	Million bushels
1932	608.9
1933	592.7
1934	532.9
1935	504.9
1936	484.0
1937	312.5

These figures explain why, practically everywhere, measures taken to restrict the production of wheat have now been abandoned, while certain countries are attempting to increase their production; they account also for the abrupt and considerable increase in prices after the harvest of 1936.

But most products the prices of which have risen in recent years, and especially in 1936, have not undergone a reduction in production. On the contrary, the production of cotton, which was 22.4 million bales in 1934-35, rose to 25.5 million bales in 1935-36, and for the

season 1936-37 the latest forecasts indicate a production of about 30 million bales. The production of sugar reached the figure of 24.4 million quintals in 1933-34, 24.6 million quintals in 1934-35, and 25.5 million quintals in 1935-36. For the current season a further increase is expected. According to the expert Licht, since 1932-33 the annual production has fallen below the needs of consumption, and in consequence available stocks have declined from year to year. The production of rubber, since the application of international measures for its regulation, has proved to be so insufficient to meet the demand that it has been necessary to increase gradually the export co-efficient of the producing countries. Total rubber exports rose in 1936 to 867 thousand tons, against 829 thousand tons in 1935.

As regards animal production, it is difficult to establish total world figures, but the information available is sufficient to show the trend of production. Until 1934-35 the production of meat, milk and wool exceeded the demand, and breeders in certain countries, partly on their own initiative and partly through State intervention, reduced the numbers of their cows, pigs and sheep. During the period 1934-35, the revival of the market created more favourable conditions for animal production. Consequently, the breeding of cattle (especially milch cows), pigs, and sheep increased, especially in large-scale producing countries such as Australia, Denmark, the Netherlands, New Zealand, etc. The production of meat, according to the statistics of animals slaughtered, also showed an increase. From the available information concerning poultry breeding, it is impossible to discover any single uniform trend. It is increasing in some places and decreasing in others, and has been affected partly by disease and partly by the unorganised condition of the egg market. The production of milk increased during 1936 in practically all countries. Although the drought caused a decline in certain countries, for example in the United States and Australia, directly rain fell again the production of milk immediately revived. According to the Imperial Economic Committee, the world production of wool, which declined from 3,863 million lbs. to 3,681 million lbs. in 1932-33, and to 2,368 million lbs. in 1934-35, rose again in 1935-36, owing to a very active demand, when production reached 3,740 million lbs., and it is still increasing.

In conclusion it may be said that the production of the majority of agricultural commodities increased during 1935-36. The reason for the improvement in agricultural prices is therefore not to be found in a restricted supply, but in increased consumption. During the last few years the standard of living has visibly improved, and purchasing power has increased. The consumption of foodstuffs has augmented, and this again has led to an increase in the demand for these products and caused prices to rise.

Information available proves that the consumption of meat, which according to the International Institute of Agriculture had already increased during the period 1925-1934, has again risen in several

countries, for example in Belgium, Canada, France, Germany, and Great Britain. The consumption of milk and milk products is also increasing, especially in Canada, France, Great Britain, and Sweden. The world consumption of sugar rose from a total of 24.5 million quintals in 1933-34 to 25.8 million quintals in 1934-35, and 26.7 million quintals in 1935-36.

The increase in the demand for cotton, wool, and rubber confirms the revival in the activity of the world market. It is obvious that the demand for these products is not entirely due to the satisfaction of the immediate needs of consumers; it also aims at the reconstitution of depleted stocks. The world consumption of cotton was, in 1931-32, 23 million bales. It rose in the following years, and amounted in 1933-34 and 1934-35 to 25.5 million bales. For the first six months of the year 1935-36, consumption of cotton reached the figure of 12.5 million bales, as against 11.8 million bales for the corresponding period of the previous year. According to the Imperial Economic Committee, the consumption of wool had diminished until 1935-36. From an average of 3,850 million lbs. in 1930-33, it declined to 3,680 million lbs. in 1934-35, and to 3,668 million lbs. in 1935-36. But already in 1935 the demand for wool on the world market brought about an increase in exports from 1,657 million lbs. in 1934 to 2,091 million lbs. in 1935. The world consumption of rubber fell from 805 thousand tons in 1929 to less than 700 thousand tons in 1931-32, since when it has increased steadily; in 1936 it exceeded one million tons, and existing stocks were exhausted.

Increased consumption is therefore undoubtedly one of the causes of the increase in production and prices. At this point, however, the question arises whether the larger income of agriculture is not counterbalanced by an increase in the costs of production. At present this does not seem to be the case. There has been an increase in income and an increase in expenses, but the latter seems generally to have been smaller than the former. This statement may be deduced from an examination of the data published by the International Institute of Agriculture, showing the movement of prices of agricultural products and the corresponding movement of wholesale prices of goods in general ¹.

These two movements show that in most countries increases in the prices of agricultural products have been greater than increases in prices in general. This suggests that agriculture has enjoyed a margin of profit resulting in a somewhat higher purchasing power and a general improvement in its economic situation. Farm book-keeping results, or farm account estimates, for some of the few

¹ In each number of the *International Review of Agriculture*, the International Institute of Agriculture publishes, in the statistical section, the monthly average prices of agricultural products and of those products which the farmer has to buy. It also publishes index figures of the prices of agricultural products and of certain goods purchased by farmers. The countries covered are Argentina, Canada, England and Wales, Finland, Germany, Hungary, Italy, Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, Poland, United States and Yugoslavia.

countries in which such surveys are carried out, confirm this impression, in spite of the lack of uniformity of methods employed. In *Denmark* farm accounting results show earnings on invested farm capital to be 4.6 per cent. in 1935-36, against 4.0 per cent. in 1934-35. In *Germany* the agricultural income in 1935-36 was 8,800 million RM., or 500 million RM. more than a year earlier and 2,400 million RM. more than three years earlier. In *Norway* the interest earned on invested capital was 3.8 per cent. in 1935-36 and 3.2 per cent. in the preceding year. In the *United States* the gross income from farming in the year 1936 will probably turn out to be 9,200 million dollars as against 8,500 million in 1935 and 5,300 million in 1932.

On the other hand, in *Switzerland* gross income in the year 1936 is estimated at only 1,164 million francs, or 22 million less than in 1935, the fall being mostly due to the unfavourable wheat harvest. Further, in certain countries where agricultural conditions improved at an earlier date than was generally the case, the results of the current year seem to indicate that at best no further improvement has taken place.

In conclusion it may therefore be stated that the economic situation of agriculture is just tolerably acceptable; further, farmers are still to a great extent dependent on the support afforded by planned economy in agriculture.

The number of cases where the actual price situation and the inadequacy of the harvest have brought about the abolition of price control and restriction of production appear insignificant in comparison with the general tendency to maintain and even develop systems of aid for agriculture, the scope of which go far beyond the measures for agricultural protection adopted in pre-war and early post-war days.

Perhaps signs of adaptation to the actual situation on the agricultural world market are most frequently observed in the field of international agreements, though here too the policy of restriction is continued. The International Wheat Agreement of 1933 came to an end on 31 July 1936 and has so far not been replaced by any new arrangement, for which also no immediate need is felt. The Chadbourne Sugar Plan of 1931 has proved more and more inadequate, because sugar production has developed in countries, such as Great Britain, India, and the United States, not adhering to the scheme. A new Conference on the subject was held in London. The International Rubber Committee, in the course of 1936, twice raised the export quotas in view of increasing consumption. The Latin-American countries examined the possibility of introducing some rationalisation in the coffee trade. The International Tea Committee maintained the export quotas at the same level, although towards the end of 1936 a somewhat higher quota was demanded. Last year, for the first time, a quota system for timber exports, agreed upon by Austria, Czechoslovakia, Finland, Poland, Rumania, Sweden, U.S.S.R., and Yugoslavia, was in force, after the ground had been prepared by earlier less formal arrangements.

Obviously it was not to be expected that an improvement in the agricultural situation would bring about any fundamental changes in countries whose agrarian policy is based on other than purely economic principles; in such countries agricultural planning pursues its course steadily towards still greater completeness. In *Germany* the campaign against waste and the four-year plan give agricultural policy greater predominance as an integral part of national economic policy, to which narrower trade interests must be subordinated. Restrictions were placed on farming to prevent it, in the interest of the whole community, from drawing the fullest economic advantage from its highly developed organisation; the prospect of such restrictions had in fact been announced by the Minister of Agriculture when the Corporation of Agriculture was set up in the autumn of 1933. In *Italy*, the various corporations created for agricultural commodities increased their activity; in *Portugal* steps were taken to secure fuller agricultural self-sufficiency; in the *U.S.S.R.* the system of collective farms now embraces 90 per cent. of all farmers.

More significant as an indication of the actual trend of world agricultural policy is the attitude adopted in most other countries, namely, that planning, or organised agricultural production, cannot be abolished for some time, the end of which nobody ventures to foretell; at the same time, the accumulated effects of this policy are such as to make its abandonment increasingly difficult and to place planned economy in agriculture on a still firmer basis.

New institutions have been set up to co-ordinate and rationalise the exportation of agricultural products, e.g., the Grain and Elevator Board in *Argentina*; the Monopoly for the Cattle Trade in *Czechoslovakia*, where at the same time the Cereals Monopoly was extended; the Butter Exportation Monopoly in *Latvia*; the monopoly for agricultural exports in *Yugoslavia*, etc. New restrictions may be noted on viticulture in *Brazil*; still stricter limitations on the production of coffee in *Brazil*; reduction of the wheat area in *Czechoslovakia*, which until recently was a wheat importing country; a new system of control of the trade in rice in *Japan*, etc.

Examples may also be cited showing that, outside the States directly aiming at self-sufficiency with regard to agricultural production, there are other countries which consider planning as a permanent measure of assistance to agriculture. In *Australia* the marketing schemes in force were invalidated in July 1936 by an interpretation of the Privy Council of the Constitution, according to which neither the States nor the Commonwealth are competent to control marketing. The difficulties to which this ruling gave rise have not yet been solved; a referendum taken in February 1937 in order to amend the Constitution failed. In *France* a National Wheat Office, set up by an Act of 1936, is empowered to regulate foreign trade in wheat and to fix wheat prices with reference to the cost of living, wages, prices of goods used in agricultural production, and the total financial burden borne by such production. In *New Zealand* the Primary Products Marketing

Act, passed in May 1936, which to begin with applies to dairy products only, authorises the Government to take over all such products, whether intended for export or home consumption, at prices to be fixed from time to time with reference to the public interest in maintaining the stability of the dairy industry and the general standard of living of persons engaged in this industry, as compared with the general standard of living throughout New Zealand. The Supreme Court of the *United States*, by declaring the Agricultural Adjustment Act unconstitutional in January 1936, barred the way to any restriction of production by the Federal Government. Under the present soil conservation legislation, crop adjustment became a subsidiary question; but from 1938, when soil conservation will be put on a State basis, crop adjustment may again be dealt with in a more direct way; the need for it may be felt at any date. "Full use of the available acreage normally means surpluses", and the question of crop insurance is now being studied with a view to creating a permanent instrument to level out differences between years with bad and years with abundant harvests, a step "which would provide the farmer with a measure of social security comparable in some ways to unemployment insurance and old-age retirement, from which he is excluded under the Social Security Act"¹.

* * *

The New Zealand Act mentioned above sets itself a much wider aim for planned economy in agriculture than that of saving farmers from bankruptcy. It opens up the possibility of raising, through a reorganisation of the industry, the remuneration of all labour in agriculture, whether wage paid or working on its own account. In New Zealand steps have already been taken to secure for workers on dairy farms minimum wages varying with the prices obtained for dairy produce. New minimum wage legislation has also been introduced, or is in course of preparation, in other countries too, and is usually looked upon as a consequence of the minimum income level secured to farmers through State intervention in the production of and trade in agricultural products.

Recent efforts to improve the conditions of agricultural workers have, however, not been limited merely to wage questions, but have also been extended to other conditions of work, for example, hours and holidays with pay.

Social measures in favour of agricultural labour are not exclusively the outcome of the economic agrarian policy, but also of the necessity felt to improve working conditions in order to retain labour in the countryside. The increased activity of manufacturing industries has renewed competition with agriculture on the employment market and has brought about a general rise in agricultural wage rates. Under present economic conditions agricultural

¹ *Report of the Secretary of Agriculture*, Washington, 1936, pp. 2 and 45.

employers find that the upper limits of increased wages are soon reached, and they argue again that agriculture must be rendered more profitable in order that they may be in a position to pay the higher wages generally considered both desirable and justified.

Social problems in agriculture are at present the subject of widespread and important discussion on a very broad basis, a fact which has led the Governing Body of the International Labour Office to set up a Permanent Agricultural Committee, in accordance with a resolution adopted by the Nineteenth Session of the International Labour Conference. The first session of this Committee will take place early in 1938, and will be devoted chiefly to a general discussion of social problems in agriculture in their relative order of importance.

AGRICULTURAL ORGANISATION, LAND SETTLEMENT, AND EMPLOYMENT SITUATION

Australia. — In certain States the movement towards closer settlement through the creation of relatively small holdings continued, while in others experiments in this direction have not met with success. The alleged shortage of agricultural labour seems to be most marked in the case of young workers. The latest report of the Office for Rural Employment for Boys in New South Wales states that the farmers' demand for youthful workers was much larger than the supply.

Austria. — The new organisation of agriculture on a corporative basis was completed, and the first elections to the governing bodies of the new Corporation took place in the autumn of 1936.

Bolivia. — The Government announced its intention to reclaim land conceded in the past for settlement schemes and direct cultivation, but so far not used for such purposes.

Canada. — The Department of Immigration and Colonisation, in co-operation with the Canadian Pacific Railways and the Canadian National Railways, during the year 1935-36 settled nearly 3,000 families and placed more than 7,000 single men in the countryside.

China. — The number of farmers' organisations registered by the Minister of Industry was 12,000, with a total membership of 1,300,000.

Denmark. — The total amount of labour employed in agriculture varied very little from 1935 to 1936, but farm servants were in part replaced by casual day workers. A committee was appointed by the Minister of Social Affairs to enquire into the employment situation in agriculture and to suggest how best to secure the labour required on the farms.

Estonia. — A Chamber for agricultural workers and smallholders was established, the main task of which will be to help to make smallholdings more profitable and to watch over the cultural and material interests of agricultural workers and smallholders.

France. — The introduction of the 40-hour week in industry led to some nervousness among farmers, who feared that still more agricultural workers would be attracted to urban occupations. They were assured that no hindrances would be placed in the way of the admission of alien labour to work in French agriculture.

Germany. — A new Act was passed regulating the sale of agricultural land not falling under the new system of entailed peasant holdings, namely, holdings of under 5 hectares and large estates. The sale of land has to be approved by the administrative authorities, who may refuse permission if the price agreed on is out of proportion to the productive value of the plot, preventing the forcing up of prices.

Great Britain. — The number of agricultural wage-paid workers declined from June 1935 to June 1936 by 33,400, or nearly 5 per cent.; for casual workers the fall was not less than 14 per cent. This decline is the biggest recorded for many years, and the number of wage-paid workers employed in English agriculture is now 100,000 below what it was in 1930.

Guatemala. — A new agrarian Act was passed in February 1936 revising land tenure legislation and enacting that national land may be allotted in plots of 45 hectares to unmarried persons, and of 225 hectares to families.

In *Italy*, the third annual meeting of the Confederations concerned, held to devise measures against unemployment among rural workers, suggested further new measures to be taken, including the allotment of land to agricultural workers and the cultivation of various crops on a share basis.

Mexico. — Nearly one million peasant farmers have joined the National Peasant Confederation set up by the National Revolutionary Party. During the administration of the present President, four million hectares of land have been granted to 288,000 peasants forming communal groups from 1 December 1934 to 31 August 1936. In October 1936, the Agrarian Code was applied to the cotton-cultivating Laguna District, where 224 communal land holdings, grouping 28,500 peasants and covering 128,500 hectares of land, were at once set up.

San Salvador. — The Social Defence Board completed its distribution of smallholdings to 2,000 rural landless families.

Spain. — The Government which came into power in February 1936 hastened the carrying out of agrarian reform and reorganised the Institute of Agrarian Reform. In June 1936 the former Agra-

rian Reform Act of 1932 was again put into force. The Agrarian Reform Institute adopted two kinds of measures. In the first place, it settled the *yunteros*, i.e. workers disposing of some draught animals and agricultural implements and hitherto cultivating the soil under a form of tenancy; in the course of four months, about 92,000 *yunteros* obtained 232,000 hectares of land in nine Spanish provinces. Secondly, during the same period more than 10,000 day labourers proper, heads of families, were also given land. The peasants in general, however, considered that land reform was proceeding too slowly and occupied land themselves, expecting that their action would be legalised later on by the Government. In the beginning of 1936 unemployment, endemic in Spanish agriculture, reached exceptional proportions, partly owing to the bad season and partly to the abandonment of land by the owners. In February, out of a total number of 844,000 unemployed, 562,000 were agricultural workers.

Sweden. — Unemployment among agricultural workers is now practically unknown. Even the surplus of youthful labour on certain family holdings, which constituted rather an important problem some few years ago, has now completely disappeared.

Switzerland. — The revival of industrial activity has caused a shortage of farm servants, and agriculturists claim that less stringent rules concerning the admission of alien labour should be applied. A Decree issued in December 1936 provided Federal subsidies for interior colonisation and for allotment schemes for the unemployed, as well as for the settlement of Swiss citizens in other European countries.

United States. — Farm workers' organisations are developing. Organisation under a State Charter was made possible for the first time in California. The movement is also making progress among the share-croppers of the South. The results of the last agricultural census showed that tenancy is rapidly increasing, and that at the present day 42 per cent. of all farms are worked by tenant farmers. A Bill for the assistance of tenant farmers failed to pass Congress, and the President therefore set up a Committee to enquire into the best means of coming to their help. This Committee issued its report in February 1937.

The year 1935 showed a net exodus from the countryside of 386,000 persons. On 1 January 1936 the farm population amounted to 31,800,000 persons, a slightly higher figure than in 1920. Ten thousand families have left the drought-stricken farms for employment elsewhere. The amount of family and wage-paid labour employed per hundred farms has continued to decline, but the demand for wage-paid labour, for the first time since the depression, now exceeds the supply.

U.S.S.R. — In the beginning of 1936 90 per cent. of all peasant holdings formed part of the collective farms (*kolhkozės*), and in

certain regions of the country the percentage of collectivised holdings reached 95 per cent. or more. On 1 July 1936, a census showed 1,982,000 individual holdings, and 18,431,900 holdings grouped in 244, 456 *kolkhozes*, comprising from 60 to 200 holdings, with an area under crops ranging from 250 to 320 thousand hectares. The new Constitution of 5 December 1936 confirmed the principle according to which land held by the *kolkhozes* is granted to them for their free enjoyment for an unlimited period of time. The number of State farms (*sovkhoses*) on 1 January 1936 was 4,323, their area being estimated at about 76.4 million hectares. This area has now been reduced, for the benefit of neighbouring *kolkhozes*, by about 7 million hectares.

CONDITIONS OF WORK AND WAGES IN AGRICULTURE

The Executive Committee of the *International Landworkers' Federation*, meeting in Stockholm in June 1936, adopted a resolution requesting the International Labour Office to bring up for discussion the question of the minimum wage in agriculture and allied questions, such as that of hours of work.

The *International Commission of Agriculture* held its annual session in Oslo in July 1936. On the suggestion of its Sub-Committee on Agricultural Labour, it passed a resolution, addressed to Governments and to the International Labour Organisation, urging that all classes of persons employed in agriculture should enjoy to the fullest possible extent, in view of the special conditions of agricultural work, corresponding and equivalent privileges to those enjoyed by workers in other occupations. With regard in particular to the institution of holidays with pay, the Committee considered that the time had come when the principle of this measure should be acknowledged by national legislation, subject to adjustment to established usage and the special conditions of the different systems of agricultural work.

Argentine. — The Socialist Party submitted a Bill pressing for the extension of the workmen's compensation scheme to agricultural workers.

Australia. — New awards, taking into consideration the increase in wool prices, raised the wage rates of shearers and other pastoral workers. In September 1936, the average weekly wage for all agricultural workers was 75s. 5d., as against 73s. 4d. in the previous year.

Belgium. — A Joint Committee was set up to undertake a detailed statistical enquiry into working conditions in agriculture.

Chile. — The Government submitted a Bill to Congress concerning minimum wage regulation in agriculture. A Government Committee ascertained that in important agricultural zones the daily wages

of resident and casual workers varied from 4.90 to 6.63 pesos, and was from 3 to 4 pesos below what was considered as a living wage.

Colombia. — Sixteen rural hygiene committees were set up.

Cuba. — The minimum wage rates laid down by the Act of 1934 have been applied only with difficulty to agriculture. It is expected that the inspection now being carried out by the Army will alter conditions. Small farmers especially have found difficulties in paying the prescribed rates, in spite of the rise in sugar prices, because they are obliged to use their surplus income to pay off remaining debts. The Labour Department allowed an exception from the Eight-Hour Act for growers of grape fruit, allowing them to employ agricultural workers for 56 hours a week, against additional payment. The employment exchanges recorded a shortage of labour.

Denmark. — The wages paid in 1936-37 to male agricultural workers were 14 per cent. higher than the wages paid during the previous period. For day labourers the increase in wages is estimated at 8 per cent.

Estonia. — The wages paid during 1936 were on an average 18 per cent. higher than in 1935.

France. — The Government which came into power in June 1936 declared its policy of guaranteeing to agricultural workers living conditions of the same standard as those enjoyed by industrial workers, and of applying the whole of its social legislation, beginning with family allowances, to farms as well as to factories. In August, the regulations extending the Family Allowances Act to agriculture were signed by the President. The Act establishing holidays with pay applies also to agriculture, and special regulations for this industry were issued. Organisation among agricultural workers developed rapidly, and after a period of hesitation and strikes, many collective agreements were concluded, often with the help of the authorities. The question of special legislation on collective bargaining in agriculture is, however, still under examination.

Great Britain. — An unemployment insurance scheme for agricultural workers was enacted, and benefits were paid for the first time in November 1936. Towards the end of that month, 17,000 (or 3 per cent.) of the insured agricultural workers received unemployment allowances. During March 1937, the average minimum weekly wage for adult male workers, as laid down by the Agricultural Wages Board, was 32s. 7d., as against 31s. 11½d. in March 1936. A Bill is before Parliament concerning the extension of the Agricultural Wages (Regulation) Act to Scotland, to which country it has hitherto not applied.

Irish Free State. — An Act was passed in November 1936, which will soon be applied in practice, introducing wage regulation in

Irish agriculture. For this purpose the country is divided into a certain number of wage districts. The rulings given in each case must be laid before Parliament, which may annul them within a period of 21 days.

Italy. — Collective agreements for agriculture signed in September 1936 increased wage rates by 6 to 9 per cent. and made the institution of mutual sickness insurance funds compulsory throughout Italy.

Netherlands. — Collective agreements now cover 21,000 farmers and 66,000 agricultural workers. Further, for 4,000 farmers and 13,000 workers, working conditions are regulated under the special provisions laid down by the agricultural emergency legislation.

New Zealand. — New awards for shearers for 1936-37 raised wages by 30 per cent., and for certain categories even by 50 per cent. In future wages will be regulated in accordance with the export price of wool. An Act regulating the conditions of agricultural workers came into force on 1 October 1936. Its essential feature was to introduce minimum wages for dairy workers. In laying down such minimum wage rates, regard is to be had to the price fixed under the Primary Producers' Marketing Act, 1936. The new Act also forbids the employment of any child under the age of 15 years for hire or reward as an agricultural worker on a dairy farm, and secures to dairy workers 7 days' holiday for every twelve weeks of employment.

Spain. — During the period preceding the general election in February 1936, the collective regulations concerning working conditions in agriculture were suspended. After the election, strikes occurred again in agriculture, increasing in number from month to month. However, in June 1936, new collective regulations on working conditions were again issued for several provinces. The conditions laid down varied from province to province. The working day, on the whole, did not exceed 8 hours, while wages were fixed at about the same nominal level as in 1932, and varied from 5 to 12 pesetas per day, according to the category of worker and the season.

Sweden. — Cash wages were increased through collective agreements by 17 to 26 per cent. for agricultural workers having their own households, and by 20 to 32 per cent. for boarded workers. A committee was set up to study the question of minimum wage regulation in agriculture, regard being paid to the State assistance now given to agriculture. An Act came into force on 1 November 1936 regulating hours of work on farms employing more than four workers, exclusive of cattle tenders. The maximum working day is 10 hours, and the net working week may vary from 46 to 56 hours in the course of the year. The Government has, however, already introduced a Bill to amend this Act and to extend it to all agricul-

tural workers. The question of compensating agriculture for the increased labour costs resulting from a reduction of the working day is being examined at the same time.

United States. — Wages during 1936 were well above the 1935 level, and slightly higher than the pre-war rates, while industrial wages were nearly double the pre-war standard.

INTERNATIONAL REGULATION ¹

Convention No. 10: Minimum Age (Agriculture), 1921.

Argentina. — Ratification registered on 26 May 1936.

Peru. — By Decree of 6 March 1936 the President of the Republic approved the Convention and submitted it to Congress for ratification.

U.S.S.R. — Submitted to the competent authorities.

Convention No. 11: Right of Association (Agriculture), 1921

Argentina. — Ratification registered on 26 May 1936.

Peru. — By Decree of 6 March 1936 the President of the Republic approved the Convention and submitted it to Congress for ratification.

U.S.S.R. — Submitted to the competent authorities.

Convention No. 12: Workmen's Compensation (Agriculture), 1921

Argentina. — Ratification registered on 26 May 1936.

Peru. — By Decree of 6 March 1936 the President of the Republic approved the Convention and submitted it to Congress for ratification.

U.S.S.R. — Submitted to the competent authorities.

Seamen

The year 1936 certainly has a number of important claims to be ranked as one of outstanding progress and achievement in the post-war history of shipping and of the movement for improving conditions of service of merchant marine personnel.

On the economic side, 1936 definitely marked for not a few countries the end of the severe depression which had been hanging over shipping since 1929, and saw the tide of business turn unmistakably towards a period of recovery and prosperity. Freight rates rose; there was a big spurt in orders for new tonnage or the modernisation of existing tonnage; considerable numbers of ships which had been laid up, some for years, were brought back into

¹ The information given here relates only to the period 16 March 1936-15 March 1937. See the tables at the end of the volume for the general situation as regards the Conventions concerning employment in agriculture.

commission on a remunerative basis; and before the year was out, responsible leaders in shipping in different countries were talking of the beginning of "boom" conditions and looking forward to their continuance and expansion for at least a few years. This swing of the pendulum incidentally brought certain benefits to seamen in the shape of a greater volume of employment, increases in wages, and other similar advantages.

On the labour side, the year also witnessed in certain important maritime countries (France, Great Britain, United States) some of the most far-reaching reforms in the working conditions of seamen which have taken place since the war.

In *France* seamen were included in the comprehensive programme of social reforms introduced by the Government in June, and consequently in the legislation providing for annual holidays with pay and for the establishment of the 40-hour week for the general body of workers. In virtue of this legislation, 15 days' leave a year (including at least 12 working days) was fixed by national collective agreements in the summer of 1936 for officers and subordinate ratings. Negotiations were also begun later for working out the methods of applying the 40-hour week to employment on board ship.

In *Great Britain* new manning regulations, which were issued in July for subordinate deck ratings in foreign-going ships, made great improvements on the previous regulations, which had been in force since 1909. An improved scale for deck officer manning in foreign-going trade was also introduced in September by a national agreement concluded at the National Maritime Board. More important still, perhaps, was the historic departure made from the previous policy of not regulating hours of work at sea by collective action. For the first time in the history of the National Maritime Board national collective agreements were concluded in August and September regulating hours of work at sea for subordinate personnel as a whole in foreign-going ships. The basic provisions of these agreements reduced hours of work for deck personnel (ships over 2,500 tons gross) from 84 a week (two-watch system) to 64 a week (three-watch system of 8 hours a day plus 8 additional hours), fixed the 8-hour day and 56-hour week for engine-room and stokehold personnel, and provided for maxima of 10 hours a day and 70 hours a week for catering staff in cargo vessels and 12 hours off duty a day (including a period of at least 7 consecutive hours) for catering staff in passenger vessels.¹

In the *United States* a large-scale revision of existing maritime legislation was enacted by Congress in the summer of 1936 with

¹ Passenger vessels include cargo vessels without passenger certificate, so long as there is any fare-paying passenger on board, which have permanent accommodation for not less than six passengers provided such accommodation is exclusively for the use of passengers.

the object of promoting the development of an adequate merchant marine, increasing the employment of American citizens on board the ships, and improving safety standards, personnel efficiency, and working conditions¹. A striking feature of this new legislation, which introduced a new system of direct operating subsidies for merchant shipping and set up a new authority—the United States Maritime Commission—for its administration and for the development of the merchant marine generally, was the wide powers conferred on this authority for investigating and determining working conditions (“minimum manning scales, minimum wage scales, and reasonable working conditions”) for officers and other ratings employed on all types of vessels receiving an operating subsidy. Other no less striking features of the new legislation included the following: replacement of the previous statutory provisions concerning hours of work at sea (two-watch system for deck personnel and three watch system for engine-room and stokehold personnel, excluding engineer officers and coal-passers) by the 8-hour day and three-watch system for all personnel, both officers and other ratings, in both these departments; the substitution of the 8-hour for the 9-hour day in port; regulation of the amount of sea service required to qualify for different subordinate ratings on deck and in the engine-room; a comprehensive system of certificates of service for practically all subordinate personnel not only in these two departments but also in the catering department; and the introduction of continuous discharge books for all seamen in place of the separate certificates of discharge for each individual voyage previously in operation.

MARITIME SESSIONS OF THE INTERNATIONAL LABOUR CONFERENCE (OCTOBER 1936)

Lastly, the year 1936 will undoubtedly be a memorable one in the history of the condition of the seaman, because of the remarkable results of the Maritime Sessions of the International Labour Conference held at Geneva in October. Certainly, the economic and national labour developments which have been mentioned above contributed not a little to the accomplishment of these results, and were in themselves of great significance as turning points in the betterment of the position of the seaman. The achievements of the Maritime Sessions, however, were won in the international field and by international collaboration, and are capable of conferring very substantial benefits on seamen in almost every maritime country of the world.

For the sake of continuity in the successive editions of the *Year-Book*, a brief exposition of the results of the Maritime Sessions of

¹ In particular, the Merchant Marine Act of 29 June 1936 and the Act of 25 June 1936 amending the La Follette Act of 4 March 1915.

the Conference (October 1936) and their significance should be given here ¹.

Briefly put, the Conference by considerably more than the statutory two-thirds majority adopted six Draft Conventions and two Recommendations, besides also adopting a number of resolutions and renewing the shipowners' and seamen's membership of the Joint Maritime Commission.

The six Draft Conventions deal with the following questions: hours of work on board ship and manning; holidays with pay for seamen; the minimum requirement of professional capacity for masters and officers on board merchant ships; the liability of the shipowner in case of sickness, injury or death of seamen; sickness insurance for seamen; and the raising of the minimum age for employment at sea from 14 to 15 years. The two Recommendations deal with hours of work on board ship and manning, and the promotion of seamen's welfare in ports.

Hours of Work and Manning

The Draft Convention on this subject, adopted by 62 votes (including those of 5 Employers' delegates) to 17, lays down detailed rules for the crews of cargo and passenger ships engaged in what may be called "foreign" trade. Ships engaged only in trade in their home country are excluded, and Governments are also given power, subject to certain conditions, to exclude ships engaged in short distance trade between their home country and foreign ports ².

In consideration of these exclusions, however, the Conference adopted an important Recommendation urging Governments to investigate hours and manning conditions in the trades excluded, in the light of the rules prescribed by the Convention for "foreign" trade vessels, and to take the necessary measures to prevent overwork and undermanning.

In regard to hours of work, the Draft Convention regulates

¹ The circumstances and negotiations which led up to the convocation of the Twenty-first and Twenty-second Sessions of the International Labour Conference and to the fixing and preparation of their agendas have already been explained at some length in previous editions of the *Year-Book*. A full account of the work of the Conferences has also appeared in the *International Labour Review*, Vol. XXXV, Nos. 1 and 2, January and February 1937.

² As an illustration of the scope of the Convention as regards ships, it may be noted that in respect of Great Britain the Convention would apply to "foreign trade" vessels, but would not apply to "coasting trade" vessels, and gives the Government power to exclude "home trade" vessels, i.e. vessels trading within the following limits—the United Kingdom, the Channel Islands, the Isle of Man, and the Continent of Europe between the Elbe and Brest inclusive. According to figures supplied by the Board of Trade to the International Labour Office, the amount of British tonnage actually engaged in these three trades respectively on 31 December 1935 was as follows:

Coasting trade,	354 vessels totalling	402,847 tons gross
Home trade,	524 " "	534,692 " "
Foreign trade,	2,467 " "	14,270,775 " "

this question not only for subordinate personnel (including petty officers) in the deck, engine-room and stokehold, and catering and clerical departments, but also for deck and engineer officers, cadets and apprentices. Apart from the master, the only persons forming part of the crew properly so-called whom it was considered expedient to exclude were officers in charge of departments who do not keep watch and wireless operators and telephonists.

The limitation of hours of work fixed by the Draft Convention may be summarised as follows:

At Sea

Watch-keeping personnel (deck, engine-room, stokehold)

Deck officers, cadets and apprentices: 8-hour day and 56-hour week in ships over 2,000 tons gross, subject to the following exceptions: (i) the addition of one extra hour a day, as required, for navigational or clerical purposes; and (ii) the allowance of extra time occasionally for doubling watches, up to a limit of 12 hours' work in all in any day.

Subordinate deck personnel: 8-hour day and 56-hour week in ships over 2,000 tons.

Engineer officers, cadets and apprentices: 8-hour day and 56-hour week in vessels over 700 tons or with engines exceeding 800 I.H.P., subject to permission to substitution for these figures: 1,500 tons or 1,000 I.H.P. for a period not exceeding 5 years.

Subordinate engine-room and stokehold personnel: 8-hour day and 56-hour week in ships over 700 tons, subject to extra time for the normal relieving of watches and the hoisting and dumping of ashes.

Day workers (deck, engine-room, stokehold).

All deck, engine-room and stokehold personnel (officers and other ratings): 8-hour day and 48-hour week in ships over 700 tons.

Catering and clerical departments

Subordinate staff in cargo vessels: 10-hour day (70-hour week) in all vessels irrespective of tonnage.

Subordinate staff in passenger vessels: at least 12 hours' rest during any period of 24 hours, including a rest period of 8 consecutive hours, in all vessels irrespective of tonnage.

Arrival and Sailing Days

For most sections of the personnel hours may be worked in excess of those prescribed at sea, but it is left to each country to decide whether, and under what conditions, any such extra hours may be worked. For watch-keeping officers, cadets and apprentices in the engine-room, however, and for catering and clerical staff in cargo vessels, the same hours are to be applied as at sea.

In Port

Deck, engine-room and stokehold personnel (officers and other ratings): 8-hour day and 48-hour week in all vessels irrespective of tonnage, subject to exceptions for ratings required for the safety of the vessel or persons on board or for the preservation of the cargo.

Catering and clerical departments: 8-hour day (but not 48-hour week) in all vessels irrespective of tonnage, subject to such exceptions as each country may permit.

To complete these rules the Draft Convention provides for the special compensation of overtime, but prohibits the consistent

working of overtime; allows extra work to be required without compensation in the interests of safety, in certain circumstances beyond the control of the master, and for work by officers for the determination of the position of the vessel at noon; and prohibits the employment of young persons under 16 during nine hours at night.

In regard to manning, the Draft Convention, with a view to promoting safety of life at sea and also ensuring that sufficient personnel is carried for complying with the provisions concerning hours, lays down a minimum manning scale for deck officers, subordinate deck staff, and engineer officers. It fixes the minimum number of A.B.'s to be included in the prescribed deck complements and the qualifications required for rating as A.B. The principal rules on this heading are as follows:

Minimum Manning Requirements

Officers (deck, engine-room)

- 2 mates in ships of 700-2,000 tons gross.
- 3 mates in ships over 2,000 tons.
- 3 engineers in ships over 700 tons or with engines exceeding 800 I.H.P., subject to the same proviso as noted above for hours of work of engineer officers.

Subordinate personnel (deck)

- 6 men, including 4 A.B.'s, in ships of 700-2,000 tons.
- 9 men or more, including 5 A.B.'s or more, in ships over 2,000 tons.

A.B. = a man of 18 years of age, with either 3 years' service on deck or holding a Government certificate of equivalent efficiency.

The Draft Convention also allows to be exempted from the application of its provisions, subject to certain strict conditions, vessels in which it is not reasonably possible to provide fresh accommodation or other permanent equipment necessary for an increased crew. Finally, it is not to come into force until it has been ratified by five countries each possessing a million tons of merchant shipping.

In spite of the fact that the provisions of this Draft Convention do not come up to the standards in operation in the merchant marines of a few countries (e.g. France, United States, U.S.S.R.) and that some Governments and sections of the seamen would have preferred more advanced measures on certain points, nevertheless the great majority of the Governments, the seamen as a whole, and a certain section of the shipowners had no hesitation in recognising that there was every reason to be gratified at the results achieved. Seamen have secured the international charter of seamen's hours of work which they have been demanding for 17 years. They have obtained notable recognition of their claims that there is nothing inherent in the nature of their employment to prevent their hours of work being regulated on similar principles to those laid down since the Washington Conference in 1919 for workers

employed in industry on shore, and that it is just as possible and desirable to regulate officers' hours of work as those of subordinate ratings.

Perhaps the most striking individual feature of the Convention is the application of the 8-hour day to deck personnel. This means the abolition of the two-watch system, with its alternation of 4 hours on duty and 4 hours off in every 24 hours at sea, and the substitution of the three-watch system, which gives two periods of 8 hours off duty in every 24 hours. The application of this reform in "foreign" trade ships over 2,000 tons may be expected profoundly to affect hours of work in the coasting and short distance trades excluded from the Convention.

What is more significant, however, taking the Convention as a whole, is that the standards it lays down represent a considerable advance on the conditions at present obtaining in the majority of "foreign" trade ships sailing the seven seas. This applies both as regards hours of work and as regards manning. The Convention thus holds big potential benefits in store for large numbers of merchant service officers and seamen throughout the world, and it is therefore to be hoped that it will be ratified and applied on a large scale.

Holidays with Pay for Seamen

This Draft Convention, adopted by 60 votes to 15, extends to merchant seamen similar regulations to those which were adopted by the Twentieth Session of the Conference (June 1936) in a Draft Convention (No. 52) on holidays with pay for persons employed in industry, commerce and allied undertakings on shore. It provides for a minimum holiday with pay of 12 working days for masters, officers and wireless operators, and 9 working days for other members of the crew, of seagoing cargo and passenger vessels, including sailing ships. This holiday is due in respect of each completed year of continuous service with the same undertaking. In order to ease the application of this condition as to continuous service in the case of seamen signed on under voyage agreements, it is provided that in calculating a year's service, short interruptions of service up to a total of six weeks are not to break the continuity of the periods of service which precede and follow them. Pay during the holiday period is to consist of the employee's "usual remuneration" plus a "suitable subsistence allowance". Other provisions of the Draft Convention include: the stipulation that public and customary holidays, interruptions of service due to sickness, and time off allowed in compensation for weekly rest days and public holidays worked at sea are not to be counted as part of the annual holiday; definition of the ports at which the holiday is to be given; prohibition of contracting out of the rights to the annual holiday; a reference to each country to settle the question whether an employee who undertakes paid employment during his annual leave is to be deprived of his right to payment in respect of the holiday period; and the requirement of ratification by five countries each possessing

one million tons of merchant shipping in order to bring the Convention into force.

Like the Hours and Manning Convention, the Draft Convention on holidays with pay represents a triumph for the seamen's contention that they are entitled to be treated in these matters on a par with other sections of workers on shore. In the same way as the provisions on hours and manning, moreover, the international rules on holidays with pay are no mere minimum standards based on some average of practice already existing. Only a few countries, in fact, have as yet made statutory provision for holidays with pay for seamen, and only a few have in force, whether in virtue of legislation, collective agreements or custom, a system as advantageous as that laid down by the Draft Convention. This Convention too, therefore, is capable of making a big improvement in the condition of the great majority of merchant seamen.

Minimum Requirement of Professional Capacity

This Draft Convention was adopted by 80 votes to 9. It lays down three main rules. The fundamental rule, in the interests of safety at sea, is that masters, chief engineers, and navigating and engineer officers in charge of a watch on board sea-trading ships, including fishing vessels but excluding ships under 200 tons gross if this is considered desirable by the country concerned, are not to be allowed to act in these capacities unless they have been duly certificated by public authority as to their competence properly to discharge their responsible duties. The second rule is that none of these certificates are to be granted unless the candidate has reached a certain minimum age, has done a certain minimum period of professional service, and has passed appropriate examinations organised and supervised by public authority. The Draft Convention, however, does not specify the details of these conditions, and hence the third rule which it lays down, making it obligatory on each country to settle the details of their application. At the same time, in order to meet the situation where in a particular country uncertificated officers may at present be allowed to be employed in a certain trade or in a certain class of ship, provision is made for a transitional period of three years during which certificates may be issued, without insistence on compliance with the condition as to the passing of examinations, to officers with sufficient practical experience of their duties and with no record of serious technical error against them.

It will be recalled that this Draft Convention owes its origin to the international developments which followed the collision on the high seas in 1926 between the French liner "Lotus" and the Turkish collier "Bozkourt". In the investigations which took place into the circumstances of this collision it was found that the master of the Turkish vessel was not certificated.

It is already the common practice for maritime countries to require deck and engineer officers to be certificated, and the excep-

tions which still persist are generally limited to certain trades or classes of vessel. The Draft Convention, however, includes all trades and only excludes small ships, i.e. those under 200 tons. It may therefore serve a very useful purpose, both in the interests of safety and of the professional status of officers, by helping to remove the existing exceptions and so standardise the scope of the requirement of certification in the different countries.

Seamen's Welfare in Ports

This subject was dealt with in a Recommendation, adopted by 88 votes to nil, which advocated a considerable number of measures for improving the conditions in which seamen have to spend their time ashore when their vessels are in port, and more particularly in foreign ports. Seamen not infrequently feel rather lost and outcast in a foreign port, have not sufficient opportunities for healthy intellectual and physical recreation, and may become the prey of undesirable persons. It has long been recognised that more could be done to help them and to make them more at home during these breaks in their voyages. The measures which the Recommendation proposes for these purposes includes, *inter alia*, the establishment of a central port welfare committee in the bigger ports for co-ordinating and promoting seamen's welfare work; regulations to make dock areas safer and less accessible to undesirable persons; various measures to protect the health of seamen and ensure prompt and proper treatment in case of illness; the development of seamen's hostels and institutes with adequate recreational facilities; means to enable seamen to deposit their wages or remit them home; the creation of information offices for seamen in the larger ports, etc. The Recommendation lays special stress, in regard to these measures, on the desirability of equal treatment for foreign and national seamen.

As at the Thirteenth Session, in 1929, the Conference, in framing this Recommendation at its Twenty-first Session in 1936, had the advantage of the views expressed by a Private Conference on the Health and Welfare of the Merchant Marine organised for the discussion of this question on the occasion of the Maritime Labour Conference by the League of Red Cross Societies, the International Union against Venereal Disease, and other international and national associations interested in the question. These associations, had already done valuable work in this field.

The Shipowners' Liability in case of Sickness, Injury or Death of Seamen.

Sickness Insurance for Seamen

For a short account of the two Draft Conventions on these subjects, see under Chapter III, "Social Insurance".

Revision of the Minimum Age (Sea) Convention

This Draft Convention, which revises the Genoa Minimum Age (Sea) Convention, 1920, raises the minimum age for employment at sea from 14 to 15 years, subject to allowing exceptions for children over 14 in cases where adequate guarantees exist that the employment proposed will be beneficial to them.

In view of the connection between the subject-matter of this Convention and the general problem of the school-leaving age, the Convention is not to come into force until the International Labour Conference has adopted Draft Conventions revising the minimum age for industrial employment (Convention of 1919) and for non-industrial employment (Convention of 1932). The revision of these two Conventions is on the agenda of the Twenty-third Session of the Conference (June 1937).

Resolutions

The resolutions adopted by the Twenty-first Session of the Conference dealt with the following subjects: the placing on the agenda of the next maritime session of the Conference of the questions of accident compensation for seamen, unemployment insurance for seamen, and equality of treatment for national and foreign seamen; the calling of an economic conference to remove as far as possible the restrictions on international trade; an investigation into the "contractor system" of engaging seamen; study of the problem of accommodation for crews on board ship and the possibility of its international regulation; and the collection and publication by the Office of information on seamen's wages and other matters relating to competitive conditions.

Renewal and Enlargement of the Joint Maritime Commission

Lastly, the Twenty-first Session of the Conference, in October, had to re-elect the shipowners' and seamen's representatives on the Joint Maritime Commission. Under the Standing Orders of the Commission these representatives are selected at a maritime session of the Conference. The last elections took place at the Ninth Session in 1926.

In carrying out this function, the Conference was directed to take into account the following resolution adopted by the Governing Body in 1927 following on the 1926 elections:

"In order that the Commission should be truly representative of maritime employers and workers in all parts of the world, at least four of the fourteen regular members shall, from the date of the next elections, be nationals of non-European countries".

The result was that the two non-Government groups of the Conference proposed to increase the membership of the Commission from seven regular members for each side to nine regular members,

with a corresponding increase in the number of deputy members. They accordingly elected nine regular members for the shipowners and the seamen respectively, with four deputy members for the shipowners and five for the seamen. Two of the regular members nominated on each side belong to non-European countries (Japan and the United States of America), while three of the shipowners' deputy members also belong to such countries (Australia, Canada, India) as well as all the seamen's deputy members (Argentina, Australia, Canada, China, India)¹.

At its meeting in May 1937 the Governing Body approved the proposal to increase the membership of the Commission, which will now consist of nine regular members and five deputy members for each side.

*Ratification and Approval of Conventions and Recommendations adopted by the International Labour Conference*²

Convention No. 7: Minimum Age (Sea), 1920

Brazil. — Ratification registered on 8 June 1936.

China. — Ratification registered on 2 December 1936.

Peru. — By Decree of 6 March 1936 the President of the Republic approved the Convention and submitted it to Congress for ratification.

U.S.S.R. — Submitted to the competent authorities.

Convention No. 8: Unemployment Indemnity (Shipwreck), 1920

Brazil. — Ratification recommended to Congress.

China. — Decision of Legislative Yuan on 2 October 1936 to postpone ratification until the necessary legislation has been promulgated.

Denmark. — Bill for ratification submitted to the Rigsdag. Act supplementing the Seamen's Act of 1 May 1933 on the lines of the Convention promulgated on 7 April 1936.

Norway. — Ratification registered on 21 July 1936.

U.S.S.R. — Submitted to the competent authorities.

Convention No. 9: Placing of Seamen, 1920

Brazil. — Ratification recommended to Congress.

China. — Decision of Legislative Yuan on 2 October 1936 to postpone ratification until the necessary legislation has been promulgated.

¹ The European members nominated on each side belong to the following countries:

Shipowners: regular members: Belgium, France, Great Britain, Greece, Italy, the Netherlands, Norway; deputy member: Denmark;

Seamen: regular members: Belgium, Denmark, France, Great Britain, the Netherlands, Norway, Sweden.

² The information given here relates only to the period 16 March 1936-15 March 1937. See the tables at the end of the volume for the general situation as regards the Conventions concerning seamen.

Denmark. — Bill for ratification submitted to the Rigsdag. A Bill concerning the engagement of crews, now before the Rigsdag, would apply the Convention.

U.S.S.R. — Submitted to the competent authorities.

Convention No. 15: Minimum Age (Trimmers and Stokers), 1921

Argentina. — Ratification registered on 26 May 1936.

China. — Ratification registered on 2 December 1936.

Peru. — By Decree of 6 March 1936 the President of the Republic approved the Convention and submitted it to Congress for ratification.

U.S.S.R. — Submitted to the competent authorities.

Convention No. 16: Medical Examination of Young Persons (Sea), 1921

Argentina. — Ratification registered on 26 May 1936.

Brazil. — Ratification registered on 8 June 1936.

China. — Ratification registered on 2 December 1936.

Denmark. — Bill for ratification submitted to Rigsdag.

Peru. — By Decree of 6 March 1936 the President of the Republic approved the Convention and submitted it to Congress for ratification.

U.S.S.R. — Submitted to the competent authorities.

Convention No. 22: Seamen's Articles of Agreement, 1926

China. — Ratification registered on 2 December 1936.

U.S.S.R. — Submitted to the competent authorities.

Convention No. 23: Repatriation of Seamen, 1926

China. — Ratification registered on 2 December 1936.

U.S.S.R. — Submitted to the competent authorities.

Convention No. 53: Officers' Competency Certificates, 1936

Norway. — Bill for ratification submitted to the Storting in March 1937.

Convention No. 54: Holidays with Pay (Sea), 1936

Norway. — In a report to the Storting submitted on 12 March 1937 the Government proposed that ratification should be postponed.

Convention No. 55: Shipowners' Liability (Sick and Injured Seamen), 1936

Norway. — In a report to the Storting submitted on 12 March 1937 the Government proposed that ratification should be postponed.

Convention No. 56: Sickness Insurance (Sea), 1936

Norway. — In a report to the Storting submitted on 12 March 1937 the Government proposed that ratification should be postponed.

Convention No. 57: Hours of Work and Manning (Sea), 1936

Norway. — In a report to the Storting submitted on 12 March 1936 the Government proposed that ratification should be postponed.

Convention No. 58: Minimum Age (Sea) (Revised), 1936

Norway. — Bill for ratification submitted to the Storting in March 1937.

Recommendation No. 48: Seamen's Welfare in Ports, 1936

Norway. — In a report submitted to the Storting on 12 March 1937 the Minister of Social Affairs stated that the questions dealt with in the Recommendation would be examined in consultation with the authorities and organisations concerned.

Native Labour

As in previous editions of the *Year-Book*, the following pages contain under the heading "National Developments" a summary of the chief events affecting Native labour in the territories (independent States, colonies and mandated territories) where this type of labour is found, while international developments are described in a second section entitled "The International Situation".

NATIONAL DEVELOPMENTS

Australia. — In the *Mandated Territory of New Guinea* the employment of Native labour is still increasing. The report of the administration, examined by the Permanent Mandates Commission in 1936, states that at the end of 1935 33,993 Natives were under contract, an increase of 3,398 on the previous year's figure. The labour force in mining employment rose from 1,900 in 1931 to 6,369 in 1935. Recruiting was again restricted in various localities.

The legislation adopted includes a codifying Native Labour Ordinance, an Ordinance regulating conditions in mines and works, and an Ordinance providing compensation for Native workers killed or wounded in uncontrolled areas.

In *Papua* regulations of 1936 enumerate the social purposes for which payments may be made out of the Native tax fund.

Belgium. — During 1936 the financial situation in the *Belgian Congo* continued to improve. Nevertheless, although the budget was balanced, a heavy debt burden remains, amounting directly or indirectly to 287 million francs a year. The local Government is therefore asking the home country to continue its subsidy of 150 million francs a year until a complete recovery has been made.

Economic conditions continued to improve during the year, and the Governor-General ventured to declare that the depression was past, except in the case of the Upper Katanga, where the copper restriction agreement still limited production, and in Kivu, a one-crop country, where conditions are very difficult owing to the low price of coffee. Generally, production increased, particularly that of gold. For the first five months of 1936 inward traffic in the

port of Léopoldville was 79 per cent. higher than for the corresponding period in 1935.

With the increase in production the Congo is once more having to face the problem of the Native labour supply, which was temporarily eased by the depression. In 1930 the number of African labourers in all employments was 18.8 per cent. of the total adult male population. By 1934 this percentage had fallen to 15.5; this percentage, however, was a general average, and in some provinces the numbers of men in employment were higher; in the Lower Congo, for example, the percentage in employment amounted to 20.2, nearly half in distant employment. Since 1934 these percentages, which might well be regarded as maxima, are being exceeded in consequence of the increased labour demand. In the province of Elisabethville, on 31 December 1936, the total African labour force was 54,000, an increase of 5,500 over the previous year's figures. Early in 1936, 28,097 Africans were in industrial employment in the province of Costermanville, or 9,876 more than in the previous year. The labour force of the Forminière Company rose from 12,860 in 1934 to 16,000 in 1935, while similar increases occurred in other undertakings.

Thus once again, as a result of the expanded demand for labour, the Administration is confronted with the problem of the limitation of recruiting, and still more with the problem of the more economical use of labour. On this latter point the Governor-General recently said: "In Europe the wages bill stimulates technological progress, even though such progress leads to unemployment. In the Congo the situation is the reverse. The low cost of labour has hindered progress, since human effort costs less than motor power. Now, however, the hands available on the labour market are becoming fewer, which brings us to the same problem of improving efficiency."

Some of the industrial companies operating in the Congo have realised that social welfare must run parallel with economic revival. The Forminière Company, for example, decided in 1936 to establish a special fund for African workers, which will be used to promote better living conditions by the supply of tools and various services, by maternity and child welfare work, by technical education, etc.

The question of increased white settlement in the Congo continued to receive much attention in Belgian colonial circles. The Committee appointed by the Standing Committee of the Belgian Colonial Congress to study immigration possibilities issued a report in which it opposes large-scale immigration on the ground that the Congo is not a settlement colony. It recommends, however, the development of medium-size undertakings by private persons and companies. These conclusions are similar to those which emerge from other enquiries on the same subject.

There was no important change in labour legislation during 1936. The amendment, however, of some of the basic Decrees is being considered. A modification, for instance, is contemplated in the Decree of 16 March 1922 concerning labour contracts, by which

the employer's obligations to supply good and adequate rations, to provide medical attention during illness, and to provide repatriation will be extended to the families of recruited workers. A revision of the Ordinance of 18 June 1930 concerning health and safety is also in contemplation.

During the year various orders were promulgated prohibiting or limiting recruiting in various districts.

On 7 April 1936 the Belgian Government introduced in the Chamber of Deputies a Bill for the ratification of the Forced Labour Convention. Ratification will be subject to certain reservations, the chief of which permits compulsory cultivation as a form of agricultural education in certain cases and subject to certain safeguards.

British Empire. — The year under review was marked generally by an expansion of the economic and financial recovery suggested by developments in 1935. For the first six months of 1936 the percentage increases in exports from African dependencies over the corresponding period in 1935 were for Kenya and Uganda, 12; Northern Rhodesia, 15; Nyasaland, 16; Gold Coast, 16; Nigeria, 20; Mandated Territory of Tanganyika, 33; and Sierra Leone, 62. Imports also rose: in Tanganyika, for example, there was an increase of 11.1 per cent. in the imports for the first nine months of 1936 over the corresponding period in 1935; in the Gold Coast 21 per cent. for the first eight months of 1936; in Sierra Leone 6.6 per cent. for the first eight months; and in Kenya and Uganda 11.5 per cent. for the first nine months. The situation in Ceylon and Malaga also continued to improve.

In Africa the expansion in exports involved an increased labour demand, and consequently greater labour competition between mines and agriculture and between European and Native production, together with an additional strain on the social and economic life of territories whose low degree of economic development results in large migrations of man power. The resulting problems of labour welfare were, moreover, made more difficult by the fact that the peoples of some areas appear not to have recovered from the impoverishment of recent years and that the machinery of social protection, partly dismantled during the period of financial stringency, had not been rebuilt. It would indeed appear that, if the trade expansion continues, the need for co-ordination of development schemes will become imperative in the interests both of the Native peoples and of the industries requiring their labour.

To a certain extent developments during the year show some recognition of this necessity. For example, the consideration of general economic and social policy appears implicit in an enquiry inaugurated during the year by the British Government into nutrition in the Colonial Empire. By a despatch dated 18 April 1936, the attention of the colonial administrations was drawn to the importance of nutrition in relation, not only to public health, but also to agricultural, veterinary, educational, labour, and general

policy. The administrations were requested to undertake nutritional surveys, taking account of the changes in colonial policy which might be required by or result from improvements in dietary.

Another aspect of the tendency to broaden the consideration of colonial policy is suggested by the increasing attention paid to taxation methods in many parts of Africa. It is becoming recognised that the direct taxation at a flat rate of African peoples has an important influence on social policy, notably by compelling labour emigration from certain districts. Although so far official action appears to have been concerned with particular cases only, enquiries undertaken by Government instruction in Kenya, Nyasaland, and Uganda have drawn attention to the idea that taxation might more suitably be based on capacity to pay.

As regards labour questions in a more limited sense, general enquiries continue to be directed towards the machinery of labour protection and workmen's compensation. As stated in the 1935-36 issue of the *Year-Book*, the attention of the colonial administrations has been drawn to the importance of taking measures for the regular inspection of conditions of employment. In Northern Rhodesia and Nyasaland proposals were made for increased services for the protection of Native labour; special inspectors are to be appointed in Southern Rhodesia, in the Gold Coast the question appears to be receiving attention; and in Nigeria inspectors of mines were appointed as inspectors of labour. The model Workmen's Compensation Ordinance circulated last year to the African administrations is still under consideration.

Partly as a result of the progress already made, there is little to report this year regarding the extension of the application of international labour Conventions in British colonial dependencies. Mention, however, will be made below of certain minimum wage-fixing laws adopted during the year and of legislation in application of the Underground Work (Women) Convention of 1935.

The principal local developments affecting the Natives of the various dependencies are summarised in the following paragraphs, which deal in succession with Southern Africa, Central Africa, East Africa, West Africa, Asia, the West Indies, and other areas.

The demand for labour by the Union of South Africa from the territories of *Basutoland*, *Bechuanaland*, and *Swaziland*, continued to increase and steps were also taken to regulate conditions of labour in the territories themselves. A Government agency for these three territories on the Witwatersrand, first established for the collection of taxes, extended its activities to general welfare work. Minimum wage-fixing Proclamations were promulgated in Basutoland and Bechuanaland. In Bechuanaland, moreover, increased provision was made for workmen's compensation, and another Proclamation of 1936 provides for the regulation of the employment of Natives by Natives.

In *Southern Rhodesia* the local demand for Native labour increased, as well as the labour competition between the local mines and agriculture, and generally between the colony and the

Union of South Africa. At a Census taken in May 1936, 254,297 Natives were in employment; more than half were immigrants. As mentioned below, the Government entered into a provisional agreement with the administrations of Northern Rhodesia and Nyasaland on the subject of immigrant labour. In pursuance of this agreement a conference was held in November between representatives of the Government and of employers. Various decisions were taken, providing for the transport of immigrant Natives, the establishment of labour depôts and rest camps, the appointment of itinerant supervisors of Native labour, and the amendment and stricter application of the law regulating the payment of Native wages and prohibiting the truck system. During the year Government spokesmen emphasised the need for increased wages, and the Southern Rhodesian Native Missionary Conference passed a resolution demanding a minimum wage for unskilled Native labour and claiming that the present wage rate was grossly insufficient for the monetary needs of men with dependants.

Important legislative action was taken during the year to implement the Government's policy of segregation between Europeans and Natives. The Native Registration Act 1936 limits the residence of Natives in the chief towns mainly to Natives in employment and to Natives seeking employment with the permission of the local authorities. Provision is made for the registration of contracts of service and for the strict control of Natives in towns at night. The control of the movement of Natives in European areas was also strengthened by a consolidation of the pass law.

In *Northern Rhodesia* the Native Industrial Labour Advisory Board, established in 1935, made a number of recommendations concerning the administration and welfare of Native labourers. To check the drift of unwanted labour to the mines, the Board advocated the institution of voluntary medical examination in the areas of labour supply and the advance notification by the mining companies of their probable labour requirements. Recruiting for the mines is not favoured, the mining companies holding that spontaneous labour is more contented and efficient than recruited labour. A certain amount of recruiting, however, is permitted for neighbourly territories. Other recommendations of the Board are for the establishment of a central workmen's compensation fund and for the strengthening of the labour inspection services.

Native Authority Ordinances passed during the year confirm the previous legislation permitting compulsory employment on essential public works and services for a maximum period of 60 days of the year. Another Ordinance passed during the year prohibits the employment of women underground.

The report of the *Nyasaland* Emigrant Labour Committee, which was published early in the year, proved one of the most important pronouncements on Native policy in recent years.

The report estimates that more than 25 per cent. of the adult male population of Nyasaland is abroad, and that of the emigrants from 25 to 30 per cent. never return. Unless the causes of emigration are counteracted and the emigration itself controlled, it is held that in no far distant future the Protectorate will have reached a desperate condition. The report makes a number of recommendations for the development of Nyasaland and for the readjustment of taxation. As regards labour migration, it suggests that the present lack of control should be replaced by a system of recruiting subject to the safeguards drawn up by the International Labour Organisation. The establishment of a labour department and of a Native trust fund for social services is also urged.

In a despatch dated 24 September 1936, the Secretary of State for the Colonies commented on the Committee's proposals. He wrote that he shared the anxiety of the Committee as to the seriousness of the situation with which Nyasaland would be confronted if the emigration of able-bodied male Natives continued unabated, and agreed that steps must be taken at once to remedy a state of affairs which appeared to be bringing hardship and misery to so many members of the Native community. The Secretary of State expressed the opinion that taxation was a primary cause of excessive emigration, and suggested that the rate of tax in areas in which the Natives had no reasonable means of obtaining employment locally or of growing export crops should immediately be reduced and that subsequently consideration should be given to the introduction of variable tax rates throughout Nyasaland.

As regards the control of the movements of labour, the Secretary of State, while agreeing that some system of identification was necessary, was opposed to coercive measures.

The Secretary of State also expressed doubts as to the necessity of introducing recruiting. He pointed out that the International Labour Office report on recruiting dealt with systems existing in certain areas and proposed methods for the regulation of these systems until they eventually disappeared. He stated that it would be a complete reversal of the objects of the Grey Report to prohibit free emigration with a view to supplanting it by contract labour and organised recruiting. A certain amount of recruiting had already been permitted in Nyasaland for the gold mines of the Rand. As regards this, the Secretary of State declared that he was not yet satisfied that the climatic and other conditions in the Union of South Africa were entirely suitable for Nyasaland Natives. Before he agreed to any extension of existing arrangements he asked for a comprehensive report on the situation, with particular reference to the health, welfare, and conditions of work and pay of the labourers employed in the Union.

The Secretary of State considered that, although the establishment of a Government labour bureau would not be required, the special problems raised by the labour question would probably necessitate the full-time attention of specialised officers. He also suggested that arrangements should be made for periodical

visits by selected officers to centres of employment outside Nyasaland where Nyasaland Natives work.

Shortly before the despatch of the Secretary of State's communication, a provisional agreement, dated 21 August 1936, was entered into between the Governments of Southern Rhodesia, Northern Rhodesia, and Nyasaland.

The agreement provides for the issue of identification certificates to migrant labourers and, eventually, for the prohibition of the migration of Natives not furnished with such certificates. To adjust the labour demands of the three territories, action is to be taken to ascertain the amount of labour available for wage-earning employment, and each Government has agreed to furnish the other Governments with an annual statement of the labour situation within its territory. The Governments consider that inter-state arrangements for regulating and, if necessary, restricting the flow of labour should not be precluded if, as seems probable, it is found that the interests of the Natives demand them. Recruiting, however, in Northern Rhodesia and Nyasaland is not regarded as essential.

The Governments agree to the provision of rest camps, food depôts, and dispensaries at such points on all main labour routes as shall be mutually determined. They will establish control over the transport of emigrant labour. They record that it is desirable that rapid and cheap transport should be provided.

Provision is not made for compulsory deferred pay, although it appears that such a system was advocated by the Government of Nyasaland. The Government of Southern Rhodesia, however, agrees to institute a voluntary remittance system and to reconsider the position if after two years the voluntary system proves inefficacious. The agreement also contains arrangements for the payment of workmen's compensation and for the remittance of taxes.

The Governments agree that emigrant Natives, after a period which should not exceed two years and might well be less, should with certain exceptions be repatriated. In the event of unemployment the labourers are to be housed and fed until such time as they can be found employment or repatriated.

The Governments agree to set up a standing committee to secure co-ordination in labour policy. It is further agreed that Northern Rhodesia and Nyasaland shall each appoint an official to be permanently resident in Southern Rhodesia as labour commissioner, while the Government of Southern Rhodesia undertakes to employ seven itinerant officials for the administration of the voluntary remittance system and for the general assistance of northern Natives.

The agreement between the three territories is subject to the approval of the Secretary of State for the Colonies, which at the time of drafting this note had not yet been granted.

The only legislative action to be recorded in Nyasaland is the Employment of Women Ordinance by which the underground employment of women is prohibited.

In the *Mandated Territory of Tanganyika*, although not to the

same extent as in Southern Africa, difficulties were also experienced by employers in meeting their labour needs. The improvement in the market for plantation crops has coincided with mining developments, and at the same time in many areas the returns from Native production have made unattractive the conditions of employment offered, particularly by plantations.

On the mines, although wage rates are higher, problems of health and welfare persisted during the year. A member of the Nyasaland Emigrant Labour Committee visited the Lupa gold fields in the south of Tanganyika and obtained evidence of irregularities in wage payments, of the employment under inadequate control of boys between 15 and 16 years of age, of the increase of venereal disease, and of the absence of adequate medical and social services. Various remedial measures were taken by the administration. The outbreak of cases of scurvy, however, indicates that difficulties have still to be overcome.

A strong Labour Commission with wide terms of reference was appointed early in 1936, and its report is expected soon to be ready. Administrative enquiries were also undertaken. Other action includes the publication of a handbook analysing the dietary habits and needs of the Natives of Tanganyika and suggesting a scale of rations for employed Natives.

Legislation passed during the year includes an order permitting Native authorities to issue instructions for the maintenance of communal tree plantations, and several regulations restricting recruiting operations in various districts.

In *Kenya* some difficulty was also experienced in obtaining labour for certain estates, and attention was drawn by the Native Affairs Department to the prevailing low rates of wages. The Department's report on conditions in 1935 examines the position of resident Native labourers who are permitted to reside with their families and certain live-stock on European estates, if employed by the estate for 180 days in the year. In some cases it was found that no wages at all were paid for the days of employment and in others that the payment was solely in kind.

A general survey of mining labour was made in October 1935. The number of Natives then employed was 14,115. There was no long-term contract labour, engagement being by the 30-day ticket. The medical and sanitary conditions, housing, and general welfare on the large undertakings were reported on favourably. Health precautions on the tea estates, which in December 1935 were employing 4,934 adults and 4,543 juveniles, also appeared to have received careful attention from the employers; climatic conditions, however, differ widely from conditions in the chief area of labour supply, and sickness rates were high.

The Native Labour Section of the Kenya Government brought to light certain instances of the truck system. A ruling was obtained from the courts to the effect that deductions from wages for goods supplied are illegal except in payment of blankets.

A detailed enquiry was conducted by Sir Alan Pim, under

instructions from the Secretary of State for the Colonies, into the financial position and system of taxation in Kenya. As regards Native taxation, Sir Alan Pim found that the poll tax was introduced with the intention of encouraging the young unmarried men to find employment, and from the proceeds of that employment to contribute to revenue. So long as the level of wages enabled the tax to be earned by a month's work or by the sale of a head of stock, tax collection presented few difficulties. However, with the fall in wages and in the price of stock, years of drought, and the growth of new wants among the younger members of the advanced tribes, taxation prosecutions had risen to figures representing a serious problem. In 1935, 622 persons were sentenced to imprisonment and 8,655 to detention for failure to pay taxes. Sir Alan Pim considered that, pending the eventual replacement of the present by a more scientific system, Native taxation required amendment by an extension of the principle of graduation, a reduction on account of extra huts, and the raising of the taxable age.

The Native Registration Rules were amended during the year to prevent abuses resulting from the destruction of registration cards. An Ordinance was also passed for the prohibition of the underground employment of women.

The Government of *Uganda* in principle approved proposals drafted by a local committee for a five-year programme of public works which is to cost £1,600,000. The programme includes a housing scheme for Government employees, the improvement of conditions in townships, road development, and the extension of medical and sanitary services. The putting into effect of the schemes will eventually lead to an increased labour demand.

Safety rules for mines and explosives were adopted during the year as well as an Ordinance prohibiting the employment of women underground in mines.

The employment of labour continued to increase in the British West African dependencies. In the *Gold Coast* the daily average African turnout in mining employment was 33,403 for the year ending 31 March 1936; as labour agreements are daily, the number in employment is considerably higher. Although figures are lacking, it is certain that a large number of Africans were also employed on African cocoa farms.

A grave warning is contained in the report of the Medical Department for 1935. A general deterioration in health has been noted and is ascribed to the immigration of under-nourished and diseased Natives, to low standards of hygiene in rural and mining areas, to increased facilities for the dissemination of disease, to malnutrition, and to specific diseases, in particular sleeping sickness and respiratory diseases. It appears that further measures are necessary to prevent destitution on the labour routes, to improve the conditions of housing and feeding of the casual labourers, to prevent development of slum conditions on private property near the mines, and to check respiratory diseases in the mining industry.

No workmen's compensation legislation has yet been adopted for the whole of the Gold Coast. A 1936 Ordinance, however, provides for the payment of compensation in the case of injuries occurring on mines in the Northern Territories. Other legislation of the year includes Mining Regulations containing additional provisions concerning safety, and Regulations limiting the percentage of able-bodied males who may be compulsorily employed on roads and providing for the remuneration of such workers at the prevailing rates for voluntary workers.

In *Nigeria* a determined effort is being made to arrest the spread of sleeping sickness in the Northern Provinces. A Bill for a proposed Sleeping Sickness Ordinance published in November 1936 provides for the declaration of sleeping sickness areas and restricted areas. Various measures against the disease may be taken in sleeping sickness areas, including the employment of forced labour for the clearance of local waterways, while in restricted areas residence or entry may be prohibited or limited. Provision is made for compulsory medical examination and treatment both in the Native villages and in centres of employment.

In *Sierra Leone*, owing to the improved financial situation, it was found possible to provide in the 1936 budget for sums for road maintenance and in consequence to abolish forced labour for such purposes. In explaining the change, the Governor referred to the obligations of the Forced Labour Convention and said that the old system was unsatisfactory from every point of view and could be tolerated no longer.

An Ordinance was adopted to regulate the employment of African labourers serving on ocean-going vessels on the West Coast of Africa. The Ordinance provides for individual payments in cash for such labourers and penalises any attempt by headmen or others to demand contributions from Africans wishing to obtain employment. Another Ordinance prohibits the underground employment of women.

The economic situation of *Ceylon* continued to be satisfactory, and owing to a good rice harvest and the absence of serious epidemics the Native population as a whole was in a better position than in 1935. Various schemes are under consideration to broaden the basis of the economic life of the Colony by opening up new fields of activity; particular attention is being given to the development and protection of local industry.

There was no change in labour legislation. An enquiry, however, was made by an officer of the Labour Department into the conditions of work of Sinhalese labour on tea estates and brought to light certain conditions (truck system, irregular payment of wages, and unduly long working hours) which may lead to the introduction of labour legislation to regulate the employment of Sinhalese estate labour.

The question of the competition of Sinhalese and Indians on the labour market, to which reference was made in the 1935-36 issue of

the *Year-Book*, led to the appointment of a Commission to enquire into and report generally on the immigration of workers, skilled and unskilled (including assisted estate labourers), into Ceylon from India and other countries and, in particular, to consider (a) the extent of such immigration and whether it is increasing or decreasing; (b) whether such immigration has caused, or is likely to cause, unemployment or other economic injury to the permanent population of the Island; (c) whether any restriction or control beyond that already existing should be imposed on such immigration and, if so, what form it should take.

In *Hong Kong*, a suggestion by Sir George Maxwell, the British member of the League of Nations Advisory Committee of Experts on Slavery, had led the Governor in 1935 to appoint a committee of two European and two Chinese members to report upon questions concerning *mui tsai*, i.e. a form of female child labour which is practised all over China under different names as well as in Hong Kong. The committee submitted a report in September 1935, in which it pressed for a full enquiry into all aspects and implications of the problem. After consultation with the administrations concerned the British Secretary of State for the Colonies in March 1936 appointed a Commission to visit Hong Kong and Malaya to investigate the whole question of *mui tsai* and any surviving practices of transferring women and children for valuable consideration, whether on marriage or adoption, or in any other circumstances, and to report to the Secretary of State on any legislative or other action considered practicable and desirable. Meanwhile, the Government of Hong Kong, following a comment by the Secretary of State for the Colonies in the House of Commons on the frequency of fines in *mui tsai* cases and on the value of imprisonment as a deterrent, amended the Female Domestic Service Ordinance 1923 so as to provide a maximum penalty of six months' imprisonment in addition to the fine of 250 Hong Kong dollars for contraventions of the Ordinance or of the regulations made thereunder.

Other legislative measures passed during the year include the prohibition of the employment of females on underground work in mines.

For *British Malaya* 1936 was a year of prosperity. During the first nine months the number of Chinese deck passengers arriving was considerably in excess of that of Chinese passengers returning home. On the other hand Indians returning to Southern India again outnumbered immigrants which may indicate that, so far as Indian labour is concerned, the Malayan labour market has reached saturation point. The authorities and the planting community are considering the possibility of making Malaya more independent of Indian immigration by encouraging Indian workers to settle permanently in the country. An official scheme was outlined for the grant of a free plot of land and a hut to each worker, and the provision of simple facilities for growing vegetables, etc. and breeding livestock. By thus giving the Indian

worker a vested interest in the country of his adoption, it is hoped to make him a self-supporting and permanent element in the population. The plan would result in labour being recruited in future from the descendants of the Indian settlers, so that the migratory flow from India to Malaya would eventually stop.

With the concurrence of the Governments of Malaya, the Government of India sent a delegation to the peninsula to examine the conditions of Indian labour, particularly in respect of: (1) wages, (2) hours of work, (3) housing, medical treatment, education, and allotments, (4) sex ratio, and (5) political status. The delegation will advise the Government of India whether assisted emigration from India to Malaya should be permitted in the future and on what conditions.

Malaya was also visited by the Commission, referred to under Hong Kong, which was sent by the British Government to enquire into the *mui tsai* system.

During the last months of 1936 there was considerable unrest among Chinese and Indian labour. A strike of Chinese employed in the pineapple factories of Singapore and South Johore was followed by widespread strikes of Chinese labourers in the building and contracting industries. Eventually most of the Asiatic employees of the Singapore Contracting Company joined in, and dislocated for a while the City's transport services. The most serious strike, however, was that of more than 11,000 Indian coolies employed by the Singapore Municipality Public Cleaning Department and by certain Government Departments. The Deputy Controller of Labour, Singapore, was appointed by the Straits Settlements Government to make an exhaustive enquiry into the causes of the unrest.

There were no important changes in labour legislation, except the enactment in the Unfederated Malay State of Kedah of provisions concerning child labour based on similar legislation already in force in the Federated Malay States.

In *British North Borneo*, from the trade figures of the first eight months of the year under review, there appears to be some improvement in the economic situation. The severe rubber restriction applied during the last two years demonstrated the undesirability of smallholders being solely dependent on one cash crop such as rubber. Persistent official propaganda met with fair success, and the cultivation of rice, coffee and pepper was extended. For some time anxiety has been caused by the decline in the numbers of the indigenous population in parts of the territory. In 1936 a specialist in tropical medicine investigated the causes of the phenomenon and reported to the Government.

In the *British West Indies*, although there was some slight improvement in the general economic situation, the poverty of the peasant and casual wage-earning population remained acute.

In *Barbados* a Bill was introduced for the application of the Night Work (Women and Young Persons) and the Minimum Age

(Industry) and (Sea) Conventions, subject to the modifications that a child is defined as under 12 years of age and a young person as under 16. A second Bill provides for workmen's compensation in industry.

In *Grenada* a Bill was introduced to repeal the obsolete Masters and Servants Act, under which provision was made for penal sanctions.

An Ordinance adopted in *St. Christopher and Nevis* regulates the closing of shops.

In *Trinidad and Tobago* enquiries were conducted into wages, shop hours, and nutrition. The Wages Advisory Board, while mentioning wage rates which it regarded as fair and emphasising the hardships suffered by many labourers, for economic reasons did not recommend the statutory fixing of minimum wage rates. The Shop Hours Committee submitted new legislation which would generally limit employment in shops to 9 hours in the day and 50 hours in the week. The Nutrition Committee was set up in July as an outcome of the Secretary of State's dispatch which is mentioned above. It drew attention to the inadequacies in the dietaries of labourers and of the general population. The opinion was expressed in the Committee that the average agricultural labourer was physically incapable of performing efficient work even for a working week of 20 hours. The Director of Agriculture drew the inference of the probable economic benefit to the agricultural industry of the Colony of improvements in nutrition.

Business conditions in *Fiji* were steady and satisfactory and the financial position sound. The Fijians continue to increase in numbers. Stimulated by the progress made by Indian farmers, they are showing adaptability to modern methods of farming and are proving successful as cane growers.

The expansion of the gold-mining industry has led to serious difficulties in connection with the supply of unskilled labour. Large number of Fijians who formerly used to work on estates are now employed at the mines, where wages are considerably higher, and there is a shortage of plantation labour. Indians, of whom there are some 90,000 in Fiji, provide no solution since they are mostly engaged in independent agriculture, petty trading, etc.

In *Malta* a 1936 Ordinance empowers the Governor to issue Orders limiting hours of employment, prescribing daily or weekly rest periods, fixing minimum wages, and providing for inspection. A tripartite advisory board may be appointed to make recommendations in connection with any such Order.

In the *Seychelles* an Ordinance was adopted prohibiting the underground employment of women.

France. — The symptoms of economic recovery, evident throughout the French Empire in 1935, were confirmed in 1936. Almost without exception the local budgets were balanced, and there is reason to hope that the recent monetary alignment will be of

material assistance to the colonies by lowering the barriers to foreign trade resulting from the disparity of prices.

The political tendencies of the Government which came into power in June 1936 were reflected in social and labour policy in the colonies. Such features of the previous Governments' policy were endorsed as led to the appointment of the Committee for the Promotion of Settlement and Native Peasant Development. At the opening of the Conference of Governors-General, held in Paris in November 1936, the Minister for the Colonies contrasted the old egotistical colonial policy, "the sole purpose of which is to draw on the Natives for direct or indirect tribute in men, services, and money for the profit of the home country", with an unselfish policy "based on the desire to raise the purchasing power of the Native peoples" and seeking "to improve their physical, economic, and intellectual standards". To this attitude may be traced an Act adopted by the Chamber of Deputies and Senate, authorising the appointment by Decree of a committee to enquire into the needs and legitimate aspirations of the inhabitants of French colonies, protectorates and mandated territories. It is intended that this Committee's enquiries should lead to "a vast renovation of the French colonial system by the general improvement of the social and political circumstances of the colonial populations". The Committee was constituted by Decree of 9 February 1937. It consists of thirty members, nine of whom are required to be Members of Parliament. It is divided into three regional sub-committees, which are authorised to delegate one or more of their members for direct enquiries.

In anticipation of this general enquiry, the Government by Decree of 23 September 1936 entrusted Mr. Justin Godart, Senator for the Rhône Department and on several occasions French Government delegate to the International Labour Conference, with a six months' commission of enquiry into labour, health and social conditions in the French colonies. Mr. Justin Godart was in the first place to visit the French Settlements in India and Indo-China.

In addition, some of the local administrations put in hand a programme of economic and social reform with the object, as far as practicable, of giving effect to the various social measures recently adopted in France. These events will be detailed below under the various territories.

A Bill for the ratification of the Convention concerning forced or compulsory labour was introduced and adopted by the Senate. The Bill provides for the ratification of the Convention subject to modifications which will make allowance for certain traditional principles of French colonial legislation.

Morocco has been sorely tried by the depression, but by the direction of the Resident-General measures of economic reorganisation and defence have been taken. Some of these provide for the improvement of labour conditions. By a Dahir of 2 June 1936 a Permanent Committee of Economic Defence was appointed

for consultation on questions connected with the general economy of the country, including labour questions. As a remedy for unemployment, the Committee drew up a programme of public works involving a total expenditure of 140 million francs. It also accepted the principle of the 8-hour day, and as a consequence of this decision a Dahir of 18 June limits the hours of work of workers and salaried employees of either sex in industrial and commercial undertakings to 8 in the day or 48 in the week. Another decision of the Committee endorses the principle of minimum wage rates for Native workers, and a second Dahir of 18 June fixes these rates at 4 francs a day for workers and salaried employees of either sex. A further Dahir of the same date provides that workers are to be paid at least twice, and salaried employees at least once, a month. Workshop fines and company shops were regulated, and labour brokerage prohibited. Finally, a Decree issued by the Resident-General on 1 June 1936 set up regional economic committees to collaborate on a local basis with the Permanent Committee of Economic Defence.

In *Algeria* the French Acts of 20 and 21 June 1936 concerning holidays with pay and the 40-hour week were declared applicable and promulgated in the territory, while a Decree of 1 August contains rules for the application to Algeria of the French Act of 24 June concerning collective agreements. A Decree of 1 August details the procedure for the fixing of average wage rates for agricultural workers; in view of the low wages paid to unskilled Native agricultural labour in North Africa, this Decree is of particular importance. Finally, a Decree of 17 July 1936 once again tackles the problem of usury, which has been a chronic sore in the Algerian economy and gravely prejudices the living conditions of Native artisans and peasants; the Decree provides that private agreements for money loans involving the payment of interest are to be subject to the attestation of a competent officer.

In *Tunis* three Decrees of 4 August 1936 apply the French Acts concerning the 40-hour week, annual holidays with pay, and collective agreements. A fourth Decree of the same date concerns the health and safety of workers employed in the building industry and on public works. In order to forestall any rise in prices consequent upon these reforms and upon the wage increases granted to certain classes of workers through recent collective agreements, the Resident-General appointed price-fixing committees, prohibited the export of barley, fixed the prices of flour, bread and semolina, and made the export of olive oil conditional on previous authorisation. As a general measure of precaution, the Protectorate Government by Decree of 9 August 1936 reserved its right to commandeer, on payment, any goods or provisions necessary for the supply of the civil population or for sowing. Finally, mention should be made of a Decree of 6 August concerning the prevention of usury; this Decree is similar in effect to the Algerian Decree mentioned above.

French Equatorial Africa is facing a severe financial crisis. It has a floating debt of 44 million francs, and its budget of 99 million francs is barely sufficient for the needs of the colony; the financial aid of the home country thus remains essential. The chief feature of the economic depression is the low level of exports. Moreover, the colony is still at the stage when the materials exported are obtained by the collection of natural produce, although it ought to have entered the agricultural phase. To this end are directed the efforts of the new Governor-General, who in 1936 embarked on a series of important measures to strengthen the economy of the colony, chiefly through the development of Native peasant production.

Three Orders of 29 April 1936 provide: (1) for the organisation of an agricultural service to develop the cultivation of food supplies and economic crops, to improve agricultural methods, and to promote the settlement of European and Native colonists; (2) for the compulsory establishment of family food reserves; and (3) for the appointment of Native nutrition offices to study the means of improving Native dietaries.

An Order of 13 June 1936 provides for the establishment of settlement villages. The Administration is aiming at the formation of Native settlements in some of the more fertile and under-developed regions such as have been opened up by the Congo-Ocean Railway in order to improve the general economic situation in the colony and promote the establishment of a Native peasantry. Natives joining the settlement villages will be granted certain privileges, in particular exemption from poll tax for a period of two years. The villages will be visited periodically by administrative and medical officers.

Provision is made by an Order of 24 July for the establishment of provincial labour inspectorates. The inspectors will be under the direct instructions of the Governor-General and will be responsible for the organisation and supervision of the labour regulations, the inspection of public works, the supervision of labour contracts and of the health and freedom of workers, and the administration of workmen's compensation. As a result of this important decision specialist officers, instead of the district officers, will henceforth supervise conditions of employment.

Early in 1937 the Minister for the Colonies forwarded a despatch to the Governor-General of French Equatorial Africa containing instructions on economic and social policy. Emphasis was laid primarily on the need to secure for the peoples under French authority the indispensable minimum standard of living, as well as satisfactory labour conditions, in order to create a situation favorable to individual development and the progress of the African races; every attention should, therefore, be paid to the proper remuneration of Native labour and to the supervision of recruiting and labour contracts.

The Minister also recommended precautions to prevent the exploitation of the natural wealth of the country leading to its

exhaustion without benefit to the Natives, and invited the Governor-General to draw up a programme of general economic policy which would combine a rational development of the resources of the Colony with an improvement of the material and social standards of the Native population. Finally, the Minister requested the Governor-General to take early steps to establish Native provident and agricultural loan societies such as had been provided for by the Decree of 14 January 1937. The purpose of these mutual aid societies is to promote agriculture and stock-raising, and their functions include the sale of members' products. By them it is hoped to lay the foundations of a Native co-operative system working under the direct supervision of the administration and, while providing a juster remuneration for Native labour, introducing a greater measure of stability in the economic life of the colony.

Lastly, mention should be made of the appointment in Brazzaville of a Committee under the Colonial Secretary to examine the applicability to French Equatorial Africa of the French Acts concerning holidays with pay, the 40-hour week, and collective agreements, and to consider what changes should be made in the existing labour regulations and conditions of employment. The Committee (1) reported in favour of granting to all Government servants the right to fifteen days' holiday with full pay, or the annual accumulation of such leave to be taken at the end of each period of service, or the payment of monetary compensation; (2) held that the application of the 40-hour week was not practicable, but that a 48-hour week should be accepted as an intermediate solution, subject to further consideration in the case of Native labour; (3) took no decision as regards collective agreements in view of the absence of any trade union or occupational organisation. Certain recommendations were made by the Committee in regard to social insurance (sickness insurance, workmen's compensation, etc.).

In the *Cameroons under French Mandate* European agricultural development has led to an ever-growing demand for African labour. The number of workers employed in private undertakings increased from 17,348 in 1932 to 43,261 in 1935, whereas the maximum had never before exceeded 25,000. If to this figure be added the workers employed on public works, "prestation" labourers and porters, it appears that the proportion of African labour in employment at any one time is now over 12 per cent. of the able-bodied adult male population.

The increase in the labour demand has produced its inevitable crop of problems. According to official statements it appears that the workers usually offer their services spontaneously, and also that contract employment is exceptional. On the other hand, an official circular of 1 May 1936 alludes "to the difficulties experienced by some undertakings in the Territory in recruiting the necessary labour" and contemplates using the vagrancy laws to facilitate the recruiting of labour for private employers.

The question of industrial accidents is becoming of more

importance. According to the Annual Report for 1935 there were 25 accidents, several fatal, during the year. The question of workmen's compensation is being studied.

In *French West Africa*, economic recovery appears to have been achieved. Exports in 1935 increased to 2 million tons, equal to the 1930 figure, the value being 1,500 million francs; imports amounted to 1.2 million tons, of a value of 1,400 million francs. The budget has been balanced since 1933 and continues to show an excess of revenue, so that the reserve fund is being reconstituted. But although the general situation has improved, it is not yet stabilised, and it is necessary for the colony to continue in 1937 to adapt itself to the new conditions of social and economic life.

The new Governor-General appointed in 1936 stated that he would continue the general policy of his predecessor, directed towards the firm establishment of an African peasantry, in particular by supporting the rural schools and the Native provident societies.

During the year 1936 there was much discussion about the labour supply, more especially for private undertakings. Official figures show that, for the whole of French West Africa, a total of 140,588 workers were employed by such undertakings in 1935; of these only 22,785 were under written contracts and could be accurately recorded. The written contract is, however, increasing in frequency. The chief centre of employment is the Ivory Coast. In this area alone, 62,080 workers, of whom 41,200 were under verbal agreement, were in private employment in 1935. The undertakings, particularly the banana plantations and forestry concessions, alleged that they could not obtain a sufficiency of labour and pressed for Government aid in recruiting. About the same time, however, official investigators, and in particular M. Labouret, drew attention to the considerable migration movements from the Niger and Upper Volta to the Gold Coast, a movement which may well affect more than 200,000 persons annually. The migrants were said to be attracted by the relatively high wages in the British Colony, and the conclusion reached by M. Labouret was that the old argument no longer held good that, as the African's needs were limited, they would only do half as much work if their pay were doubled.

In labour legislation there were certain important changes in 1936. The Decree of 2 April 1932 concerning workmen's compensation was promulgated for local application on 30 July 1936. It covers Native workers, but is limited to undertakings using mechanical power or dangerous explosives. Ten Orders, dated 21 August 1936, were issued in application of the Decree; these Orders dealt mainly with pension rates and medical and pharmaceutical benefits, and made detailed provision for the special workmen's compensation guarantee fund.

A Decree of 18 September 1936 consolidated and, as far as local circumstances permit, extended existing provisions for the protection of women and children. The minimum age of employment is fixed at 14 years, and at 16 years in the case of forestry undertakings.

Women are entitled to eight weeks' maternity rest. Boys under 15 years of age and girls under 17 years may not be employed for more than 10 hours in the day, with one or more intervals of not less than 2 hours in all. The weekly rest is made compulsory. The night work of boys under 15 years of age and girls under 17 years is prohibited, night being defined as the period between 11 p.m. and 5 a.m. Labour inspection is to be carried out by administrative and labour inspectors, district officers, etc.

An amendment to the labour contract legislation was effected by a Decree of 22 September 1936. The amendment provides that, although in principle contracts are individual, exceptions are permitted when by the contract workers engaged by one and the same employer accept identical obligations in respect of specific services. The workers, however, will not be jointly responsible towards the employer, and any one of them may individually terminate his contract under the conditions laid down by the law.

In *Madagascar* economic recovery is in full swing. For the first eight months of 1936 exports amounted to 100,000 tons, as compared with 67,000 tons for the corresponding period of 1935.

With a view to furthering the remunerative sale of small farmers' crops, the home Government instructed the local Government to promote the development of co-operative societies; this is the purpose of a Decree of 13 September 1936, which provides for the creation of mixed agricultural co-operative societies of Europeans and Natives.

The railway line between Fianarantsoa and Manakara was opened in April, providing an outlet for the Betsileo country. Progress is being made with the Manakara harbour works and the hydraulic agricultural schemes.

In the chief urban centres action was taken by the authorities to improve housing conditions. The local administration also took various measures to diminish unemployment: ex-soldiers were granted 28 concessions of approximately 100 hectares each for tobacco growing, and the authorities of Antananarivo organised special road and sanitation works for the relief of unemployed Europeans and Natives. By an Order of 7 May 1936 the General Employment Office was reorganised, and now consists of a head office in Antananarivo and local offices in the regional headquarters.

A Decree of 8 April amended previous legislation concerning cash advances by employers to contract workers, providing for the speedier repayment of such advances.

In *French Somaliland*, where there was previously no general labour legislation, a Decree of 22 May 1936 issued a general labour code. The employment of women is prohibited during three weeks after childbirth; minimum wages may be fixed by order of the Governor; detailed provisions are made in regard to contracts, the duration of which may range from one month to two years; penal sanctions are retained in the event of "sudden and unjustified breach of contract", but may be imposed only by order

of the conciliation board; provision is made for a weekly rest; and as regards administration, the Decree provides for the establishment of an employment exchange, a conciliation board, and a labour inspectorate.

In *Indo-China* the symptoms of economic recovery noted in 1935 were confirmed in 1936. Although the exceptional circumstances which opened immense and unanticipated markets for rice in the Far East were not repeated, it still proved possible to sell this basic crop on favourable terms, while maize and particularly rubber prices improved and mining and secondary industries progressed. As a result there was a rapid decrease in indebtedness in rural areas and the public financial situation improved. Moreover, new economic opportunities were created by the signature of a treaty of commerce with China and by the completion of the Trans-Indo-China Railway.

The year was also notable for the beginning of important social reforms. By Order of the Governor-General of 15 July 1936 a Committee was appointed to submit proposals concerning the application to Indo-China of the new principles governing the relations between employers and workers, and to submit draft amendments to bring local legislation into line with the social laws recently adopted in France. The first results include the promulgation on 15 August of the Decree of 19 January 1933 concerning the protection of non-contract labour; an undertaking by the Government to apply, from 1 January 1937 the Decree of 9 September 1934 concerning workmen's compensation, and to institute enquiries in the provinces for the fixing of the minimum living wage; the limitation, by a Decree of 13 October 1936 of hours of work to 10 in the day from 1 November 1936, to 9 from 1 January 1937, and to 8 from 1 January 1938; the promulgation, under date of 30 December 1936, by the home Government of an important Decree forming a labour code for Indo-China, the chief provisions of which are analysed below.

Contract employment continues to be governed by the special legislation on the subject (Orders of 25 October 1927 and amendments). The contract, however, is made a matter of common law. Fines are prohibited. Women are entitled to eight weeks' rest in childbirth. Minimum wage rates are to be fixed for all industrial and commercial occupations by committees which will include Native members of the elected assemblies. Wages are to be paid in cash at least once a month; in the event of the bankruptcy of a sub-contractor, the chief contractor becomes liable for the wages of the workers and all other legal obligations.

Free employment exchanges for the engagement of non-contract labour will be opened wherever necessary.

Hours of work in all undertakings are not to exceed 9 in the day from 1 January 1937, and 8 from the beginning of 1938. The night work of women and of young persons under 18 years of age is prohibited, night being defined as a period of at least 11 consecutive hours comprising the hours between 10 p.m. and 5 a.m.

All workers are entitled to a weekly rest. All workers, including salaried employees and apprentices, employed in industrial, mining, commercial, and other undertakings are, after one year's service, to be entitled to five days' holiday with pay from 1 January 1937, and ten days from 1 January 1938.

The underground work of women and of young persons under 15 years of age is prohibited.

The Decree also introduces workmen's compensation for accidents, provides that in the absence of trade union organisations the labour inspectorate will act on behalf of the workers in the settlement of disputes and the drafting of collective agreements, and prescribes measures for the health and safety of workers.

Among other legislation of the year affecting labour conditions mention should be made of an Order of the Governor-General, dated 10 February, revising the work book regulations; a circular of 14 March concerning Tonking immigration into Cochin-China; a circular of 18 April concerning industrial hygiene in industrial, mining, agricultural, and other undertakings in Tonking; and a Decree of 9 October relating to usury.

The *French Possessions in India* were in June and July 1936 the scene of labour troubles, accompanied by violence, particularly at a Pondicherry cotton mill. Up to 1936 there was no labour legislation of any kind in these territories. A Labour Code is, however, now being prepared, and as an interim measure a Decree of 23 May 1936 was issued to meet the most urgent requirements in regard to the protection of women, children and young persons. This Decree fixed the minimum age for admission to employment at 12 years and provided special safeguards for the employment of young persons between 12 and 18 years of age; the hours of work of boys under 15 years of age and of girls under 18 years were limited to 10 in the day, and their employment was prohibited during the night, defined as a period of 11 consecutive hours, including the hours between 11 p.m. and 5 a.m.; the weekly rest was made compulsory; women were granted eight weeks' maternity rest; and provision was made for labour inspection.

In *French Guiana* an Order of 4 March 1936 regulated the conditions of employment and wages of day workers and introduced some provision for workmen's compensation. An Order of 21 August established a committee to examine the applicability of the French social laws of June 1936.

In *New Caledonia* the important Immigration Decree of 24 December 1935 was completed by the establishment, by an Order of 23 June 1936, of an Immigration Department, and by the regulation of the conditions under which time-expired immigrant contract labourers may reside freely in the colony (Order of 23 June 1936). An Order of 2 September provided for a labour inspectorate.

Lastly, mention should be made of three Decrees, dated 14 December 1936, extending to *Martinique*, *French Guiana*, *Réunion*, *Guadeloupe*, and *New Caledonia* the provisions of the

three French Acts of 20, 21 and 24 June concerning holidays with pay, the 40-hour week, and collective agreements.

Italy. — The most important problem of policy in 1936 was the organisation and development of the colonies. Foremost among the aims of the Government is the creation of an outlet for Italian emigration in districts suitable for white settlement; next comes the production of raw materials needed by Italian industry in order to free it as far as possible from dependence upon foreign imports; it is also hoped to create a valuable market for Italian goods; finally, agriculture is to be developed so as to secure an adequate food supply, and local industry encouraged, with due care however to avoid competition with Italian industry.

With a view to carrying out this programme the Government appointed five technical corporative councils attached to the Ministry for the Colonies, to advise on problems of agriculture, industry, commerce, transport, and labour. The task of the labour council will be, amongst other things, to make recommendations concerning industrial relations and labour protection. In this latter regard, the Government is concerned to ensure to Italian workers, as far as possible, conditions of employment similar to those existing in Italy.

As regards Native labour, it should be mentioned that in Eritrea the Government fixed maximum wages so as to prevent Natives from being induced by high rates to leave the land and thus endanger food supplies; at the same time, employment on public works was restricted to workers who had been imported from Italy for such employment. Further, as the possibility of the systematic opening up of the new territories made it necessary to protect Native lands, the Government prohibited land alienation by Natives to non-Natives without permission from the European authorities.

The labour of Native children was the subject of a Decree issued in April 1936. Under this Decree, no Native boy under 14 years of age may leave his family for wage-earning or other employment on work or services under persons resident abroad. The employment of boys between 10 and 14 years of age is permitted on road and constructional work if carried on in the vicinity of their homes.

In order to relieve a part of the population of Tripolitania and the southern territories, which had suffered severely from drought, the Government organised the transfer of cattle, granted tax exemptions, instituted relief work, and distributed grain to persons unfit for employment.

As regards labour legislation, mention should also be made of a Decree for the extension to Libya of the Italian Act of 10 January 1935 concerning work books. The employment of Italian workers in Libya being subject to the same rules as in Italy, and provincial employment exchanges having been opened, it was necessary to provide for work books for Italian labourers. The Decree also authorises the Governor-General of Libya to introduce special work books for various classes of Native workers and for specified districts.

Further, a Decree of the Governor-General provides for the fixing of minimum and maximum wages to be paid by civil and military contractors to Native labour employed on urban construction, works of extraction, and road work. Penal sanctions are provided in the case of workers who, having been brought by their employers to employment from a distance of more than 100 kilometres, desert before the termination of the contract.

Japan. — As a result of immigration the Japanese population of the *Pacific Islands under Japanese Mandate* now exceeds the Native population. As regards employment, a total of 2,950 Japanese were employed by the sugar company in 1935; in addition, there were 1,845 tenant households under contract with the company and 146 households of independent cultivators (including 24 Native households) selling sugar cane to the company. The total labour force on the phosphate mines was only 472, of whom 379 were Natives. Enquiries into the effect of recruiting on Native health led to the conclusion that it was impossible to establish any connection between recruiting and the increased death rate on the two islands of Yap and Truk, where Native resistance to disease is weakest.

Liberia. — Reports from Liberia indicate an improvement in the financial and social position. The revenue returns for the first eight months show a rise in imports from 737,000 dollars in 1935 to 1,057,000 dollars in 1936, and in exports from 450,000 dollars to 772,000 dollars. The Gold Coast Government placed at the disposal of the Liberian Government facilities at the Accra agricultural training centre for the training of a group of young Liberians, who it is hoped will be able to inaugurate a scheme of agricultural co-operation in Liberia.

Netherlands. — During 1936 the economic situation in the *Netherlands Indies* improved appreciably. Even before the abandonment of the gold standard certain export prices were rising. With the monetary changes the movement accentuated and extended to nearly all exports. In the case of exports of Native origin, the improvement in prices was to the direct advantage of the Native population.

It was, however, chiefly the Outer Provinces which benefited, and not Java and Madura, the peoples of which, severely affected by years of depression, were in pressing need of relief. The devaluation, moreover, led to an increase in import prices and, to that extent, to a rise in the cost of living. If events had been allowed to take their course, many of the advantages of devaluation would have been lost and some of the Native industries would have been imperilled. In consequence the Government took steps to prevent an excessive rise in prices by such measures as reductions of the import duties on certain articles and in the price of salt. On the other hand, the economic situation of the peoples of Java was favourably influenced by the abundant rice

harvest and the stability of the price of this essential foodstuff in spite of the fall in the value of the florin. Moreover, as a result of Government action, the position of the sugar industry, though still precarious, improved slightly and, as the area planted for 1937 was extended, there are greater opportunities for Native employment.

At the same time, in Java and Madura, and also in the Celebes, the Moluccas and the adjacent districts the position of the Native population assumed such a serious aspect that the home Government decided to make a grant of 25 million florins for welfare work in these districts. The expenditure of this sum will be spread over three years. It may to some extent be regarded as a return for the profits obtained by the home country as a result of the quotas applied to the colony.

In recent years the authorities appear gradually to be coming to the conclusion that changes in world economy are demanding modifications in the economic structure of the Netherlands Indies. It is being recognised that the country's prosperity can no longer be based to the same extent on exports, and that more attention must be paid to the creation of Native capital and to the development of local industry capable of meeting the needs of the internal market. With these considerations in mind, steps are being taken to draw up a general industrialisation plan, in which room will be found for Native handicrafts, medium-scale industry, and some of the larger industries.

The Department of Economic Affairs, seconded by the Department of Education, is already encouraging village industries and handicrafts. Results have so far been promising. Owing to the economic improvement in the Outer Provinces, it was possible to sell there an appreciable quantity of goods manufactured in Java at prices which, while giving a reasonable profit, can compete with Japanese goods. The Government also appointed a committee to examine the distribution of electrical power for industrial purposes.

From the fragmentary information available, the unemployment situation appears to be stationary. At the end of September 1936 there were registered as unemployed at employment exchanges 5,926 Europeans, 15,188 Natives, and 1,280 foreign Asiatics. The employment exchange system was extended by the appointment of correspondents in a number of towns not important enough for an exchange; by September 1936 there were 18 exchanges and 26 correspondents. An estimate of European unemployed in 1935-36 indicates that the previous estimate of 10,000 is about correct. It has also been shown that, in this class of the population, unemployment tends increasingly to affect persons between 18 and 25 years of age. There is still very little information about the extent of unemployment among Natives and Chinese. A census of unemployment among Native intellectual workers was started and a Native official appointed for the purpose. Government statements indicate that later a census will be taken of unemploy-

ment among Native and Chinese skilled workers. In accordance with a policy framed in 1935, unemployment relief in money and kind was largely replaced by relief work, which ultimately is to be the sole form of relief. A fall in private contributions to the relief fund obliged the Government to raise the 1936 credit for unemployment from 1 million to 1.7 million florins.

The unsatisfactory state of the Native population in Java and Madura led to greater concern with social conditions. During the discussion of Ordinances for the assistance of the sugar industry, the Volksraad adopted an amendment empowering the Government to fix minimum wage rates for the lower classes of workers employed in the industry. So far no use has been made of these powers, but the Government, so as to obtain comparable and periodical wage statistics, arranged for the Java employers' organisations to supply it with regular returns in approved form. The accuracy of the figures will be checked by the Labour Inspectorate, the strength of which in Java and Madura was for this and other purposes raised from three to six inspectors. The functions of the inspectors were also extended. In the past their duties had been confined to supervising the regulations concerning the employment of children and the night work of women, and to the execution of special enquiries. An Ordinance was now adopted which makes them responsible for periodical visits of inspection to places of employment, as has always been the practice in the Outer Provinces.

There were important changes in labour legislation. New regulations governing the recruiting of Javanese workers for the Outer Provinces apply both to penal sanction workers as in the past, and to free workers. Secondly, by an amendment of the 1931 Coolie Ordinance, the employment of penal sanction workers is modified as follows: (1) penal sanctions are abolished in the case of re-engagement contracts; (2) the maximum duration of penal sanction contracts is reduced from three to two years; (3) the employment of penal sanction labour is prohibited in the case of commercial undertakings and in the construction and maintenance of railways and tramways; (4) agricultural and industrial undertakings may continue to employ penal sanction labour only to the decreasing extent approved in 1931¹, so that for the large majority of undertakings in the Outer Provinces penal sanctions will come to an end between 1940 and 1946. The new restrictions apply to the Outer Provinces without exception. The Government, however, indicated that it may later be necessary to draft separate regulations permitting penal sanction contracts for Dutch New Guinea, the development of which, begun some time ago, presents special difficulties.

Section 1602 ν of the Netherlands Indies Civil Code was amended to make fuller provision for Sunday rest. As is the case with the other sections of the Civil Code relating to labour contracts, this provision applies in principle only to Europeans. In certain

¹ Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1931*, p. 446.

eventualities, however, it may be extended to other races. Lastly, the Volksraad twice considered new regulations concerning the employment of overseers on plantations. These regulations are to apply to the whole colony. In North Sumatra they will replace the Assistants' Regulations (*Assistenten regeling*) of 1921.

The economic situation in *Dutch Guiana* is still precarious, although the gold and bauxite industries did better in 1936. It is difficult yet to state what will be the effects of devaluation on the colony.

As regards labour legislation, the amended Commercial Code, promulgated in 1936, contains provisions concerning seamen's articles of agreement based on the Netherlands Act of 14 June 1930, though, like those of the Netherlands Act, they have not yet been brought into force. The Bill for a Shop-Closing Ordinance mentioned in the *I.L.O. Year-Book 1935-36* has not yet been passed.

Thanks chiefly to the oil industry, the economic and financial situation in *Curaçao*, as regards the islands of Curaçao and Aruba, was very satisfactory. Among the Bills mentioned in the *I.L.O. Year-Book 1935-36*, those concerning workmen's compensation and free medical attention to be provided by employers in the event of the worker's illness were approved by the Colonial Council. The Governor's assent was also apparently given, but the measures have not yet been promulgated.

New Zealand. — During the year a mission from the Government of New Zealand visited the *Mandated Territory of Western Samoa* in an attempt to clear up the misunderstandings between the administration and the Samoans. The goodwill mission made a number of recommendations, including the extension of educational and medical facilities, and advocated the repatriation of Chinese and Melanesian labourers.

The employment of Chinese labourers in Western Samoa dates from before the war, there being 2,200 Chinese indentured labourers on the various plantations in 1914. The New Zealand administration continued this practice, recruiting labour in Hong Kong under three-year contracts. The number employed, however, has fallen almost progressively, from the 1921 figures of 1,594 to 503 in 1935. The Melanesians, who are no longer recruited, number only 75 and have worked for many years in Western Samoa. Since the return of the goodwill mission, protests have been made against the repatriation of the Chinese, on whom, it is claimed, the continuation of the plantations depends. Recent reports indicate that the New Zealand administration is disposed to allow the Melanesian labourers to remain and is giving careful attention to the question of the retention or repatriation of the Chinese labourers.

Portugal. — The financial reforms and the policy of organising Native production, combined with the international trade revival, appear to have favourably affected the whole of the Portuguese

possessions. The Portuguese Government pursued its policy of colonial development and economic expansion based on the principles of the Colonial Act of 1933, which has been alluded to in previous issues of the *Year-Book*.

The chief national events of the year were the Economic Conference of the Portuguese Colonial Empire and the second Conference of Colonial Governors. The Economic Conference, which is to be held every five years and is attended by experts from the different colonies, examined questions of commercial policy, credit, Native agriculture, European settlement, and colonial equipment. In addressing the Conference the Minister for the Colonies said that the State would follow neither the principles of complete colonial autonomy nor that of rigid centralisation, but would endeavour to reinforce the links between Portugal and its colonial possessions.

The Conference of Colonial Governors, the second session of which opened on 24 October 1936, examined, *inter alia*, existing legislation concerning the education and protection of the Native peoples, as well as amendments which had been proposed and measures of application for the separate colonies; a three-year plan for the advancement of the moral and material welfare of the Native was also considered.

According to the new Minister for the Colonies, Portuguese colonial policy will continue to be based on Native settlement, and from the records of the 1936 Governors Conference it would appear that the Native assistance services have been widely developed in recent years and that large sums are provided in the 1937 colonial budgets for similar purposes. Other important problems, such as that of the participation of Natives in questions of direct Native concern, child welfare and maternity clinics, and the organisation of health services, are being studied.

As regards the economic development of the Portuguese colonies, the situation of which continues to improve, various measures were adopted to encourage trade with Portugal and to promote the cultivation of such crops as cotton, coffee, rice, and tobacco, the imports of which into Portugal considerably increased.

In *Angola* there has been an increasingly favourable trade balance since 1932. The Administration endeavours to expand and improve Native production by measures of selection and standardisation, and the results are stated to be satisfactory. Revenue from export duties for the first ten months of 1936 amounted to 4,410 contos¹, an increase of 40 per cent. over the corresponding figures for 1934 and 1935. The port of Lobito, during the same ten months, exported 34,810 tons of local products as against 24,037 tons from January to October 1935. Marked rises took place in the exports of coffee, maize, and fish. As a result of the application of the Decree of 27 May 1931 regulating

¹ 1 conto = 1,000 escudos.

financial transactions in Angola and of measures taken in regard to credit, the protection of commerce and the encouragement of industry, a number of minor industries were established. Important public works, roads, irrigation schemes, etc., were completed or put in hand in 1936, while, to stimulate development, the competent authorities drew up a programme of new works which will provide for the construction and improvement of harbours, increased technical and social aid for Natives, the extension of the Cassoalala railway line to Dondo, the completion of the Luanda railway, road reconstruction, etc. The Government also intends to set up an agricultural and industrial credit institution.

Problems of education, technical training, and technical and medical assistance for the Natives continued to receive the attention of the competent authorities. In addition to direct State action, agricultural and industrial undertakings were called upon to contribute. The campaign against sleeping sickness was intensified along the Congo frontier. The health services decided to increase the free issue of medicines to Natives employed in agricultural undertakings; and at the period of sowing, selected cotton, rice, maize, and wheat seed was distributed free of charge to the Natives. Agricultural tools will be granted to persons showing particular merit in the cultivation of cotton and of these cereals.

The Government intends to increase the number of secondary schools in each province and to open schools of arts and crafts. The first agricultural school for Native instructors was started. The Government holds that the problem of production in Angola is essentially a problem of Native production, and by a Legislative Order of 2 June 1936 each administrative district is required to organise an experimental farm with the necessary buildings and equipment. The chief purpose of these farms will be to demonstrate improved methods of cultivation and stock-rearing, to train African instructors, and to distribute selected seeds and plants to the Native populations.

In *Mozambique* the economic situation continues to improve. Statistics published in December show that, excluding the territory of Manica and Solfala, foreign trade for the first nine months of 1936 amounted to 2,354,108 contos, an increase of 163,094 contos. The exports of products originating from the colony reached the record figure of 150,878 contos, being 28,024 contos more than for the corresponding period in 1935. In spite of torrential rain, which severely affected the lowlands, the crops in the highlands did not suffer, and the maize and groundnut harvests were exceptionally good. Locusts did not cause much damage during the year.

During 1936 the local administration continued the construction of such important public works as the Northern, Xinavane-Limpopo, and Mozambique railway lines. The sum of 11,000 contos was allocated in the 1937 budget to the construction and maintenance of roads.

New trade schools were opened as well as several agricultural

stations. The Government is developing the technical agricultural services, distributes selected seed, particularly rice and cotton, and encourages the introduction of new Native crops under Ordinances of 22 and 29 July 1936.

As regards medical assistance, mention may be made of the completion of a regional hospital at Nseia, and of a maternity hospital and a Native dispensary at Lourenço Marquês (Ordinance of 21 October 1936). By an Ordinance of 28 October a special mission was set up to deal with sleeping sickness in the south.

As regards labour legislation, mention may be made of an Ordinance of 9 June 1936 concerning Natives recruited in districts under direct administration for employment in the territory of the Mozambique Company. The Ordinance modifies minimum wage rates, regulates recruiting and labour contracts, and provides for Government supervision. An Ordinance of 1 April sanctions regulations concerning health and safety in industrial undertakings.

Portuguese Guinea has suffered severely from the low prices of the basic crops, groundnuts and coco-nuts. Financial reform, however, enabled the Government to provide for the execution of important public works in 1937 and to maintain its medical, agricultural, veterinary and rural educational services. Consequent upon the rise in prices of vegetable oils, which are a Native product, the first nine months of 1936 gave a budget surplus of 1,365 contos.

In view of the importance of agricultural development for raising Native standards, the local Government is endeavouring to foster Native agriculture by the inculcation of new methods of work, which should improve and expand production both for the home and for the export market. In this connection the Agricultural and Veterinary Assistance Fund has done good work, especially on the State lands at Pessubé, where there is an experimental farm. A number of Natives are housed and fed and have the opportunity of learning how to handle agricultural tools and to manage draught animals.

By a Legislative Order of 10 August 1936 the Government set up a council for the inspection of export crops. Among its functions are the selection and standardisation of products and the distribution of tools and seed to Natives.

The Government is endeavouring to develop the work of medical assistance for Natives by dispensary-huts, and to increase the protection of victims of industrial accidents. An Ordinance of 15 June 1936 lays down principles to guide the Committee for the Civilisation and Assistance of Natives in granting pensions and compensation. Beneficiaries will be examined every three months or whenever special circumstances make it advisable. In accordance with their degree of invalidity, Natives will be employed on light work as, for example, messengers in Government offices, assistant caretakers, road superintendents, etc. To avoid the misuse of free State medical assistance, the Government defined in what circumstances the administrative and health authorities may grant indigency certificates. Penalties are provided for offences.

By an Ordinance of 25 May the Government assigned to the competent Committee the necessary powers for the creation of an Association for the Protection of Expectant Mothers and Children.

In the *Cape Verde Islands*, in spite of an increase in customs receipts, the economic situation was still unfavourable. Only by heavy sacrifices was it possible to maintain a balanced budget and to carry out the projects for the economic development of the archipelago. All the nine islands were affected by drought during the year and crops were damaged by locusts. The situation thus remains without appreciable change from last year. The local Government was compelled to take steps to reorganise the public services on the basis of strict economy, and the central Government authorised new credits for the execution of public works likely to foster economic and social progress (Decree of 18 July 1936). A grant of 2,500 contos was made to initiate the operations of the Agricultural Credit Fund founded in 1935: Agricultural technical assistance continued to engage the attention of the Administration. Orange growing was encouraged and experiments were made with a view to the introduction of tobacco and cotton.

The present difficult economic conditions created considerable unemployment, which the administration is endeavouring to reduce by a development scheme and by relief measures. The question of technical and occupational training is also being studied.

In the *Portuguese Indies* the trade balance is unfavourable and the Government is endeavouring to develop Native agriculture intensively. For this purpose it has reorganised the agricultural services. Increases are hoped for in the production of cotton, rice, maize, coffee, pineapples, and sugar cane. The local Administration is also developing settlement in Novas Conquistas, a large area which is rich in pasture land and eminently suited for stock-breeding. The first portion of the Candiapar irrigation canal was completed and the Government decided to grant privileges to Natives willing to farm in the district.

As regards education, primary schools were opened in various districts, and the Government Council decided to found a school of arts and crafts at Damão so as to encourage handicrafts. The special Fund for the Protection of Agriculture is making a grant for the foundation of an Assistance Fund for Rural Workers (Ordinance of 14 July 1936).

In *San Tomé and Príncipe* financial reform has enabled the Administration during the last few years to adopt various measures likely to encourage economic recovery. The 1937 budget contains the sum of 1,032 contos for new public works and the purchase of material. Problems of medical assistance and Native apprenticeship in certain trades are being closely followed by the authorities.

The question of the recruiting of agricultural labour and of the permanent settlement of Native workers and their families is treated in a Decree of 2 October 1936. As a result of the depression the number of Natives employed in the colony has fallen considerably. The Decree fixes the maximum duration of the contract at four years; unless permanently settled, no Native labourers may remain longer than four years even at their own request. At the expiration of the contract all workers who have been recruited in the Cape Verde Islands, Angola, and Mozambique will be repatriated at the employer's expense. In accordance with the 1928 Native Labour Code planters may engage labour directly from the Portuguese African colonies without passing through the intermediary of the San Tomé and Príncipe Recruiting and Immigration Company. Minimum wage rates were laid down for new recruits and present workers on the basis of principles contained in the *modus vivendi* concluded with the Cape Verde Islands, Angola, and Mozambique. Regulations are to be drawn up for the settlement of Native workers and their families.

In *Timor*, where the population numbers 465,655, the Government studied a programme of public works and administrative reorganisation. Native medical assistance and measures against smallpox received its special attention. Mineral prospecting and investigations as to the introduction and development of certain crops are being carried out.

Union of South Africa. — The gold-mining industry continued to prosper and to employ an increasing number of Native labourers. On 30 September 1936 a total of 297,500 Native labourers were employed on the mines of the Witwatersrand. Negotiations were concluded with the Mozambique Government to permit an increase in the Portuguese East African Natives employed on the mines from 80,000 to 90,000. The experimental employment of Natives from tropical territories was also extended.

The Native Trust and Land Act was adopted during the year. Its purpose is to increase the territorial segregation between Europeans and Natives by (1) releasing certain areas for purchase by or on behalf of the Natives, (2) establishing a South African Native Trust to facilitate the acquiring and development of land for the Natives, and (3) controlling still further the conditions under which Natives may remain on land outside the Native areas.

One effect of the Act will be gradually to eliminate squatters, to limit the numbers of labour tenants, and to define their position as in most respects equivalent to that of Native servants under the masters' and servants' laws.

The Native Trust and Land Act is the second stage in the Union Government's legislative programme to provide a certain measure of segregation between Europeans and Natives, the first being a political measure known as the Representation of Natives Act, which was also adopted in 1936. The next step contemplated by

the Government is the adoption of an Act regulating the residence of Natives in urban areas.

THE INTERNATIONAL SITUATION

In regard to Native labour during 1936, the chief feature of the work of the International Labour Organisation was the adoption by the Twentieth Session of the Conference of decisions concerning the recruiting of indigenous workers. After detailed discussion in committee, the Conference adopted a Draft Convention concerning the regulation of certain special systems of recruiting workers by 123 votes to nil, and a Recommendation concerning the progressive elimination of recruiting by 110 votes to nil. Below is given a summary of the chief provisions of the two texts.

After defining "recruiting" and "indigenous workers" the Convention lays down that recruiting may only be permitted if certain conditions concerning the social welfare of the communities concerned have been satisfied. Recruiting, it is provided, should not lead to pressure being brought to bear on the populations, nor should it endanger Native society by the withdrawal of an excessive number of adults and the breaking up of family life. Public officers are not to recruit for private undertakings, and chiefs and other indigenous authorities are also prohibited from acting as recruiting agents. Employers and employers' organisations may recruit only if duly licensed. Licences may be withdrawn if the licensee is guilty of misconduct unfitting him to conduct recruiting operations. Worker-recruiters may be exempted from the obligation to hold a licence on certain conditions. The Convention then enumerates a series of safeguards for actual recruiting operations. Of these the most important are that the workers shall be brought before a public officer, who is to satisfy himself that no abuse has taken place, and that provision shall be made for the medical examination of recruits. Special precautions are prescribed for the journeys of recruited workers, the cost of which is to be borne by the recruiter or employer. Advances are to be limited and regulated. In the case of recruiting for employment in a territory under a different administration, greater protection is to be afforded. Where such employment is on a sufficient scale, detailed agreements are to be made between the administrations of the territory of recruiting and of the territory of employment.

The Recommendation declares that it should be a cardinal principle to be followed by the Members of the International Labour Organisation that their policy should be directed, where necessary and desirable, towards the progressive elimination of the recruiting of labour. To hasten such elimination each Member is invited to take steps to improve conditions of labour, to develop transport, to promote the settlement of workers in the areas of employment, to facilitate the voluntary movement of labour, and to raise the standards of indigenous peoples.

*Ratification and Approval of Conventions and Recommendations
Adopted by the International Labour Conference*¹

Convention No. 29: Forced Labour, 1930

Belgium. — Bill for ratification of the Convention submitted to the Chamber of Representatives on 7 April 1936 (re-submitted on 9 February 1937).

The Bill involves two modifications: the first relates to the exceptions to the definition of forced labour enumerated in Article 2, paragraph 2, of the Convention; the second, which concerns compulsory cultivation, adds a supplementary provision to Article 19 of the Convention.

China. — The Ministry of Industry considered that the Convention was incompatible with the conditions prevailing in China and submitted it, through the Executive Yuan, to the Legislative Yuan for final decision.

France. — The Senate adopted on 18 December 1936 a Bill for ratification of the Convention.

The Bill contains two sorts of modification: the first is of a geographical nature, and excludes from the application of the Convention Réunion, Guyana, St. Pierre and Miquelon, and the Antilles; the second relates to certain provisions of the Conventions, and among other matters excludes from its scope work or services exacted as a tax or of an military character, and waives in the case of public works the limitation to 60 days in the year of the maximum period of forced labour for any one person.

U.S.S.R. — Submitted to the competent authorities.

Convention No. 50: Recruiting of Indigenous Workers, 1936

Australia. — Submitted to Parliament on 19 November 1936.

Great Britain. — Submitted to Parliament in November 1936.

Irish Free State. — Submitted to the Dail on 25 January 1937.

New Zealand. — Submitted to the House of Representatives on 6 October 1936 and to the Legislative Council on 9 October 1936.

Norway. — Bill for ratification submitted to the Storting in March 1937.

Portugal. — Submitted to the competent authority on 29 August 1936.

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

Siam. — Submitted to the competent authorities, who are not at present prepared to take any action.

Sweden. — Submitted to the Riksdag in 1937. The Minister of Social Affairs proposed that the Convention should not be ratified since its provisions had no bearing on Swedish conditions.

Union of South Africa. — The Executive Council decided on 10 November 1936 against ratification of the Convention. The Union does not see its way to altering the existing practice in such a way as to obtain compliance with the provision in Article 20 which renders the employer responsible for the expenses of the journey of recruited workers to the place of employment. Submitted to Parliament on 11 January 1937.

Recommendation No. 46: Elimination of Recruiting, 1936

Communications to the Secretary-General of the League of Nations

France. — The Ministry of Colonies will not fail to draw the attention of the heads of the overseas possessions to the terms of the Recommendation

¹ The information given here relates only to the period 16 March 1936-15 March 1937. See the tables at the end of the volume for the general situation as regards Convention No. 29.

and to give close consideration to the problems which it raises (12 February 1937).

Irish Free State. — Submitted to the Dail on 25 January 1937 (16 February 1937).

New Zealand. — Submitted to the House of Representatives on 6 October 1936 and to the Legislative Council on 9 October 1936 (23 October 1936).

Siam. — Submitted to the competent authorities, who are not at present prepared to take any action (2 February 1937).

Other Information

Australia. — Submitted to Parliament on 19 November 1936.

Great Britain. — Submitted to Parliament in November 1936.

Portugal. — Submitted to the competent authority on 29 August 1936.

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

Sweden. — Submitted to the Riksdag in 1937. The Minister of Social Affairs stated that the Recommendation did not call for any action.

Union of South Africa. — The Executive Council decided on 10 November 1936 against adoption of the Recommendation. Submitted to Parliament on 11 January 1937.

Prison Labour

At its session of October 1936 the Assembly of the League of Nations adopted a Resolution instructing the Secretary-General to notify the International Penal and Penitentiary Commission to undertake, if necessary with the help of the Secretariat of the League, an enquiry into the number of prisoners over 18 years of age in each country and into the measures taken for the reduction of the number of prisoners. Although not immediately concerned with prison labour, this Resolution is of some interest; for every measure tending to reduce the number of prisoners is bound to have some influence on prison labour, since every diminution in the number of prisoners in a prison facilitates the application of prison labour schemes on the one hand and reduces on the other competition between such labour and free labour. The conclusions to which the enquiry leads will therefore be of importance for any subsequent study of prison labour.

Australia (South Australia). — The prison regulations promulgated in the Decree of 15 June 1936 in application of the Prisons Act contain certain provisions dealing with prison labour. Every prisoner must carry out the work assigned to him by the director of the prison, but for those who have not been sentenced to hard labour special regulations concerning particularly the quantity and the nature of their work may be made. The working day in prisons is of about 7 hours. A prisoner condemned to 3 months' hard labour or more whose conduct and work are good, may obtain for each day's work two or three tokens whose value is placed to his credit. In this way part of the sentence, calculated at the rate of one day for every six tokens obtained, may be

remitted. Tokens obtained for good work are credited to the prisoner, the value of each token being one-third of a penny. If on the other hand the prisoner's conduct is bad, tokens may be taken away from him as a punishment. In special cases a prisoner having a sum of £1 or more to his credit may with the authorisation of the competent prison official remit a part of this sum to his relatives, if they are of good character and if they are in need.

An account is kept for each prisoner, and any sum standing to his credit at the date of his discharge is paid over to him. The director of the prison may if he so decides return to a prisoner tokens lost as a result of sickness or any such cause. Prisoners serving sentences of less than 3 months' hard labour may receive a small sum of money on their discharge.

In order to interest the prisoners in the results of their work the director of a prison may give bonuses up to 10d. a day to those serving sentences of 3 months' hard labour or more. In special cases he may also remit part of the sentence as a reward for good work and good conduct.

The bonuses vary according to the nature, quality and quantity of the work done by the prisoner.

Prisoners serving sentences of 9 months' hard labour or more who have to their credit bonuses whose value amounts to £1 0s. 10d. may use half of the weekly earnings obtained in excess of this sum for the purchase of certain articles authorised by the director of the prison—butter, fruit, tobacco, etc.

Cuba. — The Acts of 4 April 1936 relating to social defence (Penal Code) and the serving of sentences contain several provisions on prison labour.

The regulations contained in the Social Defence Act provide that labour is compulsory for every person sentenced to imprisonment. Prisoners without occupational training must learn a trade. Illiterates must receive elementary education.

Prisoners doing compulsory labour may not be employed in the service of private individuals or on public works carried out by private individuals under Government contracts. Women, adolescents, and sick persons may not be employed except in indoor work in the prison. Those confined in asylums and hospitals may only be compelled to work if the authorisation of a recognised doctor is obtained.

The yield of prison labour must be used firstly for the compensation of the victim of the offence; secondly for recovering prison expenses; and thirdly for the creation of a reserve fund for the prisoner or his heirs. Until requirements under the first two heads are fully met, not more than one-third of the yield of the prisoner's labour may be paid into the reserve fund. When these requirements have been met, however, and when the prisoner has paid all maintenance and other charges, the whole of the rest of the yield is transferred to the reserve fund.

The Act relating to the serving of sentences provides that the prison director must assign to each prisoner suitable work as shown by the results of an examination of the prisoner on arrival and with reference to his physical condition, occupation, social standing, and usual activities. The only persons who may be exempted from the obligation to work are those aged over 60 years, those suffering from a disease rendering them incapable of work, and pregnant women from the third month of pregnancy.

Every accident occurring in the course of prison labour which is not attributable to the negligence, intention or imprudence of the prisoner and which causes permanent incapacity for work or the death of the victim, entitles him or his dependants to compensation, which is paid from a special fund.

Prison labour is intended primarily to satisfy the internal needs of the prison. When these requirements have been met the produce of such labour may be sold to public institutions or private individuals. Any profits which result from such sale must be devoted to the creation of a special fund for the sole purpose of paying compensation, as has been explained above, to the victims of accidents occurring in the course of the work.

Every prisoner is provided with an account book in which the sums placed to his credit—wages earned and other payments—are entered. The conditions of work, hours, wage rates, etc., are fixed by regulation.

The Supreme Council of Social Defence, which is composed of a Technical and an Administrative Section, is responsible for the administration of prisons. This Council must make regulations governing the internal working of the prisons, including prison labour. It must also draw up the scheme for the compensation of victims of accidents occurring in the course of work, and supervise the organisation and management of the special fund. The Administrative Section of the Council is responsible for the creation and operation of the industries, manufacturing processes, etc. carried on in prisons, and for the proper utilisation and distribution of the produce, providing in the first place for the satisfaction of the internal requirements of the prisons themselves.

Estonia. — The Prisons Act of 1931¹ was amended by an Act of 27 March 1936, instituting a system of tokens for conduct and work in prisons. In the course of a month a prisoner can earn one or two tokens according as his conduct and work are considered satisfactory or good; he may also lose tokens if his conduct or work are unsatisfactory. Sentences being graded, a prisoner who does not obtain a sufficient number of tokens is transferred to a lower grade.

India. — The Government of the State of Johore is authorised by the Prisons Act of 14 April 1936 to make regulations regarding

¹ Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1935-36*, p. 521.

the different kinds of work which may be assigned to prisoners in different degrees of confinement, and the manner and place of this work. The Government may also determine the destination of the produce of prison labour and regulate the organisation of associations to assist discharged prisoners.

Latvia. — The Act of 20 June 1936 relating to the prison system contains a chapter dealing with prison labour. In order to accustom prisoners to productive work and to teach them a trade and the means of earning their living after their discharge, every prison must organise work of various kinds, including agricultural work. A special fund must be created and supported out of profits on prison-made goods, donations, etc., which fund will defray expenses connected with the work, the payment of the staff and of the prisoners, and the prisoners' accident insurance.

The prisoners will be paid by the day or by the piece. The rates may not exceed those obtaining in the free labour market. The prisoners receive 50 per cent. of their wages, the rest being paid into the fund. The profits of the fund are distributed as follows: 20 per cent. for the supervisory staff; up to 10 per cent. for the creation of a reserve fund for discharged prisoners; the rest is paid into a building fund.

Lithuania. — In order to employ for work of public utility individuals under detention as a result of administrative decisions, an Act of 12 November 1936 provides for the creation of compulsory labour establishments. Prisoners certified by a doctor to be capable of hard labour will be placed in these establishments on the decision of the Minister of the Interior or of the Army High Command. These authorities will also fix the duration of such detention, which must not exceed one year. Labour is compulsory and not remunerated. In the case of particularly good work, however, a bonus can be granted to a prisoner. In the case of indiscipline, on the other hand, the duration of his detention may be prolonged by one half.

Peru. — By a Supreme Resolution of 9 November 1936 a Committee was set up to examine the question of the industrialisation of existing workshops in penitentiary establishments and the creation and economic organisation of new workshops.

Poland. — The prison system is about to be reorganised. In April 1936 the Minister of Justice decided on the creation, as an experiment, of a number of labour centres for prisoners serving sentences of up to one year for slight offences. Five such centres were created in the course of June 1936. The prisoners working in them are engaged on public works which do not compete with the unemployment relief works organised by the Employment Fund. The prisoners are carefully selected for this scheme; they work 8 hours per day; they receive larger rations than in the prisons and must strictly observe rules of hygiene.

In a statement made to the Diet on 11 January 1937 the Minister of Justice declared that the employment of prisoners on public works had produced very satisfactory results, and announced that a Bill would shortly be brought forward for the reform of the prison system. This Bill will deal in particular with the introduction of compulsory unpaid work for prisoners. The Minister is of the opinion that if such work were paid, the prisoners would in a sense be privileged in comparison with workers on the open market, who had to provide not only for their own maintenance but also as a rule for that of large families, from the wages which they earned; as compared with the unemployed the prisoners' position would be still more advantageous, the Minister pointed out, if their work were paid. The State provided for the maintenance of prisoners and therefore had the right to the equivalent of its expenses in the form of work. The Bill will provide, however, that prisoners whose work is exemplary may be rewarded and may receive help in cash at the time of their discharge.

United States. — Previous editions of the *Year-Book* have referred to two Federal laws dealing with prison labour. The first, that of 19 January 1929, termed the Hawes-Cooper Act¹; authorises any State in the Union to prohibit the sale of prison-made goods from another State. The second, dated 24 July 1935 and known as the Ashurst-Sumners Act² was intended to supplement the first. It prohibits the transportation of prison-made goods into a State which has forbidden the sale of such goods, and specifies the labels which must be affixed to every package containing such goods.

The constitutionality of these two Acts having been contested, the question was finally taken to the Supreme Court of the United States. In two decisions, one of 2 March 1936, relating to the 1929 Act, and one of 4 January 1937, relating to the 1935 Act, the Court declared them constitutional.

In the first case the attack was directed against an Ohio law prohibiting under the Hawes-Cooper Act the sale of prison-made goods. The Court considered that this law did not illegally restrict interstate commerce, and that the Federal Act was not an unconstitutional delegation of the authority of Congress to the States.

In the second case the Court considered that Congress had acted within its powers and for the general good. If it had authorised the free transportation of prison-made goods, it would have encouraged those individuals who attempted to evade the laws made by the various States for the protection of persons and property. In the opinion of the Court trade in prison-made goods, even if the goods are not in themselves harmful, may have harmful consequences; and if in order to prevent these consequences the States have power to prohibit such trade, Congress ought also to have power to regulate

¹ Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1932*, p. 378.

² Cf. *I.L.O. Year-Book 1935-36*, p. 522.

interstate commerce with a view to aiding the enforcement of these State laws.

This policy, which aims at the exclusion as far as possible of prison-made goods from the free market, was also confirmed by the Federal Act of 30 June 1936 relating to conditions of labour in the execution of Government contracts (the Walsh-Healey Act)¹, which forbids such contractors to have recourse to prison labour for the production or supply of materials or articles of any kind in the carrying out of public contracts.

¹ See above, Chapter VII, under "The Individual Contract of Service".

APPENDIX

I. — List of States Members of the International Labour Organisation

Afghanistan	Ethiopia	Nicaragua
Albania	Finland	Norway
Argentina	France	Panama
Australia	Greece	Paraguay
Austria	Guatemala	Peru
Belgium	Haiti	Poland
Bolivia	Honduras	Portugal
Brazil	Hungary	Rumania
British Empire	India	Salvador
Bulgaria	Iran	Siam
Canada	'Iraq	Spain
Chile	Irish Free State	Sweden
China	Italy	Switzerland
Colombia	Japan	Turkey
Cuba	Latvia	Union of South Africa
Czechoslovakia	Liberia	Union of Soviet Socialist
Denmark	Lithuania	Republics
Dominican Republic	Luxemburg	United States of America
Ecuador	Mexico	Uruguay
Egypt	Netherlands	Venezuela
Estonia	New Zealand	Yugoslavia

II. — List of Permanent Delegates accredited to the International Labour Office and to the League of Nations

- Afghanistan*: Mr. Mohammed Haidar Khan, Minister Plenipotentiary.
- Albania*: Mr. T. Luarassi, Chargé d'Affaires *ad interim*.
- Argentina*: Mr. E. Ruiz-Guiñazú, Minister Plenipotentiary.
- Bulgaria*: Mr. Momtchiloff, Minister Plenipotentiary.
- Canada*: Dr. W. A. Riddell, Permanent Advisory Officer, Member of the Governing Body of the International Labour Office.
- Chile*: Mr. F. García-Oldini, Minister Plenipotentiary ¹.
- China*: Mr. Hoo Chi-Tsai, Minister Plenipotentiary, Director of the Permanent Office of the Chinese Delegation ².
- Colombia*: Mr. E. Santos, Minister Plenipotentiary.
- Cuba*: Mr. G. de Blanck, Minister Plenipotentiary.
- Czechoslovakia*: Mr. Künzl-Jizerský, Minister Plenipotentiary.
- Denmark*: Mr. W. Borberg, Minister Plenipotentiary.
- Ecuador*: Mr. A. Quevedo, Minister Plenipotentiary.
- Finland*: Mr. P. O. I. Hjelt, Permanent Delegate *ad interim*.
- Greece*: Mr. S. Polycroniades, Minister Plenipotentiary.
- Hungary*: Mr. L. de Velics, Minister Plenipotentiary.
- Iran*: Mr. Abdollah Bahramy, Permanent Delegate.

¹ Accredited to the International Labour Office only.

² Mr. Li Ping-Heng, Member of the Governing Body, at present resident in Geneva, maintains relations between his Government and the Office.

- Iraq*: Mr. Sahib Bey Najib, Permanent Delegate.
Irish Free State: Mr. F. T. Cremins, Permanent Delegate.
Japan: Mr. J. Kitaoka, Member of the Governing Body of the International Labour Office¹.
Latvia: Mr. J. Feldmans, Minister Plenipotentiary.
Liberia: Mr. O. de Bogaerde, Minister Plenipotentiary.
Mexico: Mr. I. Fabela, Minister Plenipotentiary, Member of the Governing Body of the International Labour Office.
Norway: Mr. S. O. Maseng, Permanent Delegate.
Peru: Mr. R. Porras Barrenechea, Minister Plenipotentiary.
Poland: Mr. T. Komarnicki, Minister Plenipotentiary.
Portugal: Mr. L. Esteves Fernandes, Chargé d'Affaires.
Rumania: Mr. G. Crutzesco, Minister Plenipotentiary.
Turkey: Mr. Necmeddin Sadak, Minister Plenipotentiary.
Union of South Africa: Mr. H. T. Andrews, Permanent Delegate.
United States of America: Mr. Carter Goodrich, Labour Commissioner¹.
Uruguay: Mr. V. Benavides, Minister Plenipotentiary¹.
Venezuela: Mr. M. Arocha, Minister Plenipotentiary.
Yugoslavia: Mr. I. Soubbotitch, Permanent Delegate.

III. — Distribution of the Fifty Ratifications Registered from 16 March 1936 to 15 March 1937

A. — BY CONVENTIONS

- Minimum age (sea), 1920 (No. 7)*: Brazil, China.
Unemployment indemnity (shipwreck), 1920 (No. 8): Norway.
Minimum age (agriculture), 1921 (No. 10): Argentina.
Right of association (agriculture), 1921 (No. 11): Argentina.
Workmen's compensation (agriculture), 1921 (No. 12): Argentina.
White lead (painting), 1921 (No. 13): Argentina.
Weekly rest (industry), 1921 (No. 14): Argentina.
Minimum age (trimmers and stokers), 1921 (No. 15): Argentina, China.
Medical examination of young persons (sea), 1921 (No. 16): Argentina, Brazil, China.
Workmen's compensation (accidents), 1925 (No. 17): Austria.
Equality of treatment (accident compensation), 1925 (No. 19): Greece.
Night work (bakeries), 1925 (No. 20): Irish Free State.
Seamen's articles of agreement, 1926 (No. 22): China.
Repatriation of seamen, 1926 (No. 23): China.
Minimum wage-fixing machinery, 1928 (No. 26): Netherlands.
Marking of the weight on packages transported by vessel, 1929 (No. 27): Greece.
Old age, invalidity and survivors' insurance (industry, etc.), (agriculture), 1933 (Nos. 35-40): Great Britain.
Night work (women), (revised), 1934 (No. 41): Brazil, Great Britain, Greece, Hungary, Irish Free State, Switzerland.
Workmen's compensation (occupational diseases), (revised), 1934 (No. 42): Brazil, Cuba, Great Britain, Irish Free State, Japan, Sweden.
Sheet-glass works, 1934 (No. 43): Great Britain.

¹ Accredited to the International Labour Office only.

Unemployment provision, 1934 (No. 44): Great Britain.

Underground work (women), 1935 (No. 45): China, Cuba, Great Britain, Greece, Irish Free State, Netherlands, Sweden, Union of South Africa.

Hours of work (coal mines), (revised), 1935 (No. 46): Cuba.

Reduction of hours of work (glass-bottle works), 1935 (No. 49): Norway.

B. — BY COUNTRIES

Argentina	7	Irish Free State	4
Austria	1	Japan	1
Brazil	4	Netherlands	2
China	6	Norway	2
Cuba	3	Sweden	2
Great Britain	11	Switzerland	1
Greece	4	Union of South Africa	1
Hungary	1		

IV. — Representation at the Conference and Composition of Delegations

Session	Number of States represented by complete delegations	Number of States represented by one or more Government delegates only	Number of States represented by incomplete delegations composed otherwise	Total number of States represented
Washington, 1919	24	14	2	40
Genoa, 1920	16	7	4	27
Geneva, 1921	25	14	0	39
Geneva, 1922	20	17	2	39
Geneva, 1923	23	16	3	42
Geneva, 1924	24	14	2	40
Geneva, 1925	29	13	4	46
Geneva, 1926:				
Ordinary Session	28	8	3	39
Maritime Session	27	8	3	38
Geneva, 1927	32	8	3	43
Geneva, 1928	35	8	3	46
Geneva, 1929:				
Ordinary Session	35	13	2	50
Maritime Session	22	9	3	34
Geneva, 1930	33	16	2	51
Geneva, 1931	29	17	3	49
Geneva, 1932	30	15	4	49
Geneva, 1933	33	11	5	49
Geneva, 1934	27	20	2	49
Geneva, 1935	32	16	4	52
Geneva, 1936:				
Ordinary Session	32	15	4	51
Maritime Session	18	11	4	33

V. — Governing Body

CHANGES IN COMPOSITION BETWEEN 1 FEBRUARY 1936 AND 15 FEBRUARY 1937

Group of the Governing Body and country represented	Former member	New member
<i>Government Group</i>		
Regular members:		
India	Sir Bhupendra Nath Mitra	Sir Firoz Khan Noon
Japan	Mr. Yoshisaka	Mr. Kitaoka
Mexico	Mr. Estrada Cajigal	Mr. Villa Michel
Poland	Mr. Jurkiewicz	Mr. Komarnicki
Spain	Mr. Ruiz Manent ¹	Mr. Fabra Ribas ¹
United States of America	Mr. Rice	Mr. Goodrich
<i>Employers' Group</i>		
Regular members	Mr. Erulkar	Mr. Gemmill ²
Deputy members	Mr. Gemmill	Mr. Erulkar ²
<i>Workers' Group</i>		
Regular members	Mr. Johanson ³	Mr. Andersson ³

¹ Between the Seventy-fifth Session (April 1936) and the Seventy-seventh Session (November 1936) the representative of the Spanish Government on the Governing Body was Mr. de Buen.

² Change effected in accordance with the system of rotation instituted by the employers' group, as between the three extra-European members, for the two regular members' seats and the one deputy member's seat. The present appointments are valid from the beginning of the Seventy-seventh Session (November 1936) until the re-election of the Governing Body, which will take place at the Twenty-third Session of the International Labour Conference in 1937.

³ Between the Seventy-fifth Session (April 1936) and the Seventy-seventh Session (November 1936) Mr. Johanson was replaced by Mr. Forslund.

VI. — Committees

A. — COMPOSITION OF NEW COMMITTEES

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

5 (a). *Sub-Committee on Silicosis of the Correspondence Committee on Industrial Hygiene*

Experts:

Dr. Badham (Australian), Dr. Gardner (United States), Dr. Gudjonsson (Danish), Dr. Irvine (South African), Dr. Middleton (British), Dr. Orenstein (South African), Dr. Russell (United States) ¹.

¹ Professor Kettle, who was appointed a member of the Sub-Committee, died recently.

12. *Committee of Experts on Workers' Nutrition*

Chairman: Mr. Bramsnaes.

Representatives of the Governing Body:

Government Group: Mr. Kitaoka (substitute: Mr. Pardo).

Employers' Group: Mr. Olivetti (substitute: Mr. Erulkar).

Workers' Group: Mr. Hayday (substitute: Mr. Schürch).

Experts:

Mr. Cathcart (British), Mr. Dürig (Austrian), Mr. Halbwachs (French),
Mr. Jaeggi (Swiss), Miss Faith Williams (United States).

13. *Advisory Committee of Correspondents on Workers' Spare Time*

Executive Committee, composed of representatives of the Governing Body:

Government Group: Mr. de Michelis, Mr. Kitaoka (substitute: Mr. Goodrich).

Employers' Group: Mr. Olivetti, Mr. Tzaut (substitutes: Mr. Camuzzi, Mr. Lecocq).

Workers' Group: Mr. Jouhau, Mr. Serrarens (substitutes: Mr. Němeček, Mr. Schürch).

Experts:

(not yet appointed.)

14. *Permanent Agricultural Committee*

Group A (regular members):

1. Representatives of the Governing Body:

Government Group: Mr. Picquenard, Mr. Ruiz Guiñazú (substitutes: Mr. de Michelis, Mr. Riddell).

Employers' Group: Mr. Oersted, Mr. Vaněk (substitutes: Mr. Čurčín, Mr. Olivetti).

Workers' Group: Mr. Caballero, Mr. Schürch (substitutes: Mr. Jensen, Mr. Němeček).

2. Representatives of agricultural employers' organisations:

Mr. Bninski (Polish), Mr. Carrell (Swedish), Mr. Deakin (British), Mr. Klindera (Czechoslovak), Mr. Popović (Yugoslav), Mr. Zappi-Recordati (Italian).

Substitutes: Mr. Eichinger (Austrian), Mr. Hynninen (Finnish), Mr. Mullie (Belgian), Mr. Prokes (Czechoslovak), Mr.¹ (United States), Mr.¹ (India).

3. Representatives of agricultural workers' organisations:

Mr. Angelini (Italian), Mr. Hiemstra (Netherlands), Mr. Holmes (British), Mr. Levinsen (Danish), Mr. Ødegaard (Norwegian), (one seat vacant).

Substitutes: (not yet appointed).

4. Other agricultural experts:

Europe: Mr. Henri Queille (French), Mr. Krudy (Hungarian), Mr. Alexandrescu-Roman (Rumanian), Mr. Borel (Swiss), Mr. Yeremitch (Yugoslav), Mr.¹ (U.S.S.R.).

America: Mr. Coni (Argentine), Mr.¹ (Brazilian), Mr. Booth (Canadian), Mr.¹ (United States), Mr. Meza (Mexican).

Asia: Mr. Tsou Ping-Wen (Chinese), Mr. Zaman (Indian), Mr. Yamazoe (Japanese).

¹ Not yet appointed.

Australia: Mr. MacDougall (Australian).

Substitutes: *Europe*: Mr. Stojković (Yugoslav); *America*: Mr. Fernandez y Fernandez (Mexican).

Group B (representatives of international institutions and organisations dealing with social problems in agriculture):

International Institute of Agriculture (6 seats).

International Commission of Agriculture (1 seat).

International Organisation of Industrial Employers (1 seat).

International Landworkers' Organisation (1 seat).

International Federation of Agricultural Technicians (1 seat).

Group C (individual experts appointed ad hoc).

B. — CHANGES IN THE COMPOSITION OF THE VARIOUS COMMITTEES

I. *Mixed Committees composed of Members of the Governing Body and of Experts or Representatives of Other Institutions*

Committee	Former member	New member
Correspondence Committee on Accident Prevention	<i>Representatives of the Governing Body:</i>	
	<i>Government Group:</i>	
	Mr. Ruiz Manent	Mr. Fabra Ribas ¹
	Substitute:	
	Mr. Jurkiewicz	Mr. Komarnicki
	<i>Experts:</i>	
	Mr. Hackett (United States)	Mr. George C. Daniels (United States)
	—	Mr. Helfenstein (Swiss)
	Mr. Eichhorn (Polish)	Mr. Mazurkiewicz (Polish)
	—	Mr. Pavlakis (Greek)
Mr. Deladrière (Belgian)	Mr. Verwilt (Belgian)	
—	Mr. Grant Winbolt (British)	
—	—	
Mr. Massarelli (Italian)		
Correspondence Committee on Social Insurance		<i>Representatives of the Governing Body:</i>
		<i>Government Group:</i>
	—	Mr. Nečas
	—	Substitute:
		Mr. Mannio
	—	<i>Employers' Group:</i>
		Mr. Forbes Watson
—	<i>Workers' Group:</i>	
	Mr. Kupers	
—	Substitute:	
	Mr. Němeček	

¹ From April to November 1936, the seat was occupied by Mr. de Buen (see p. 560, note 1).

Committee	Former member	New member
Correspondence Committee on Social Insurance (<i>cont.</i>)	<i>Experts (cont.):</i>	
	—	Prof. Acerboni (Argentine)
	Mr. Vilkaitis (Lithuanian)	Mr. Akelaitis (Lithuanian)
	—	Mr. Frank Bane (United States)
	Prof. Brezina (Austrian)	Mr. Franz Burda (Austrian)
	Mr. Aron (French)	Mr. Chéneau de Leyritz (French)
	Mr. Makowiecki (Polish)	Dr. Dyboski (Polish)
	Dr. Buchgraber (Austrian)	Dr. Eberhartinger (Austrian)
	—	Dr. Fonticelli (Uruguayan)
	—	Prof. J. G. Galé (Argentine)
	—	Mr. Paul Henry (French)
	—	Mr. Hugo Hormaeche (Uruguayan)
	Mr. Breit (Austrian)	Dr. Robert Kerber (Austrian)
	Dr. Glibert (Belgian)	Dr. Langelez (Belgian)
	Dr. Geza Pap (Hungarian)	Dr. Lengyel (Hungarian)
	—	Mr. Martin (French)
	—	Mr. Nagase (Japanese)
	Mr. de Montmorency (British)	Mr. Neville (British)
	—	Dr. Daniel Rivera (Argentine)
	—	Dr. Emilio San Juan (Uruguayan)
	Mr. Andersson (Swedish)	Mr. Tegedal (Swedish)
	—	Prof. Unsain (Argentine)
	—	Mr. W. L. Williamson (United States)
	—	Dr. Edwin Witte (United States)
	Prof. Dersch (German)	—
Mr. Friedli (Swiss)	—	
Prof. Fuster (French)	—	
Dr. Heimann (German)	—	
Mr. Jablonski (Latvian)	—	
Mr. Lehmann (German)	—	
Mr. Mochanoff (Bulgarian)	—	

Committee	Former member	New member
Correspondence Committee on Social Insurance (cont.)	<i>Experts (cont.):</i>	
	Mr. Gaston Roussel (French)	—
	Dr. Isaac Rubinow (United States)	—
	Mr. Tomasini (French)	—
	Dr. Winter (Czechoslovak)	—
Committee on Automatic Coupling	<i>Representatives of the Governing Body:</i>	
	<i>Government Group:</i>	
	Mr. Ruiz Manent	Mr. Fabra Ribas ¹
	Substitute:	
	Mr. Yoshisaka	Mr. Kitaoka
Advisory Committee on Salaried Employees	<i>Members of the Committee:</i>	
	<i>Employers' Group:</i>	
	Mr. de Tolnay (Hungarian)	One vacant seat
	Substitute: —	
	Mr. Aufhäuser (German)	Mr. Schürch
Correspondence Committee on Industrial Hygiene	<i>Members representing salaried employees:</i>	
	Mr. Aufhäuser (German)	Mr. Lundgren (Swedish)
	One vacant seat	Mr. Nauta (Netherlands)
	<i>Representatives of the Governing Body:</i>	
	<i>Government Group:</i>	
Correspondence Committee on Industrial Hygiene	Mr. Jurkiewicz	Mr. Komarnicki
	Substitute: Mr. Estrada Cajigal	Mr. Villa Michel
	<i>Workers' Group:</i>	
	Mr. Johanson	Mr. Andersson ²
	<i>Experts on industrial hygiene:</i>	
	—	Dr. Badham (Australian)
	—	Mr. Desvaux (French)
	—	Mr. van Luyt (Netherlands)
	—	Dr. Middleton (British)
	Prof. Cristiani (Swiss)	Dr. Pometta (Swiss)
	—	Dr. Urbandt (Argentine)
	Prof. Biondi (Italian)	—
Mr. E. L. Collis (British)	—	
Prof. Kettle (British)	—	

¹ From April to November 1936, the seat was occupied by Mr. de Buen (see p. 560, note 1).

² From April to November 1936, the seat was occupied by Mr. Forslund (see p. 560, note 3).

Committee	Former member	New member
Committee of Experts on Native Labour	— — — —	<i>Representatives of the Governing Body:</i> <i>Government Group:</i> Mr. Bandeira de Mello Substitute: Mr. Villa Michel <i>Employers' Group:</i> Mr. Gemmill Substitute: Mr. Gérard <i>Workers' Group:</i> Mr. Jouhaux Substitute: Mr. Kupers <i>Experts:</i> Mr. Gohr (Belgian) Mr. Deladrier (Belgian)
Advisory Committee on Professional Workers	<i>Representatives of the Governing Body:</i> <i>Government Group:</i> Mr. Ruiz Manent Substitute: Mr. Estrada Cajigal	Mr. Fabra Ribas ¹ Mr. Villa Michel
Joint Maritime Commission	<i>Regular members:</i> <i>Workers' Group:</i> Substitute: Mr. Yonekubo <i>Shipowners:</i> Mr. Brett	Mr. Jouhaux Mr. Snedden
Migration Committee	<i>Representatives of the Governing Body:</i> <i>Government Group:</i> Mr. Jurkiewicz Mr. Yoshisaka <i>Employers' Group:</i> Substitute: Mr. Mircea	Mr. Komarnicki Mr. Kitaoka Mr. Čurčin
Advisory Committee on Management	<i>Representatives of the Governing Body:</i> <i>Government Group:</i> Mr. Ruiz Manent Mr. Estrada Cajigal	Mr. Fabra Ribas ¹ Mr. Villa Michel
Technical Committee on Glass Works	<i>Representatives of the Governing Body:</i> <i>Government Group:</i> Substitute: Mr. Yoshisaka <i>Employers' experts:</i> One vacant seat	Mr. Kitaoka Mr. Delacuvellerie

¹ From April to November 1936, the seat was occupied by Mr. de Buen (see p. 605, note 1).

II. *Committees of Experts*

Committee	Former member	New member
Committee of Experts on the Application of Conventions	Sir Selwyn Fremantle (Indian) Mr. Jules Gautier (French) Mr. Gini (Italian) — —	Sir Atul Chatterjee (Indian) One vacant seat Mr. Perassi (Italian) Mr. Yoshisaka (Japanese) Three vacant seats
Correspondence Committee on Women's Work	Dame Adelaide Anderson (British) Miss Mary Dingman (United States)	— Mrs. C. Beresford Fox (United States)
Correspondence Committee on Social Insurance	As this Committee will in future include representatives of the Governing Body, it has been classified in category I (Mixed Committees).	
Committee of Experts on Native Labour	As this Committee will in future include representatives of the Governing Body, it has been classified in category I (Mixed Committees).	

VII. — Statistics of International and National Federations of Trade Unions

Table I relates to the international trade union federations and gives statistics of membership at 1 January 1935 and 1 January 1936.

Table II relates to the international trade secretariats and gives the statistics of membership at 1 January 1935 and 1 January 1936, indicating also their orientation or affiliation.

Table III gives statistics of membership of national federations of trade unions. The particular international organisation to which each national federation is affiliated or whose programme and policy it adopts is indicated by signs, explained below. In addition, information is given where available, under the heading "non-affiliated organisations", on the membership of certain workers' organisations which, while not affiliated to the national federation below which they are mentioned, accept its programme and policy. These figures of non-affiliated unions do not therefore represent the total membership of all unions not affiliated to the national federations.

Table IV summarises the figures of table III;—for the reasons mentioned in the preceding paragraph it does not represent the total trade union membership in the different countries but only that of national federations and of certain unions, not affiliated to these federations, yet accepting their programme and policy.

[The membership figures in the following tables are given on the responsibility of the trade union bodies concerned, by whom they have been supplied to the International Labour Office, except where other sources are quoted.]

EXPLANATION OF THE SIGNS

- ‡ International Federation of Trade Unions, Paris.
- ¶ International Federation of Christian Trade Unions, Utrecht.
- + International Federation of Non-political Independent Trade Unions, Utrecht.
- § Red International of Labour Unions, Moscow.
- † International Working Men's Association, Paris.
- State Trade Unions (created under the auspices of the State).
- * Other tendencies.

I. — NAME, HEADQUARTERS, AND MEMBERSHIP OF INTERNATIONAL
TRADE UNION FEDERATIONS

Name	Total membership 1 January		Number of countries 1 January	
	1935	1936	1935	1936
‡ International Federa- tion of Trade Unions, Paris	8,216,165	10,500,375	26	25
¶ International Federa- tion of Christian Trade Unions, Utrecht . .	1,007,153	1,026,348	10	9
§ Red International of Labour Unions, Moscow	?	?	?	?
† International Work- ing Men's Associa- tion, Paris	?	7,450,000	?	18
+ International Federa- ration of Non-Political Independent Trade Unions, Utrecht . .	263,500	261,423	9	9
* Pan-American Federa- tion of Labor, Wash- ington, D.C.	3,770,347 ¹	3,981,347	15	15

¹ Membership figures of four countries only, viz. Mexico, Puerto Rico, United States, and Venezuela. Data for the other eleven countries not available.

II. — NAME, HEADQUARTERS, AND MEMBERSHIP OF THE INTERNATIONAL FEDERATIONS OF CRAFTS AND INDUSTRIES
(INTERNATIONAL TRADE SECRETARIATS)

[The figures given in parentheses indicate the number of affiliated countries. The letters A—Y given in these tables refer to the list of industries given in the Introduction to the Year-Book of Labour Statistics.]

Name and headquarters	Orientation I.F.T.U. †		Affiliated I.F.C.T.U. ‡		Other tendencies *	
	1 January		1 January		1 January	
	1935	1936	1935	1936	1935	1936
A Land Workers' Federation: International, Utrecht	164,878 ¹ (14)	342,000 ¹ (13)	—	—	—	—
Agricultural Workers' Trade Unions: International Federation of Christian, Harlem.	—	—	55,600 (3)	?	—	—
B Miners' International Federation, London	1,422,600 (14)	1,030,900 ¹ (13)	—	—	—	—
Miners' Trade Unions: International Federation of Christian, Brussels.	—	—	52,483 (6)	57,590 (7)	—	—
C Metal Workers' Federation: International, Berne	774,913 (17)	± 850,000 (16)	—	—	—	—
Metal Workers' Trade Unions: International Federation of Christian, Utrecht	—	—	96,656 (8)	93,347 (9)	—	—
D Stone Workers: International Secretariat of, Zurich	53,323 (11)	48,923 (9)	—	—	—	—
Glass Workers: International Federation of, Paris	34,205 (9)	± 20,000 ² (4)	—	—	—	—
Pottery Workers: International Federation of, Teplitz-Schönau	27,365 (5)	30,536 (5)	—	—	—	—

¹ Membership figures for Spain not included.

² Fusion is being discussed between this Federation and the International Federation of General Factory Workers; organisations embracing glassworkers in some countries are already affiliated to the latter. (Communication of the International Federation of General Factory Workers.)

I. — NAME, HEADQUARTERS AND MEMBERSHIP OF THE INTERNATIONAL FEDERATIONS OF CRAFTS AND INDUSTRIES
(INTERNATIONAL TRADE SECRETARIATS) (continued)

Name and headquarters	Orientation I.F.T.U. †		Affiliated I.F.C.T.U. †		Other tendencies *	
	1 January		1 January		1 January	
	1935	1936	1935	1936	1935	1936
E/F Building and Woodworkers: International Federation of, Amsterdam	670,279 (21)	746,866 (24)	—	—	—	—
E Building Operatives: International Federation of Christian, Utrecht	—	—	104,067 (7)	82,723 (7)	—	—
F Painters' Federation: International, Amsterdam	76,554 (12)	± 30,000 ¹ (9)	—	—	—	—
F Wood Workers: International Federation of Christian, Zurich	—	—	33,686 (6)	32,913 (5)	—	—
G Typographical Secretariat: International, Berne	430,335 (23)	429,064 (22)	—	—	—	—
Lithographers and Kindred Trades: International Federation of, Amsterdam	± 25,000 (16)	± 25,000 (15)	—	—	—	—
Bookbinders and Kindred Trades: International Federation of, Copenhagen	41,697 (42)	53,567 (42)	—	—	—	—
Graphical Trades: International Federation of Trade Unions of Christian Workers in the, Amsterdam	—	—	13,217 (5)	15,656 (5)	—	—
H Textile Workers' Associations: International Federation of, London	511,485 (44)	497,464 (45)	—	—	—	—
Textile Workers' Trade Unions: International Federation of Christian, Utrecht	—	—	122,231 (5)	111,579 (5)	—	—

I	Clothing Workers' Federation: International, Amsterdam	231,487 (17)	491,455 (16)	—	—	—	—
	Hatters: International Federation of, Paris	8,050 (8)	8,390 (6)	—	—	—	—
I/j	Boot and Shoe Operatives and Leather Workers' Federation: International, London	158,711 (14)	160,808 (14)	—	—	—	—
L	Food and Drink Workers: International Union of, Zurich	159,342 (21)	168,847 (20)	—	—	—	—
	Food and Drink Trades: International Federation of Trade Unions of Christian Workers in the, Utrecht	—	—	12,000 (4)	?	—	—
	Tobacco Workers: International Federation of, Copenhagen	37,534 (9)	34,704 (8)	—	—	—	—
	Tobacco Workers: International Federation of Christian, Eindhoven (Netherlands)	—	—	18,450 (5)	19,792 (5)	—	—
N/O	Transport Workers' Federation: International, Amsterdam	1,570,001 (32)	1,730,000 ² (32)	—	—	—	—
N	Railwaymen's and Tramwaymen's Trade Unions: International Federation of Christian, Utrecht	—	—	116,795 (8)	116,946 (8)	—	—
Y	Engineers' and Firemen's Unions: International Federation of, Copenhagen	25,000 (4)	23,230 (3)	—	—	—	—

¹ I.B.W.W. Survey, Newsletter of the International Federation of Building and Wood Workers, 1937, No. 1, p. 4.

² Membership figures for 2 Spanish Federations not included.

II. — NAME, HEADQUARTERS, AND MEMBERSHIP OF THE INTERNATIONAL FEDERATIONS OF CRAFTS AND INDUSTRIES
(INTERNATIONAL TRADE SECRETARIATS) (concluded)

Name and headquarters	Orientation I.F.T.U. †		Affiliated I.F.C.T.U. †		Other tendencies *	
	1 January		1 January		1 January	
	1935	1936	1935	1936	1935	1936
O Mercantile Marine Officers' Association: International, Antwerp	—	—	—	—	26,000 (14)	44,760 ¹ (15)
Seamen and Harbour Workers: Interna- tional of, Paris	—	—	—	—	—	± 400,000 (8)
P Postal, Telegraph and Telephone Inter- national, Berne.	168,000 (20)	171,650 (17)	—	—	—	—
Post Office Workers' Trade Unions: International Federation of Christian, Vaals (Netherlands).	—	—	29,850 (5)	31,694 (5)	—	—
Q/R Employees in Public and Civil Services: International Federation of, Paris . .	— ²	441,478 (13)	—	—	—	—
Public Services: International Feder- ation of Employees in, Paris ²	305,799 (13)	— ²	—	—	—	—
Public Services: International Feder- ation of Christian Organisations of the Staff of, Antwerp.	—	—	33,650 (5)	33,173 (5)	—	—
Police Federation: International, Marc- kolsheim (France)	—	—	—	—	24,000 (6)	39,088 (6)
R Civil Servants: International Federation of, Paris.	116,500 (4)	— ²	—	—	—	—

T Hotel, Restaurant and Bar Workers: International Union of, The Hague.	—	?	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Hotel and Restaurant Employees: Geneva International Association of, Zurich.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	14,000 (16)	23,000 (19)
Hairdressers: International Union of, Copenhagen	6,900 (7)	± 7,000 (8)	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
V Teachers: International Trade Secretariat of, Anderlecht-Brussels	120,000 (10)	111,950 (10)	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Teachers' Associations: International Federation of, Paris	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	534,762 (25)	547,500 ^a (24)
X Diamond Workers: Universal Alliance of, Antwerp	16,210 (5)	15,600 (5)	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Y Factory Workers: International Feder- ation of General, Amsterdam	351,905 (14)	368,695 (15)	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Y Factory and Transport Workers' Trade (N) Unions: International Federation of Christian, The Hague	—	—	127,223 (8)	122,339 (9)	—	—	—	—	—
Employees: International Federation of Commercial, Clerical and Technical, Amsterdam	432,423 (17)	454,570 (18)	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Employees' Trade Unions: International Federation of Christian, Paris	—	—	± 150,000 (11)	± 130,000 (10)	—	—	—	—	—
Employees: International Federation of Neutral Employees' Organisations, Strasbourg	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	196,000 (9)	257,000 (11)

¹ The "Officers (Merchant Navy) Federation" and the Int. Fed. of Radiotelegraphists are affiliated *en bloc*; their membership is derived from 5 and 17 countries respectively.

² On 1 August 1935, the International Federations of Employees in Public Services and of Civil Servants amalgamated.

³ In January 1937.

III. — NATIONAL TRADE UNION FEDERATIONS

[The figures given in parentheses in these tables indicate the number of female members.]

A. — *European Countries*

Country	Total membership 1 January		Number of organisations 1 January	
	1935	1936	1935	1936
<i>Austria</i>				
● Gewerkschaftsbund der österreichischen Arbeiter und Angestellten, Vienna	277,993	337,580	33	34
¶ Zentralkommission der christlichen Arbeiter- und Angestelltenorganisationen, Vienna . .	152,440	160,095	21	22
<i>Belgium</i>				
‡ { Commission syndicale de Belgique, Brussels . .	580,074	545,119 (±35,000)	24	23
‡ { Non-affiliated organisations	3,361	4,932	2	3
¶ Confédération des Syndicats chrétiens de Belgique, Brussels . . .	303,816 (34,225)	296,684 (20,609)	17	17
* Centrale nationale des Syndicats libéraux de Belgique, Ghent. . .	63,740 (7,044)	72,000	—	—
<i>Bulgaria</i>				
● Blgarski rabotnitcheski sayuz, Sofia	— ¹	129,100 ²	— ¹	16 ²
<i>Czechoslovakia</i> ³				
‡ Odborové sdružení československé, společná ústředna, Prague . .	642,039 ⁴ (123,796)	656,636 ⁴ (126,631)	75 ⁴	73 ⁴
‡ Národní sdružení odborových organizací, Prague	37,212 (4,360)	39,780 (4,416)	9	9
‡ "Střed" ústředna odborových organizací soukromého úřednictva a obchodního pomocnictva, Prague . . .	17,895 (1,800)	18,071 (1,869)	8	8
‡ Vysokoškolský svaz, Prague	13,494 (782)	13,656 (818)	40	41

¹ Founded 27 October 1935 under Government auspices.² In August 1936 (*Trud*, 19 September 1936, and *Zora*, 22 October 1936).³ National Statistical Office: Reports Nos. 123-127, 1935, and 68-72, 1936.⁴ These figures include the Zentralgewerkschaftskommission des Deutschen Gewerkschaftsbundes in Reichenberg, which comprises 213,198 (1935) and 202,044 (1936) members grouped in 19 organisations.

A. — European Countries (continued)

Country	Total membership 1 January		Number of organisations 1 January	
	1935	1936	1935	1936
† Říšská odborová rada křesťanských organi- sací, Brno.	112,997 ¹ (32,568)	118,161 ¹ (31,261)	57 ¹	56 ¹
† Československá říšská všeodborová komise křesťansko-sociální, Brno.	41,702 (8,070)	40,313 (8,170)	20	9
† Sdružení slovenských odborových organiza- cií, Zilina.	30,727 (4,717)	31,114 (2,537)	6	6
+ Odborové ústředí, "Čes- koslov. svaz úřednic- kých a zřizeneckých organizací", Prague .	106,727 (20,828)	108,587 (22,459)	79	78
+ Středoškolský svaz, Pra- gue	12,903 (475)	14,242 (563)	13	14
* Československá obec dělnická, Prague . .	307,164 (52,544)	318,948 (51,695)	67	66
* Republikánské ústředí zaměstnanecké, Prague	143,728 (24,998)	190,749 (31,928)	12	43
* Reichsvereinigung der deutschen Gewerk- schaften, Prague . .	30,506 (5,757)	30,815 (5,180)	8	8
* Bund deutscher Ge- werkschaften, Decin	15,672 (4,160)	7,283 (1,402)	4	2
* Verband der deutschen Staatsangestellten- Vereinigungen in der Tschechoslow. Repu- blik, Aussig	6,381 (409)	6,316 (241)	12	14
* Československá obec za- městnanecká, Prague	— ²	3,360 (724)	—	3
<i>Denmark</i>				
† { De samvirkende Fagfor- bund i Danmark, Copen- hagen	354,736 (60,021)	381,341 (63,197)	61	64
† { Non-affiliated organisa- tions.	66,499 (7,231)	53,598 (7,249)	32	19
<i>Estonia</i>				
† { Eestimaa Töölisühingute Keskkliit, Tallinn . .	6,786	7,411	38	41
† { Non-affiliated organisa- tions.	2,000	± 1,000	1	10
<i>Finland</i>				
† { Suomen Ammattiyhdis- tysten Keskusliitto, Helsinki	27,160 (6,248)	33,883 (7,980)	16	17
† { Non-affiliated organisa- tions.	3,000	± 18,000	3	?

¹ These figures include the Verband christlicher Gewerkschaften für den Tschechoslow. Staat, Zwittau, which comprises 38,194 (1935) and 36,939 (1936) members grouped in respectively 10 and 9 organisations.

² Established 1935.

A. — *European Countries* (continued)

Country	Total membership 1 January		Number of organisations 1 January	
	1935	1936	1935	1936
<i>France</i>				
† Confédération Générale du Travail, Paris . .	886,250	1,300,000	4,255	? ¹
¶ Confédération française des Travailleurs chrétiens, Paris	156,000 (43,000)	158,000 (40,000)	840	850
§ Confédération Générale du Travail Unitaire, Paris	310,000 (40,000)	— ²	2,200	— ²
<i>Great Britain</i>				
† { Trades Union Congress General Council, London	3,388,810 (405,140)	3,614,551 (417,330)	211	214
{ Non-affiliated organisations	164,453	176,000	3	3
† Scottish Trades Union Congress, Glasgow . .	269,578 ³ (43,708)	301,286 ³ (44,541)	68	68
<i>Greece</i>				
† Geniki Synomospondia Ton Ergaton Tis Ellados, Piræus	99,306 (25,606)	99,306 (25,606)	420	420
<i>Hungary</i>				
† Magyarországi Munkásegyletek Szövetsége, (Magyarországi Szakszervezeti Tanács), Budapest	111,783 (17,161)	112,165 (17,345)	34	34
¶ Keresztényszocialista Országos Szakegyletek Szövetsége, Budapest	52,500 (6,350)	52,000	25	23
<i>Irish Free State</i>				
† Irish Trade Union Congress, Dublin	195,097 (68,480)	204,000	46	49
<i>Italy</i> ⁴				
● Confederazione nazionale dei sindacati fascisti dell'industria, Rome.	2,086,951	2,204,275	—	—
● Confederazione nazionale dei sindacati fascisti dell'agricoltura, Rome	2,023,750	2,197,199	—	—

¹ 37 federations of industries, 90 departmental unions, and a great number of local unions and units (*syndicats*).

² In March 1936, this organisation amalgamated with the Confédération Générale du Travail.

³ Of which 244,240 (1935) and 276,291 (1936) are included in the membership figures of the British Trades Union Congress General Council.

⁴ Istituto Centrale di Statistica: *Compendio Statistico italiano*, 1935 and 1936.

A. — *European Countries* (continued)

Country	Total membership 1 January		Number of organisations 1 January	
	1935	1936	1935	1936
● Confederazione nazionale dei sindacati fascisti del commercio, Rome	431,633	404,495	—	—
● Confederazione nazionale dei sindacati fascisti del credito e delle assi- curazioni, Rome . . .	37,823	45,755	—	—
<i>Latvia</i>				
● Latvijas darba kamera, Riga	42,250 ¹	37,989	44 ¹	42
<i>Luxemburg</i>				
‡ Commission Syndicale de Luxembourg	11,167	15,200	6	10
¶ Confédération Chrétienne Luxembourgeoise du Travail, Luxemburg .	6,036 (187)	6,244 (185)	3	3
<i>Netherlands</i>				
‡ Nederlands Verbond van Vakverenigingen, Amsterdam	300,443 (16,013)	287,418 (14,929)	29	29
{ R.K. Werkliedenverbond in Nederland, Utrecht	196,384 (6,881)	191,015 (6,175)	30	30
¶ Non-affiliated organisa- tions	21,704	23,696	13	14
{ Christelijk Nationaal Vakverbond in Neder- land, Utrecht	113,566 (3,156)	109,342 (2,781)	22	22
¶ Non-affiliated organisa- tions	11,727	12,365	12	12
{ Nederlandse Vakcentra- le, Amsterdam	46,227 (3,350)	44,153 (3,150)	31	33
+ Non-affiliated organisa- tions	14,057	9,117	2	3
† Nederlands Syndica- listisch Vakverbond, Amsterdam	2,050 (75)	2,198 (148)	11	12
* Nationaal Arbeids Secre- tariaat, Amsterdam .	12,950	12,000 (30)	9	9
<i>Norway</i>				
{ Arbeidernes Faglige Landsorganisasjon i Norge, Oslo	172,513 (27,244)	214,579 (34,630)	33	33
‡ Non-affiliated organisa- tions	11,791	6,132	3	2

¹ At 1 December.

A. — *European Countries* (continued)

Country	Total membership 1 January		Number of organisations 1 January	
	1935	1936	1935	1936
<i>Poland</i>				
‡ Związek Stowarzyszen Zawodowych w Polsce, Warsaw	244,499 (30,602)	288,710 ¹	25	26
* Non-affiliated organisa- tions	± 12,000	± 12,000	?	?
* Centrala Zjednoczenie Klasowych Związkow Zawodowych, Warsaw (11,400) (11,000)	68,700 (11,400)	69,300 ¹ (11,000)	22	25
¶ Zjednoczenie Zawodowe Polskie, Poznan	177,800 (5,200)	152,740 ¹	12	15
¶ Chrzescijanskie Zjednoc- zenie Zawodowe w Rzeczypospolitej Pols- kiej, Warsaw	82,085 ²	89,456 ²	22	26
¶ Zjednoczenie Zawodowe "Praca Polska", Sos- nowiec	8,916 (218)	4,930 ¹	22	14
* Unja Związkow Zawodo- wych Pracownikow Umyslowych, Warsaw	104,000 ³	101,000 ³	34	32
* Związek Związkow Za- wodowych w Polsce, Warsaw	163,460 (24,116)	183,460 ¹	30	30
* Zjednoczenie Zawodowe "Praca", Lodz	3,352 ¹	9,073 ¹	?	5
* Zjednoczenie Klasowych Wolnych Związkow Zawodowych w Polsce, Warsaw	398 ¹	523 ¹	?	5
* Zjednoczenie Robotnic- zych Związkow Zawo- dowych Ziem Polnoc- no-Wshodnich, Wilno	995 ¹	730 ¹	?	4
<i>Rumania</i>				
‡ Confederatia Generala a Muncii din Romania, Bucharest	44,358	50,523	272	269
<i>Spain</i>				
‡ Unión General de Tra- bajadores de España, Madrid	?	1,627,000 ³	?	?
¶ Confederación Nacional de Sindicatos Catolicos de Obreros, Madrid . .	50,000	? ⁴	325	?
¶ Solidaridad de Trabaja- dores Vascos de Euz- kadi, Bilbao	52,753	? ⁴	457	?

¹ Members officially registered by the Ministry of Social Welfare.² Total comprising unemployed and retired members, youth organisations, etc.³ Figures communicated by the International Federation of Trade Unions.⁴ Owing to the political situation, no information available.

A. — *European Countries* (continued)

Country	Total membership 1 January		Number of organisations 1 January	
	1935	1936	1935	1936
† Confederación Nacional del Trabajo, Barcelona	?	? ¹	?	?
* Confederación Nacional de Sindicatos Libres Profesionales de España, Barcelona. . .	?	? ¹	?	?
<i>Sweden</i>				
- { Landsorganisationen i Sverige, Stockholm . . .	653,331 (96,619)	701,186 (103,557)	41	42
‡ { Non-affiliated organisations	10,228	11,083	6	6
+ { De Anställdas Centralorganisation i Sverige, Stockholm	27,714 (2,409)	29,588 (2,389)	16	18
+ { Non-affiliated organisations	32,198	9,560	8	3
† Sveriges Arbetares Centralorganisation, Stockholm.	36,111 (485)	35,494	690 loc. org.	
† Syndikalistiska Arbetare-Federationen, Göteborg	?	?	?	?
<i>Switzerland</i>				
‡ Schweizerischer Gewerkschaftsbund, Berne	223,427 (23,473)	221,370 (22,022)	16	16
‡ Föderativverband des Personals öffentlicher Verwaltungen und Betriebe, Berne	78,043 ² (4,713)	76,000 ² (4,000)	10	10
¶ Christlich-nationaler Gewerkschaftsbund der Schweiz, St. Gall	41,305 (11,218)	40,570 (10,316)	12	12
¶ Schweizerischer Verband evangelischer Arbeiter und Angestellter, Zürich	12,280 (4,127)	12,987 (4,647)	—	—
+ Landesverband Freier Schweizer Arbeiter, St. Gall	8,050 (640)	8,050 (365)	—	—
* Vereinigung Schweizerischer Angestelltenverbände, Zürich	61,179 (8,541)	56,586 (8,523)	9	8
<i>U.S.S.R.</i>				
§ Vsesojuzny Centralny Sovjet Professionalnykh Sojuzov, Moscow	19,319,700 (6,701,900)	20,260,500 ³	163	?

¹ Owing to the political situation, no information available.² Of which 70,856 (1935) and 70,000 (1936) are included in the membership figures of the Schweizerischer Gewerkschaftsbund.³ *Voprosy Profdvizhenija*, 1937, No. 2, p. 59.

A. — *European Countries* (concluded)

Country	Total membership 1 January		Number of organisations 1 January	
	1935	1936	1935	1936
<i>Yugoslavia</i>				
† { Ujedinjeni Radnicki Sin- dikalni Savez Jugo- slavije, Beograd . . .	32,071 (2,500)	35,928	36	31
† { Non-affiliated organisa- tions	9,460	± 15,000	4	4
† { Jugoslovanska Strokov- na Zveza, Ljubljana .	4,044 (944)	6,044 (2,350)	7 and 54 loc. org.	
† { Narodna strokovna zve- za, Ljubljana	?	2,650 (150)	?	42
* { Hrvatski Radnicki Sa- vez, Zagreb	?	52,148 (8,535)	54 sections and 71 local branches	

B. — *Extra-European Countries*

Country	Total membership 1 January		Number of organisations 1 January	
	1935	1936	1935	1936
<i>Algeria</i>				
‡ Union Départementale des Syndicats Confédérés d'Alger, Alger	8,000 ¹ (200)	42,000 ¹ (4,000)	55	138
‡ Union Départementale des Syndicats Confédérés de l'Oranie, Oran	5,500 ¹ (600)	20,000 ¹ (3,000)	32	6 local unions 109 units
‡ Union des Syndicats de travailleurs du Département de Constantine, Constantine	4,150 ¹ (700)	6,000 ¹ (1,000)	?	84
¶ Union nord-africaine des Syndicats Chrétiens, Alger	1,950 (710)	2,167 (517)	?	26
<i>Argentina</i>				
‡ Confederación General del Trabajo de la Rep. Argentina (Independencia 2880), Buenos Aires ²	260,000	250,000	153	550
* Confederación General del Trabajo de la Rep. Argentina (Catamarca 577), Buenos Aires ²	—	24,169	—	91
¶ Federación de Asociaciones Católicas de Empleados, Buenos Aires	—	15,000 ³	—	23
<i>Australia</i>				
‡ Australasian Council of Trade Unions, Melbourne	± 600,000	± 600,000	?	?
* { The Australian Workers' Union, Sydney	?	79,191 (4,627)	—	—
Non-affiliated organisations	?	207,788	?	47
<i>Brazil</i>				
‡ União Geral dos Trabalhadores do Brasil, Rio de Janeiro	33,208	42,180	135	82
* União Geral dos Sindicatos de Empregados do Distrito Federal, Rio de Janeiro	?	132,574	?	36

¹ Included in the membership figures of the Confédération Générale du Travail, Paris; membership figure of 42,000 of the Union Départementale d'Alger at 1 January 1937.

² As the result of a scission, 2 centres of the same name have been in existence since December 1935; their separate existence is indicated by mention of the street in which their respective headquarters are established.

³ DEPARTAMENTO NACIONAL DEL TRABAJO: *Boletín Informativo*, Año XVIII, Epoca VI, Nos. 200-201, Buenos Aires, Sept.-Oct. 1936.

B. — *Extra-European Countries* (continued)

Country	Total membership 1 January		Number of organisations 1 January	
	1935	1936	1935	1936
<i>Canada</i>				
‡ The Trades and Labor Congress of Canada, Ottawa	120,729	112,972 ¹	1,510	1,615 ²
‡ Non-affiliated organisa- tions	20,308	21,500	4	4
‡ The All-Canadian Congress of Labor, Ottawa . .	79,000	54,025 ³	73	420 ⁴
¶ Federation of Catholic Workers of Canada, Quebec	38,000 (3,000)	38,000 ³	134	140 ³
<i>Ceylon</i>				
‡ All-Ceylon Trade Union Congress, Colombo .	?	?	?	?
<i>Chile</i>				
* Confederación de Traba- jadores de Chile, San- tiago ⁵	—	—	—	—
<i>China</i> ⁶				
Industrial Unions. . .	130,375	118,273	123	104
Craft Unions	332,367	350,967	636	719
"Special" Unions ⁷ . .	92,593	107,795	12	13
<i>Egypt</i>				
‡ Fédération des Syndicats Ouvriers en Egypte, Cairo	?	?	?	?
* Consortium des Syndi- cats et Associations des Ouvriers d'Alexandrie, Alexandria	?	?	?	?
<i>India</i>				
‡ National Trades Union Federation, Bombay .	138,064	148,516	53	60
Non-affiliated organisa- tion	—	± 40,000	—	1
§ All-India Trade Union Congress, Calcutta .	?	?	51,749	71

¹ Number of members upon whom affiliated organisations have remitted tax. No tax remitted on members unemployed or involved in strikes or lock-outs. Normally 25 per cent. may be added to cover number of such members.

² 60 international craft organisations, 3 Canadian central bodies, and 1,552 local branches or directly chartered unions (*The Labour Gazette*, Ottawa, September 1936).

³ *The Labour Gazette*, Ottawa, September 1936.

⁴ 8 Canadian central bodies and 412 local branches or directly chartered unions. (*Ibid.*)

⁵ Established in December 1936 by the amalgamation of the 3 former trade union centres, viz: Conf. Nacional de Sindicatos, Conf. General del Trabajo, Fed. Obrera Chilena.

⁶ According to information received from China. No national trade union centre exists. The enquiry having been extended by 17 municipalities and districts, the figures for 1935 do not correspond with those published in the last edition of the *I.L.O. Year-Book*.

⁷ Unions governed by regulations other than the Trade Union Act (Postal Union, Seamen's Union, Railway Union, etc.).

THE I. L. O. YEAR-BOOK 1936-37

ERRATA

PAGE 582, last line of table (All-India Trade Union Congress, Calcutta): The figure 51,749 in the column " Number of organisations 1 January 1935 " should be in the preceding column (" Total membership, 1 January 1936 ").

PAGE 583, under *Mexico* (Confederación de Trabajadores de México): Instead of " 53,500 " read " 533,000 ".

B. — *Extra-European Countries* (continued)

Country	Total membership 1 January		Number of organisations 1 January	
	1935	1936	1935	1936
<i>Japan</i>				
‡ Nihon Rodo Kumiai Kaigi, Tokyo	267,132 ¹	263,914 ¹	9	9
* Aikoku Rodo Kumiai, Zenkoku Konwa-Kai, Tokyo	— ²	80,278 ¹	— ²	15
* Other organisations of various tendencies.	144,994 ³	63,736 ³	62 federations 535 single unions	46 488
<i>Morocco</i>				
‡ Union Départementale des Syndicats Confédérés du Maroc, Casablanca	4,328 ⁴	4,562 ⁴	43	43
<i>Mexico</i>				
‡ Confederación de Trabajadores de México, México	?	53,500 ⁵	?	?
* Confederación Regional Obrera Mexicana, México	?	800,000	?	1,200
† Confederación General de Trabajadores, México	?	130,000	?	510
* Camara Nacional del Trabajo de la República Mexicana, México	?	15,700	?	25
<i>New Zealand</i>				
‡ New Zealand Alliance of Labour, Wellington	47,000 (4,200)	⁶	92	⁶
‡ New Zealand Trades and Labour Councils Federation	16,342 (1,791)	15,000 (500)	72	66
<i>Palestine</i>				
‡ General Federation of Jewish Labour in Palestine, Tel-Aviv	67,562 (26,515)	86,814 (36,499)	3 Nat. fed. 38 local org.	

¹ At 1 September.² Established in April 1936.³ At 1 July.⁴ Included in the membership figure of the Confédération Générale du Travail, Paris.⁵ July 1936; figure communicated by the International Federation of Trade Unions.⁶ No longer exists; a new organisation, the "New Zealand Federation of Labour", is being established.

B. — *Extra-European Countries* (continued)

Country	Total membership 1 January		Number of organisations 1 January	
	1935	1936	1935	1936
<i>Panama</i>				
* Federación Obrera de la Rep. Panama, Panama	?	?	?	?
<i>Paraguay</i>				
* Confederación Nacional de Trabajadores del Paraguay, Asuncion.	—	± 50,000 ¹	?	?
<i>Puerto Rico</i>				
* Federación libre de los Trabajadores de Puerto Rico, San Juan .	?	?	?	?
<i>South Africa</i>				
* South African Trades and Labour Council, Johannesburg	12,138	14,577	33	38
‡ Cape Federation of Labour Unions, Cape Town	12,760 (4,398)	13,260 (4,898)	17	?
<i>Tunisia</i>				
‡ Union des Syndicats de Tunisie, Tunis	10,000 ²	32,000 ² (3,000)	32	?
<i>United States</i>				
* American Federation of Labor, Washington, D.C.	3,045,347 ³	3,422,398 ³	109	111
<i>Uruguay</i>				
* Confederación General del Trabajo del Uruguay, Montevideo .	?	?	?	?
* Federación Obrera Regional Uruguaya, Montevideo	?	?	?	?
* Unión Sindical Uruguaya, Montevideo .	?	?	?	?

¹ August 1936.² Included in the membership figures of the Confédération Générale du Travail Paris.³ At 31 August.

B. — *Extra-European Countries* (concluded)

Country	Total membership 1 January		Number of organisations 1 January	
	1935	1936	1935	1936
<i>Venezuela</i>				
‡ Confederación Venezolana del Trabajo, Caracas	?	± 150,000	?	133
* Federación Obrera de Venezuela, Caracas .	?	2,135	?	14
* Unión General de Trabajadores, Caracas .	—	9,000	—	20

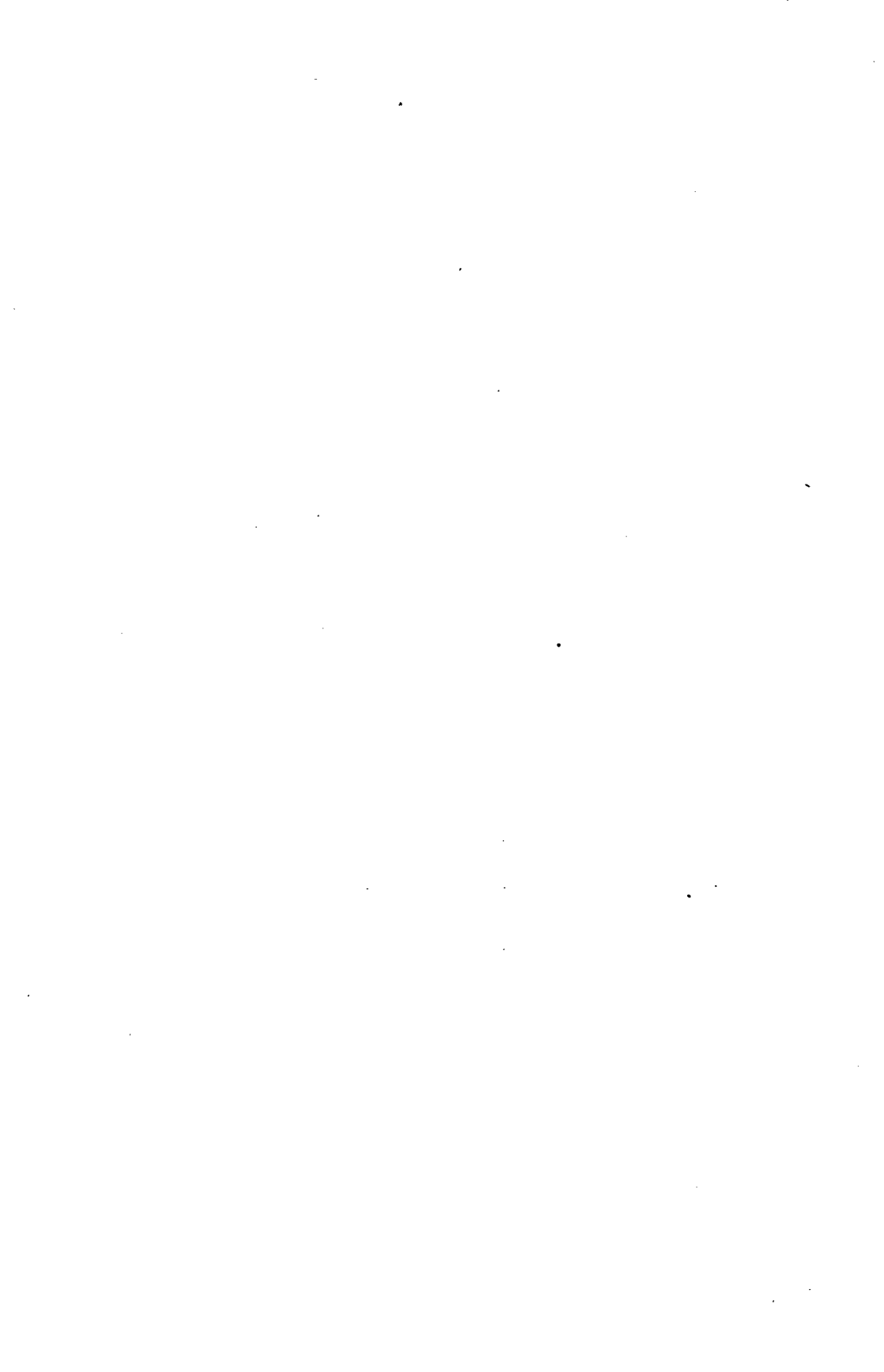
IV. — SUMMARY OF TABLE III SHOWING BY COUNTRIES THE MEMBERSHIP
NON-AFFILIATED ORGANISATIONS CLASSIFIED BY ORIENTATION

Country	" Free " †		Christian ¶		Communist §	
	1 January		1 January		1 January	
	1935	1936	1935	1936	1935	1936
<i>Europe</i>						
Austria	—	—	152,440	160,095	—	—
Belgium	583,435	550,051	303,816	296,684	—	—
Bulgaria	—	—	—	—	—	—
Czechoslovakia	710,640	728,143	185,426	189,588	—	—
Denmark	421,235	434,939	—	—	—	—
Estonia	8,786	8,411	—	—	—	—
Finland	30,160	51,883	—	—	—	—
France	886,250	1,300,000	156,000	158,000	310,000	—
Great Britain	3,578,601	3,815,546	—	—	—	—
Greece	99,306	99,306	—	—	—	—
Hungary	111,783	112,165	52,500	52,000	—	—
Irish Free State	195,097	204,000	—	—	—	—
Italy	—	—	—	—	—	—
Latvia	—	—	—	—	—	—
Luxemburg	11,167	15,200	6,036	6,244	—	—
Netherlands	300,443	287,418	343,381	336,418	—	—
Norway	184,304	220,711	—	—	—	—
Poland	325,199	370,010	268,801	247,126	—	—
Rumania	44,358	50,523	—	—	—	—
Spain	?	1,627,000	102,753	?	—	—
Sweden	663,559	712,269	—	—	—	—
Switzerland	230,614	227,370	53,585	53,557	—	—
U.S.S.R.	—	—	—	—	19,319,700	20,260,500
Yugoslavia	41,531	53,578	4,044	6,044	—	—
<i>Extra-European countries</i>						
Algeria	17,650 ¹	68,000	1,950	2,167	—	—
Argentina	260,000	250,000	—	15,000	—	—
Australia	600,000	600,000	—	—	—	—
Brazil	33,208	?	—	—	—	—
Canada	220,037	188,497	38,000	38,000	—	—
Ceylon	?	42,180	—	—	—	—
Chile	—	—	—	—	—	—
China	—	—	—	—	—	—
Egypt	?	?	—	—	—	—
India	138,064	188,516	—	—	?	51,749
Japan	267,132	263,914	—	—	—	—
Morocco	4,328 ¹	4,562 ¹	—	—	—	—
Mexico	?	533,000	—	—	—	—
New Zealand	63,342	15,000	—	—	—	—
Palestine	67,562	86,814	—	—	—	—
Panama	—	—	—	—	—	—
Paraguay	—	—	—	—	—	—
Puerto Rico	—	—	—	—	—	—
South Africa	12,760	13,260	—	—	—	—
Tunisia	10,000 ¹	32,000 ¹	—	—	—	—
United States	—	—	—	—	—	—
Uruguay	—	—	—	—	—	—
Venezuela	—	150,000	—	—	—	—

¹ These figures are included in the membership figures of France.

OF THE NATIONAL FEDERATIONS OF TRADE UNIONS AND CERTAIN
ON 1 JANUARY 1935 AND 1 JANUARY 1936

Syndicalist †		Neutral +		Other tendencies * (State Trade Unions = ●)		Country
1 January		1 January		1 January		
1935	1936	1935	1936	1935	1936	
—	—	—	—	277,993●	337,580●	<i>Europe</i> Austria
—	—	—	—	63,740	72,000	Belgium
—	—	—	—	—	129,100●	Bulgaria
—	—	119,630	122,829	503,451	557,471	Czechoslovakia
—	—	—	—	—	—	Denmark
—	—	—	—	—	—	Estonia
—	—	—	—	—	—	Finland
—	—	—	—	—	—	France
—	—	—	—	—	—	Great Britain
—	—	—	—	—	—	Greece
—	—	—	—	—	—	Hungary
—	—	—	—	—	—	Irish Free State
—	—	—	—	4,580,157●	4,851,724●	Italy
—	—	—	—	42,250●	37,989●	Latvia
2,050	2,198	60,284	53,270	12,950	12,000	Luxemburg
—	—	—	—	—	—	Netherlands
—	—	—	—	272,205	294,786	Norway
—	—	—	—	—	—	Poland
?	?	—	—	?	?	Rumania
36,111	35,494	59,912	39,148	—	—	Spain
—	—	8,050	8,050	61,179	56,586	Sweden
—	—	—	—	—	—	Switzerland
—	—	—	—	?	52,148	U.S.S.R.
—	—	—	—	—	—	Yugoslavia
—	—	—	—	—	—	<i>Extra-European countries</i>
—	—	—	—	—	—	Algeria
—	—	—	—	—	24,169	Argentina
—	—	—	—	?	286,979	Australia
—	—	—	—	?	132,574	Brazil
—	—	—	—	—	—	Canada
—	—	—	—	—	—	Ceylon
—	—	—	—	?	?	Chile
—	—	—	—	555,335	577,035	China
—	—	—	—	?	?	Egypt
—	—	—	—	—	—	India
—	—	—	—	144,994	144,014	Japan
—	—	—	—	—	—	Morocco
?	130,000	—	—	?	815,700	Mexico
—	—	—	—	—	—	New Zealand
—	—	—	—	—	—	Palestine
—	—	—	—	?	?	Panama
—	—	—	—	—	50,000	Paraguay
—	—	—	—	?	?	Puerto Rico
—	—	—	—	12,138	14,577	South Africa
—	—	—	—	—	—	Tunisia
—	—	—	—	3,045,347	3,422,398	United States
—	—	—	—	?	?	Uruguay
—	—	—	—	?	11,135	Venezuela



INDEX

A

Accident Prevention
(See Prevention of Industrial Accidents)
Agricultural Workers 490.
Agriculture
(See Agricultural Workers)
Albania
Hours of Work
Industry 62.
Protection of Women
Night Work 202.
Algeria
Native Labour 530.
Prevention of Industrial Accidents
179, 180.
Anglo-French-American Agreement 49.
Angola
Native Labour 542.
Annual Holidays with Pay
(See Holidays with Pay)
Arbitration
(See Conciliation and Arbitration)
Argentina
Agricultural Workers 501.
Compensation for Occupational
Diseases 168, 169.
Conventions, Action on 128, 150,
504, 515.
Home Work 483.
Hours of Work
Commercial Establishments 115.
Industry 62.
Housing 381.
Industrial Hygiene 166.
Textiles 165.
Industrial Medicine 176.
Industrial Physiology 150.
Prevention of Industrial Accidents
179.
Protection of Women 198, 199.
Childbirth 204.
Economic 211.
Recommendations, Action on 151.
Social Insurance 222, 283, 285.
Weekly Rest 123.
Ashanti
Prevention of Industrial Accidents
182.
Assam
Malaria 153.

Australia
Agricultural Workers 498, 501.
Compensation for Occupational
Diseases 158.
Conciliation and Arbitration 422.
Conventions, Action on 114, 143,
548.
Factory Inspection 219.
Holidays with Pay 133.
Hours of Work
Commercial Establishments 115.
Industry 63.
Housing 381.
Industrial Hygiene 164.
Industrial Pathology 153.
Medical Research 175.
Migration
Immigration 347.
Native Labour 516.
Pneumoconiosis 158.
Prevention of Industrial Accidents
180, 181, 183, 184.
Prison Labour 549.
Professional Workers 478.
Protection of Children and Young
Persons 212.
Protection of Women 198.
Childbirth 204.
Economic 211.
Recommendations, Action on 143,
549.
Social Insurance 223, 283, 285.
Unemployment
Employment Exchanges 321.
Insurance and Relief 328.
Public Works 311.
Young People 338.
Vocational Training 353.
Wages 289, 292.
Women's Work 190, 192.
Workers' Organisations 20.
Austria
Administration of Labour Law 451.
Agricultural Workers 498.
Compensation for Occupational
Diseases 171.
Conciliation and Arbitration 422.
Conventions, Action on 110, 111,
113, 195, 218, 279, 281.
Employers' Organisations 22.
Finance 58.

Austria (continued)

- Home Work 485.
- Hours of Work
 - Industry 66.
- Industrial Hygiene
 - Mines 164.
- Medical Inspection 175.
- Migration 345.
- National Economic Council 454.
- Prevention of Industrial Accidents 178, 180, 181, 183.
- Professional Workers 475.
- Protection of Women 199.
- Recommendations, Action on 279, 352.
- Right of Combination in Trade Unions 388.
- Social Insurance 225, 284.
- Unemployment
 - Insurance and Relief 328, 329.
 - Young People 339.
- Wages 292.
- Women's Work 186, 189.
- Workers' Spare Time 366.
- Works Councils 408.

B

Barbados

- Native Labour 527.
- Prevention of Industrial Accidents 180.

Basutoland

- Native Labour 519.

Bechuanaland

- Native Labour 519.

Belgian Congo

- Native Labour 516.
- Prevention of Industrial Accidents 179, 180.

Belgium

- Agricultural Workers 501.
- Compensation for Occupational Diseases 158, 168, 172.
- Conventions, Action on 110, 196, 201, 302, 548.
- Cost of Living 51.
- Employers' Organisations 23.
- Factory Inspection 220.
- Finance 58.
- Holidays with Pay 133.
- Home Work 485.
- Hours of Work
 - Commercial Establishments 115.
 - Industry 23, 66.
- Industrial Hygiene 161, 164, 166.
- Industrial Pathology 152, 154.
- Industrial Physiology 149.
- Medical Inspection 174, 175.
- Migration 345.
 - Immigration 347.
- Native Labour 516.
- Pneumoconiosis 156, 158.

Belgium (continued)

- Prevention of Industrial Accidents 180, 181, 182, 183.
 - Prices 50.
 - Production
 - Industrial 45, 48,
 - Professional Workers 475, 477.
 - Protection of Children and Young Persons 146.
 - Protection of Women 145, 197, 198, 199.
 - Recommendations, Action on 352.
 - Right of Combination in Trade Unions 391.
 - Social Insurance 227, 283.
 - Unemployment 310.
 - Employment Exchanges 321.
 - Insurance and Relief 328, 329.
 - Public Works 312.
 - Young People 340.
 - Vocational Training 354.
 - Wages 289, 293, 435.
 - Family Allowances 302.
 - Weekly Rest 123.
 - Women's Work 189, 192, 194, 195.
 - Workers' Nutrition 147.
 - Workers' Organisations 11, 14, 15.
 - Workers' Spare Time 366.
- Bolivia
- Agricultural Workers 498.
 - Housing 381.
 - Protection of Women
 - Economic 211.
 - Public Holidays 144.
 - Right of Combination in Trade Unions 393.
 - Social Insurance 228, 285.
 - Wages 293.
- Brazil
- Compensation for Occupational Diseases 169.
 - Conventions, Action on 110, 112, 113, 167, 196, 201, 218, 281, 514, 515.
 - Hours of Work
 - Commercial Establishments 116.
 - Industry 69.
 - Industrial Physiology 149.
 - Migration
 - Immigration 347.
 - Prevention of Industrial Accidents 182.
 - Protection of Women
 - Childbirth 205.
 - Recommendations, Action on 352.
 - Social Insurance 228, 285.
 - Vocational Training 355.
 - Wages 293.
 - Weekly Rest 124.
- British Empire
(See also Great Britain)
(See also United Kingdom)
- Native Labour 518.

British Honduras
 Prevention of Industrial Accidents 183.
 Protection of Women 198.
 Night Work 203.

British Malaya
 (See also Malaya)
 Native Labour 526.

British North Borneo
 Native Labour 527.

Bulgaria
 Collective Agreements 413.
 Conciliation and Arbitration 422.
 Dismissal 443.
 Holidays with Pay 134.
 Hours of Work
 Commercial Establishments 116.
 Individual Contract of Service 435.
 Migration
 Immigration 348.
 Prevention of Industrial Accidents 179, 180, 181, 182.
 Professional Workers 478.
 Protection of Women
 Childbirth 205.
 Right of Combination in Trade Unions 394.
 Shop Closing 130.
 Social Insurance 229.
 Unemployment
 Insurance and Relief 328.
 Non-Manual Workers 337.
 Public Works 313.
 Wages 289, 293, 436.

Burma
 Prevention of Industrial Accidents 181.

C

Cameroons (under French mandate)
 Native Labour 532.

Canada
 Agricultural Workers 498.
 Collective Agreements 25, 414.
 Compensation for Occupational Diseases 169.
 Conventions, Action on 110, 112, 113, 196, 281.
 Cost of Living 51.
 Employers' Organisations 25.
 Home Work 486.
 Hours of Work
 Commercial Establishments 116.
 Industry 69.
 Housing 381.
 Industrial Hygiene 163, 164, 165.
 Lead Poisoning 151.
 Night Work in Bakeries 128.
 Pneumoconiosis 156, 158.
 Prevention of Industrial Accidents 180, 181, 182, 183, 184.
 Prices 50.

Canada (*continued*)
 Production
 Industrial 45.
 Protection of Children and Young Persons 212.
 Protection of Women 198, 199.
 Childbirth 205.
 Economic 209.
 Public Holidays 144.
 Recommendations, Action on 352.
 Shop Closing 131.
 Social Insurance 230, 283.
 Unemployment
 Employment Exchanges 322.
 Insurance and Relief 330.
 Public Works 313.
 Young People 340.
 Vocational Training 355.
 Wages 289, 294.
 Weekly Rest 124.
 Women's Work 188, 190, 192.
 Workers' Organisations 12.
 Workers' Spare Time 367.

Cape Verde Islands
 Native Labour 545.

Catholic Church 28.
 Catholic Employers' Associations 22.

Ceylon
 Native Labour 525.
 Prevention of Industrial Accidents 181.
 Unemployment
 Public Works 313.

Chile
 Agricultural Workers 501.
 Hours of Work
 Commercial Establishments 117.
 Housing 382.
 Profit-Sharing 407.
 Protection of Women
 Childbirth 205.
 Social Insurance 231.

China
 Agricultural Workers 498.
 Collective Agreements 414.
 Conciliation and Arbitration 423.
 Conventions, Action on 110, 112, 113, 114, 143, 150, 196, 281, 514, 515, 548.
 Dismissal 443.
 Employers' Organisations 25.
 Home Work 486.
 Housing 382.
 Individual Contract of Service 435.
 Industrial Hygiene 162.
 Industrial Pathology 152.
 Lead Poisoning 151.
 Medical Care 159.
 Migration
 Emigration 345.
 National Economic Council 454.
 Prevention of Industrial Accidents 184.

- China (*continued*)
 Professional Workers 476, 478, 479.
 Protection of Women 146.
 Childbirth 205.
 Economic 211.
 Night Work 202.
 Public Holidays 144.
 Recommendations, Action on 143, 352.
 Social Insurance 232, 285.
 Unemployment
 Employment Exchanges 322.
 Non-Manual Workers 337.
 Public Works 314.
 Vocational Training 355.
 Wages 295, 436.
 Workers' Spare Time 367.
 Collective Agreements 413.
- Colombia
 Agricultural Workers 502.
 Compensation for Occupational Diseases 169.
 Conciliation and Arbitration 423.
 Hours of Work
 Commercial Establishments 117.
 Housing 382.
 Industrial Hygiene
 Agriculture 163.
 Public Holidays 144.
 Social Insurance 232, 283, 285.
 Weekly Rest 124.
 Commercial Policy 57.
 Compensation for Occupational Diseases 168.
 Conciliation and Arbitration 421.
 Contract of Employment
 (*See Individual Contract of Service*)
 Conventions, Action of Governments
 No. 1: Hours of Work (Industry) 110.
 No. 2: Unemployment 349.
 No. 3: Childbirth 204.
 No. 4: Night Work (Women) 201.
 No. 5: Minimum Age (Industry) 218.
 No. 6: Night Work (Young Persons) 219.
 No. 7: Minimum Age (Sea) 514.
 No. 8: Unemployment Indemnity (Shipwreck) 514.
 No. 9: Placing of Seamen 514.
 No. 10: Minimum Age (Agriculture) 20, 504.
 No. 11: Right of Association (Agriculture) 504.
 No. 12: Workmen's Compensation (Agriculture) 504.
 No. 13: White Lead (Painting) 150.
 No. 14: Weekly Rest (Industry) 128.
 No. 15: Minimum Age (Trimmers and Stokers) 515.
 No. 16: Medical Examination of Young Persons (Sea) 515.
- Conventions, Action of Governments (*continued*)
 No. 17: Workmen's Compensation (Accidents) 279.
 No. 18: Workmen's Compensation (Occupational Diseases) 167.
 No. 19: Equality of Treatment (Accident) 279.
 No. 20: Night Work (Bakeries) 130.
 No. 22: Seamen's Articles of Agreement 515.
 No. 23: Repatriation of Seamen 515.
 No. 24: Sickness Insurance (Industry, etc.) 280.
 No. 25: Sickness Insurance (Agriculture) 280.
 No. 26: Minimum Wage-Fixing Machinery 302.
 No. 27: Marking of Weight (Packages transported by Vessels) 185.
 No. 29: Forced Labour 548.
 No. 30: Hours of Work (Commerce and Offices) 123.
 No. 32: Protection against Accidents (Dockers) (Revised) 186.
 No. 33: Minimum Age (Non-Industrial Employment) 218.
 No. 34: Fee-Charging Employment Agencies 349.
 No. 35: Old-Age Insurance (Industry, etc.) 280.
 No. 36: Old-Age Insurance (Agriculture) 280.
 No. 37: Invalidity Insurance (Industry, etc.) 280.
 No. 38: Invalidity Insurance (Agriculture) 280.
 No. 39: Survivors' Insurance (Industry, etc.) 280.
 No. 40: Survivors' Insurance (Agriculture) 280.
 No. 41: Night Work (Women) (Revised) 201.
 No. 42: Workmen's Compensation (Occupational Diseases) (Revised) 167.
 No. 43: Sheet-Glass Works 110.
 No. 44: Unemployment Provision 350.
 No. 45: Underground Work (Women) 195.
 No. 47: Forty-Hour Week 111.
 No. 48: Maintenance of Migrants' Pension Rights 281.
 No. 49: Reduction of Hours of Work (Glass-Bottle Works) 113.
 No. 50: Recruiting of Indigenous Workers 548.
 No. 51: Reduction of Hours of Work (Public Works) 114.
 No. 52: Holidays with Pay 143.
 No. 53: Officers' Competency Certificates 515.

Conventions, Action of Governments
(*continued*)
 No. 54: Holidays with Pay (Sea) 515.
 No. 55: Shipowners' Liability (Sick and Injured Seamen) 515.
 No. 56: Sickness Insurance (Sea) 515.
 No. 57: Hours of Work and Manning (Sea) 515.
 No. 58: Minimum Age (Sea) (Revised) 516.
 Co-operation 460.
 Cost of Living 51.
 Costa Rica
 Social Insurance 232.
 Cuba
 Agricultural Workers 502.
 Compensation for Occupational Diseases 158, 169.
 Conventions, Action on 110, 112, 113, 167, 196, 281, 350.
 Employers' Organisations 24.
 Factory Inspection 219.
 Holidays with Pay 134.
 Hours of Work
 Commercial Establishments 117.
 Industry 73.
 Industrial Physiology 149, 150.
 Lead Poisoning 150, 151.
 Medical Inspection 174.
 Phosphorus Poisoning 152.
 Pneumoconiosis 158.
 Prevention of Industrial Accidents 178, 182, 185.
 Prison Labour 550.
 Protection of Women 197.
 Childbirth 205.
 Social Insurance 233.
 Unemployment
 Employment Exchanges 322.
 Wages 24.
 Curaçao
 Native Labour 541.
 Czechoslovakia
 Collective Agreements 414.
 Compensation for Occupational Diseases 172.
 Cost of Living 51.
 Dismissal 443.
 Employers' Organisations 22.
 Home Work 486.
 Hours of Work
 Commercial Establishments 117.
 Industry 73.
 Housing 382.
 Industrial Hygiene 161.
 Industrial Medicine 176.
 Industrial Pathology 153.
 Migration 345.
 Emigration 346.
 National Economic Council 454.
 Prices 50.
 Production
 Industrial 45, 48.

Czechoslovakia (*continued*)
 Scientific Management 452.
 Social Insurance 234, 270, 283, 284, 285.
 Unemployment
 Employment Exchanges 322.
 Insurance and Relief 328, 330.
 Public Works 314.
 Wages 289, 295.
 Women's Work 186.
 Workers' Organisations 11.
 Workers' Spare Time 367.

D

Danzig
 Industrial Pathology 153.
 Prevention of Industrial Accidents 178, 179, 181.
 Right of Combination in Trade Unions 395.
 Unemployment
 Employment Exchanges 323.
 Denmark
 Agricultural Workers 498, 502.
 Compensation for Occupational Diseases 172.
 Conciliation and Arbitration 423.
 Conventions, Action on 514, 515.
 Industrial Hygiene 163.
 Industrial Pathology 152.
 Lead Poisoning 151.
 Medical Inspection 175.
 Prevention of Industrial Accidents 180, 181, 184.
 Protection of Women 146.
 Social Insurance 236, 285.
 Tuberculosis 153.
 Unemployment
 Insurance and Relief 328, 331.
 Vocational Training 355.
 Wages 289, 296, 436.
 Women's Work 190.
 Workers' Organisations 11.
 Diagrams
 Indices of the Cost of Living 51.
 Indices of Industrial Production 45.
 Indices of International Trade 44.
 Indices of Market Value of Industrial Shares 58.
 Indices of the Production of Consumption Goods and Investment Goods 47.
 Indices of Value of International Trade 54.
 Indices of Wholesale Prices 50.
 Indices of World Production 43.
 International Index of Unemployment 44.
 Sterling Prices of Important Commodities 53.

- Diseases, Industrial
(*See Industrial Pathology or under names of diseases*)
(*See also Compensation for Occupational Diseases*)
- Diseases, Occupational
(*See Industrial Pathology or under names of diseases*)
(*See also Compensation for Occupational Diseases*)
- Dominican Republic
Right of Combination in Trade Unions 395.
- Dutch Guiana
Native Labour 541.
- E**
- Economic Planning 10.
(*See also State Intervention*)
- Ecuador
Administration of Labour Law 451.
Conciliation and Arbitration 424.
Dismissal 444.
Employers' Organisations 23.
Factory Inspection 220.
Industrial Hygiene 163.
Right of Combination in Trade Unions 396.
Shop Closing 131.
Social Insurance 236, 283.
Wages 437.
- Egypt
Entry into I.L.O. 1, 5.
Hours of Work
Commercial Establishments 117.
Industry 74.
Housing 382.
Industrial Hygiene
Textiles 165.
Professional Workers 478.
Social Insurance 237, 283, 285.
- Emigration
(*See under Migration*)
- Employers' Organisations
International Organisations
(*see under titles*)
National Organisations (*see under countries*)
- Employment 308.
- Estonia
Agricultural Workers 499, 502.
Conciliation and Arbitration 423.
Dismissal 444.
Employment 309.
Factory Inspection 220.
Individual Contract of Service 435.
Industrial Hygiene 162.
National Economic Council 455.
Night Work in Bakeries 128.
Prevention of Industrial Accidents 183.
Prison Labour 551.
- Estonia (*continued*)
Production 309.
Protection of Women 199.
Right of Combination in Trade Unions 390.
Rules of Employment 449.
Social Insurance 237, 283.
Vocational Training 356.
Wages 289, 437.
Weekly Rest 124.
Works Councils 409.
- F**
- Family Allowances
(*See under Wages*)
- Fascist Trade Unions 17.
- Federal Council of the Church of Christ in America 36.
- Fiji
Native Labour 528.
- Financial Policy 56.
- Finland
Conventions, Action on 110, 111, 112, 113, 167, 196, 281.
Employment 309.
Hours of Work
Industry 74.
Housing 380.
National Economic Council 455.
Production 309.
Protection of Children and Young Persons 212.
Protection of Women
Childbirth 205.
Social Insurance 238, 283.
Unemployment
Employment Exchanges 323.
Insurance and Relief 328.
Public Works 314.
Vocational Training 356.
Women's Work 189.
Workers' Organisations 11.
- Forty-Hour Week
(*See Hours of Work*)
- France
Agricultural Workers 499, 502.
Collective Agreements 415.
Compensation for Occupational Diseases 169, 172.
Conciliation and Arbitration 424.
Conventions, Action on 110, 111, 112, 113, 167, 196, 201, 281, 350, 548.
Cost of Living 51.
Employers' Organisations 23, 24.
Factory Inspection 220.
Finance 58.
Holidays with Pay 135.
Hours of Work
Commercial Establishments 117.
Industry 24, 75.

France (*continued*)

- Housing 382.
 - Industrial Hygiene 163, 165, 166.
 - Industrial Medicine 176, 177.
 - Industrial Pathology 152, 153.
 - Industrial Physiology 148, 149.
 - Migration 345.
 - National Economic Council 455.
 - Native Labour 528.
 - Night Work in Bakeries 128.
 - Pneumoconiosis 156, 158.
 - Prevention of Industrial Accidents 178, 179, 180, 182, 183, 184, 185.
 - Prices 50.
 - Production
 - Industrial 45, 48.
 - Professional Workers 476, 479.
 - Profit-Sharing 407.
 - Protection of Children and Young Persons 213.
 - Protection of Women 145, 146, 200.
 - Childbirth 205.
 - Economic 211.
 - Public Holidays 144.
 - Recommendations, Action on 351, 352, 548.
 - Right of Combination in Trade Unions 396.
 - Scientific Management 452.
 - Seamen 505.
 - Social Insurance 238, 283, 284.
 - Unemployment
 - Insurance and Relief 328, 331.
 - Public Works 314.
 - Young People 340.
 - Vocational Training 356.
 - Wages 289, 296.
 - Family Allowances 303.
 - Weekly Rest 124.
 - Women's Work 187, 189, 192, 194.
 - Workers' Organisations 11, 14, 15.
 - Workers' Spare Time 368.
 - Works Councils 410.
- French East Africa
- Protection of Women 198.
- French Equatorial Africa
- Native Labour 531.
 - Prevention of Industrial Accidents 179.
 - Protection of Women
 - Childbirth 206.
- French Guiana
- Native Labour 536.
- French India
- Industrial Physiology 149.
 - Native Labour 536.
 - Protection of Children and Young Persons 213.
 - Protection of Women 198.
 - Childbirth 205.
 - Night Work 202.
- French Somaliland
- Industrial Physiology 149.

French Somaliland (*continued*)

- Native Labour 534.
 - Protection of Children and Young Persons 213.
 - Protection of Women 198.
 - Childbirth 205.
 - Night Work 202.
- French West Africa
- Industrial Physiology 148, 149.
 - Native Labour 533.
 - Prevention of Industrial Accidents 183.
 - Protection of Children and Young Persons 213.
 - Protection of Women
 - Childbirth 205.

G

Germany

- Accidents 159.
- Agricultural Workers 499.
- Compensation for Occupational Diseases 158, 169, 172.
- Conciliation and Arbitration 426.
- Cost of Living 51.
- Dismissal 444.
- Economic Planning 53.
- Finance 58.
- Holidays with Pay 136.
- Home Work 487.
- Hours of Work
 - Commercial Establishments 118.
 - Industry 80.
- Housing 383.
- Industrial Hygiene 161, 162, 163, 164, 165, 166.
- Industrial Medicine 176, 177.
- Industrial Pathology 152, 153, 154.
- Industrial Physiology 149, 150.
- Lead Poisoning 150.
- Medical Care 159.
- Medical Inspection 175.
- Medical Research 175.
- Migration 345.
- Night Work in Bakeries 129.
- Pneumoconiosis 156, 157, 158, 159.
- Prevention of Industrial Accidents 179, 180, 182, 183, 184, 185.
- Prices 50.
- Production
 - Consumption and Investment Goods 47.
 - Industrial 45, 48.
- Professional Workers 476, 477, 479, 480.
- Profit-Sharing 408.
- Protection of Children and Young Persons 146, 213.
- Protection of Women 198.
 - Economic 211.
- Public Holidays 144.

- Germany (*continued*)
 Right of Combination in Trade Unions 398.
 Shop Closing 131.
 Social Insurance 240, 284, 285.
 Unemployment
 Employment Exchanges 323.
 Insurance and Relief 328, 332.
 Public Works 315.
 Young People 340.
 Vocational Training 356.
 Wages 289.
 Women's Work 187, 189, 190, 191, 193.
 Workers' Nutrition 147.
 Workers' Spare Time 370.
 Works Councils 410.
- Gold Coast
 Medical Care 160.
 Native Labour 524.
 Prevention of Industrial Accidents 182, 183.
- Governing Body
 (*See* International Labour Office)
- Graphs
 (*See* Diagrams)
- Great Britain
 (*See also* British Empire)
 (*See also* United Kingdom)
 Agricultural Workers 499, 502.
 Compensation for Occupational Diseases 158, 173.
 Conventions, Action on 110, 111, 112, 113, 114, 143, 167, 196, 201, 202, 280, 281, 350, 548.
 Employment 309.
 Holidays with Pay 137.
 Home Work 488.
 Hours of Work
 Commercial Establishments 118.
 Industry 82.
 Housing 384.
 Industrial Hygiene 161, 162, 163, 166.
 Agriculture 163.
 Mines 164.
 Textiles 165.
 Industrial Medicine 177.
 Industrial Pathology 152, 153, 154.
 Industrial Physiology 148, 149, 150.
 Lead Poisoning 151.
 Medical Care 160.
 Medical Inspection 175.
 Migration
 Emigration 346.
 Night Work in Bakeries 129.
 Pneumoconiosis 156, 157, 158.
 Prevention of Industrial Accidents 180, 182, 183.
 Professional Workers 479.
 Profit-Sharing 408.
 Protection of Children and Young Persons 146, 213.
- Great Britain (*continued*)
 Protection of Women 146.
 Childbirth 206.
 Economic 211.
 Night Work 202.
 Recommendations, Action on 143, 185, 186, 280, 350, 352, 549.
 Seamen 505.
 Social Insurance 243, 284, 285.
 Unemployment 310.
 Employment Exchanges 324.
 Insurance and Relief 328, 332.
 Public Works 315.
 Young People 340.
 Wages 289, 296.
 Weekly Rest 125.
 Women's Work 187, 188, 191, 193.
 Workers' Nutrition 148.
 Workers' Spare Time 372.
- Greece
 Collective Agreements 417.
 Conciliation and Arbitration 427.
 Conventions, Action on 185, 196, 201, 202, 279.
 Hours of Work
 Industry 85.
 Industrial Hygiene 162.
 National Economic Council 456.
 Prevention of Industrial Accidents 184.
 Protection of Women
 Economic 211.
 Right of Combination in Trade Unions 399.
 Social Insurance 244.
 Unemployment
 Insurance and Relief 328, 333.
 Public Works 316.
 Vocational Training 357.
 Wages 297.
 Workers' Spare Time 373.
- Greek Orthodox Church 38.
- Grenada
 Native Labour 528.
- Guadeloupe
 Native Labour 536.
 Prevention of Industrial Accidents 180.
- Guatemala
 Agricultural Workers 499.
 Hours of Work
 Industry 85.
 Industrial Hygiene 162.
 Protection of Women
 Childbirth 206.
 Wages 297.
- H**
- High Commission for Refugees coming from Germany 344.
 Holidays with Pay 142.
 Home Work 482.

- Hong Kong
 Native Labour 526.
 Prevention of Industrial Accidents 182, 183.
 Protection of Children and Young Persons 214.
 Hours of Work
 Industry 104.
 Building and Civil Engineering 106.
 Chemical Industry 108.
 Coal Mines 106.
 Glass Works (other than Automatic Sheet-Glass and Glass-Bottle) 109.
 Iron and Steel 106.
 Printing and Kindred Trades 108.
 Public Works 105.
 Road Transport 109.
 Textile Industry 107.
 Housing 380.
 Hungary
 Compensation for Occupational Diseases 158, 170, 173.
 Conventions, Action on 185, 186, 201, 202, 219, 281.
 Employment 309.
 Hours of Work
 Commercial Establishments 119.
 Industry 85.
 Housing 380, 385.
 Industrial Pathology 154.
 National Economic (Industrial) Council 456.
 Night Work in Bakeries 129.
 Pneumoconiosis 158.
 Production 309.
 Professional Workers 476, 478, 479.
 Protection of Children and Young Persons 214.
 Social Insurance 245, 283, 285.
 Unemployment
 Employment Exchanges 325.
 Insurance and Relief 333.
 Young People 341.
 Wages 289, 297.
 Weekly Rest 126.
 Women's Work 192.
 Workers' Spare Time 373.
 Hygiene
 (See Industrial Hygiene)

I

- Iceland
 Social Insurance 247.
 Immigration
 (See under Migration)
 India
 Compensation for Occupational Diseases 170.
 Conventions, Action on 111, 112, 113, 143, 167, 196, 281.

- India (*continued*)
 Employers' Organisations 23.
 Factory Inspection 220.
 Hours of Work
 Industry 86.
 Industrial Hygiene
 Textiles 165.
 Industrial Physiology 148.
 Lead Poisoning 150, 151.
 Medical Inspection 175.
 Pneumoconiosis 156.
 Prevention of Industrial Accidents 178, 179, 180, 181, 182, 184.
 Prison Labour 551.
 Professional Workers 478.
 Protection of Children and Young Persons 214.
 Protection of Women 197, 198.
 Childbirth 206.
 Night Work 203.
 Recommendations, Action on 143, 352.
 Right of Combination in Trade Unions 400.
 Unemployment
 Non-Manual Workers 337.
 Vocational Training 357.
 Wages 438.
 Women's Work 188.
 Workers' Organisations 12.
 Individual Contract of Service 435.
 Indo-China
 Native Labour 535.
 Prevention of Industrial Accidents 179.
 Protection of Women 198.
 Night Work 202.
 Childbirth 205.
 Industrial Diseases
 (See Industrial Pathology or under names of diseases)
 (See also Compensation for Occupational Diseases)
 Industrial Hygiene 161.
 Industrial Medicine 176.
 Industrial Pathology 150.
 Industrial Physiology 145.
 (See also Protection of Children and Young Persons)
 (See also, under country headings, Protection of Women)
 International Bureau of Education 364.
 International Bureau of Technical Education 361.
 International Confederation of Christian Trade Unions 16.
 International Conference of Social Insurance and Mutual Aid 273.
 International Conference on Social Work 27.
 International Congress of Catholic Journalists 30.

- International Congress on Recreation and Spare Time 378.
- International Cotton Federation 21.
- International Federation of Bookbinders 13.
- International Federation of Boot and Shoe Operatives 14.
- International Federation of Building and Woodworkers 14.
- International Federation of Christian Building Workers' Unions 17.
- International Federation of Christian Metal Workers 16.
- International Federation of Christian Miners 17.
- International Federation of Christian Salaried Employees 16, 469.
- International Federation of Christian Transport and Factory Workers' Unions 17.
- International Federation of Crafts and Industries 12.
- International Federation of General Factory Workers 14.
- International Federation of League of Nations Societies 26.
- International Federation of Lithographers 13.
- International Federation of Trade Unions 10.
- International Labour Conference
Committee on the Application of Conventions 4.
Delegations 559.
Twentieth Session 5.
Twenty-first Session (Maritime) 6, 506.
Twenty-second Session (Maritime) 8, 513.
- International Labour Office
Advisory Committee of Correspondents on Workers' Spare Time 9.
Advisory Committee on Salaried Employees 471.
Advisory Committee on Scientific Management 453.
Advisory Committee on Professional Workers 477, 480, 481.
Committee of Experts on Workers' Nutrition 9.
Committee on Social Charges 272.
Correspondence Committee on Unemployment Insurance and Placing 9.
Governing Body 8, 9, 560.
Committees 9, 560.
Joint Maritime Commission 513.
National Correspondents 2.
Permanent Agricultural Committee 9.
Permanent Delegations accredited to 2, 557.
Sub-Committee on Automatic Coupling 185.
- International Labour Office (*continued*)
Sub-Committee on Silicosis 9.
Visitors to 40.
- International Labour Organisation
(*See also* International Labour Office, International Labour Conference, Conventions and Recommendations)
Admission of Egypt 1, 5.
Broadcasts on Work of 41.
Committee of Experts 4.
Conventions, Ratification of 3.
Film on Work of 41.
Permanent Delegates 2.
States Members 557.
Textile Conference (Washington) 2.
International Medical Association 277.
International Organisation of Industrial Employers 21.
International Railway Union 22.
International Trade 44, 49, 54.
International Transport Workers' Federation 13.
International Typographers' Secretariat 13.
International University Federation for the League of Nations 27.
International Wood Federation 21.
- Iran
Industrial Hygiene 162.
Prevention of Industrial Accidents 178.
Protection of Children and Young Persons 214.
Protection of Women
Childbirth 206.
Unemployment
Employment Exchanges 325.
Wages 439.
- Iraq
Compensation for Occupational Diseases 170.
Conventions, Action on 111, 112, 113, 196, 281.
Holidays with Pay 138.
Hours of Work
Industry 87.
Industrial Hygiene 162.
Migration
Immigration 348.
Protection of Children and Young Persons 215.
Protection of Women 198.
Childbirth 206.
Recommendations, Action on 352.
Right of Combination in Trade Unions 400.
Social Insurance 248, 283.
Unemployment
Employment Exchanges 325.
Insurance and Relief 333.
Wages 297.
Weekly Rest 126.

- Irish Free State
 Agricultural Workers 502.
 Collective Agreements 417.
 Compensation for Occupational Diseases 173.
 Conventions, Action on 114, 130, 143, 167, 196, 201, 202, 548.
 Employers' Organisations 24.
 Holidays with Pay 138.
 Hours of Work
 Commercial Establishments 119.
 Industry 87.
 Housing 385.
 Individual Contract of Service 435.
 Industrial Hygiene 166.
 Night Work in Bakeries 130.
 Prevention of Industrial Accidents 184.
 Protection of Children and Young Persons 215.
 Protection of Women
 Night Work 203.
 Recommendations, Action on 143, 549.
 Social Insurance 248.
 Unemployment
 Insurance and Relief 328.
 Public Works 316.
 Vocational Training 357.
 Wages 297, 439.
- Italy
 Agricultural Workers 499, 503.
 Compensation for Occupational Diseases 170, 173.
 Conciliation and Arbitration 427.
 Cost of Living 51.
 Holidays with Pay 138.
 Hours of Work
 Commercial Establishments 119.
 Industry 88.
 Housing 385.
 Industrial Hygiene 163, 164, 166.
 Industrial Medicine 177.
 Industrial Pathology 154.
 Industrial Physiology 148, 149.
 Malaria 154.
 Medical Care 159.
 Medical Research 175.
 National Economic Council (Central Corporative Committee) 456.
 Native Labour 537.
 Pneumoconiosis 156.
 Prevention of Industrial Accidents 179.
 Prices 50.
 Production
 Industrial 45.
 Professional Workers 477.
 Protection of Children and Young Persons 215.
 Protection of Women 146, 198.
 Childbirth 207.
 Economic 211.
- Italy (*continued*)
 Right of Combination in Trade Unions 401.
 Shop Closing 131.
 Social Insurance 249, 283.
 Tuberculosis 153.
 Unemployment
 Employment Exchanges 326.
 Insurance and Relief 328.
 Public Works 316.
 Vocational Training 357.
 Wages 289.
 Family Allowances 305.
 Weekly Rest 126.
 Workers' Spare Time 373.
- J
- Japan
 Collective Agreements 418.
 Compensation for Occupational Diseases 170.
 Conventions, Action on 110, 111, 112, 113, 167, 196, 202, 281, 350.
 Cost of Living 51.
 Dismissal 445.
 Employers' Organisations 25.
 Employment 309.
 Finance 58.
 Hours of Work
 Industry 89.
 Housing 385.
 Industrial Hygiene 162.
 Industrial Medicine 177.
 Medical Care 159, 160.
 Medical Inspection 175.
 Medical Research 175.
 Migration
 Emigration 346.
 National Economic Council (Cabinet Investigation Office) 457.
 Native Labour 538.
 Phosphorus Poisoning 152.
 Prices 50.
 Production
 Consumption and Investment Goods 47.
 Industrial 45, 309.
 Protection of Children and Young Persons 215.
 Protection of Women
 Childbirth 207.
 Night Work 203.
 Recommendations, Action on 351.
 Right of Combination in Trade Unions 401.
 Scientific Management 452.
 Shop Closing 132.
 Social Insurance 251, 285.
 Tuberculosis 153.
 Unemployment
 Employment Exchanges 326.
 Insurance and Relief 328, 334.
 Young People 341.

- Japan (*continued*)
 Vocational Training 358.
 Wages 289.
 Women's Work 190.
 Workers' Nutrition 148.
 Workers' Organisations 20.
 Workers' Spare Time 374.
 Jociste Movement 33, 34.
 Johore
 Prevention of Industrial Accidents 183.
- K**
- Kedah
 Industrial Physiology 148.
 Protection of Children and Young Persons 214.
 Kenya
 Malaria 153.
 Native Labour 523.
 Prevention of Industrial Accidents 183.
- L**
- Labour Contracts
 (*See Individual Contract of Service*)
 Laos
 Prevention of Industrial Accidents 180.
 Latvia
 Conventions, Action on 111, 112, 113, 196, 281.
 Employment 309.
 Lead Poisoning 150.
 Migration 345.
 National Economic Council 457.
 Prevention of Industrial Accidents 184.
 Prison Labour 552.
 Production 309.
 Recommendations, Action on 352.
 Right of Combination in Trade Unions 390.
 Social Insurance 252, 284.
 Unemployment
 Public Works 317.
 Vocational Training 358.
 Workers' Spare Time 374.
 League of Nations Temporary Committee of Assistance to Indigent Foreigners 343.
 Lebanon
 Prevention of Industrial Accidents 182.
 Protection of Women 198.
 Childbirth 206.
 Night Work 202.
 Liaison Committee of Major International Associations 337, 338.
 Liberia
 Native Labour 538.
- Lithuania
 Conciliation and Arbitration 428.
 Employers' Organisations 23.
 Prison Labour 552.
 Right of Combination in Trade Unions 391.
 Shop Closing 132.
 Social Insurance 252, 283.
 Luxembourg
 Migration 345.
 National Economic Council 457.
 Prevention of Industrial Accidents 179.
 Right of Combination in Trade Unions 401.
 Social Insurance 252.
 Unemployment
 Young People 341.
 Workers' Spare Time 374.
- M**
- Madagascar
 Native Labour 534.
 Protection of Children and Young Persons 213.
 Malaya
 (*See also British Malaya*)
 Malaria 153.
 Malta
 Native Labour 528.
 Prevention of Industrial Accidents 180.
 Shop Closing 132.
 Martinique
 Native Labour 536.
 Prevention of Industrial Accidents 179.
 Matignon Agreement 11.
 Medical Care 159.
 Medicine
 (*See Industrial Medicine*)
 Mexico
 Agricultural Workers 499.
 Compensation for Occupational Diseases 170.
 Conventions, Action on 280, 281.
 Employers' Organisations 23.
 Factory Inspection 220.
 Hours of Work
 Commercial Establishments 119.
 Industry 90.
 Housing 385.
 Industrial Hygiene 162.
 Textiles 166.
 Industrial Medicine 176, 177.
 Medical Inspection 175.
 Pneumoconiosis 156.
 Prevention of Industrial Accidents 179, 185.
 Protection of Children and Young Persons 215.

- Mexico (*continued*)
 Protection of Women 200.
 Childbirth 207.
 Economic 211.
 Shop Closing 132.
 Social Insurance 253, 285.
 Tuberculosis 153.
 Weekly Rest 126.
 Workers' Organisations 10.
 Workers' Spare Time 374.
- Migration 342.
- Miners' International Federation 13.
- Minimum Wages
 (*See Wages*)
- Morocco
 Native Labour 529.
 Wages 439.
- Mozambique
 Native Labour 543.
 Prevention of Industrial Accidents 178.
- N**
- Nansen International Office 343.
- Native Labour 547.
- Netherlands
 Agricultural Workers 503.
 Collective Agreements 418.
 Compensation for Occupational Diseases 174.
 Conventions, Action on 111, 112, 114, 167, 196, 201, 282, 350.
 Cost of Living 51.
 Dismissal 446.
 Finance 58.
 Holidays with Pay 138.
 Home Work 488.
 Hours of Work
 Commercial Establishments 120.
 Industry 90.
 Medical Inspection 175.
 Migration 345.
 National Economic Council 457.
 Pneumoconiosis 156.
 Prices 50.
 Production
 Industrial 45.
 Professional Workers 476.
 Recommendations, Action on 351.
 Social Insurance 253, 285.
 Unemployment
 Insurance and Relief 328.
 Wages 289, 440.
 Women's Work 191, 192.
- Netherlands Indies
 Native Labour 538.
 Unemployment
 Insurance and Relief 334.
 Weekly Rest 127.
- New Caledonia
 Native Labour 536.
 Protection of Women 198.
 Childbirth 205.
- New Zealand
 Agricultural Workers 503.
 Conciliation and Arbitration 428.
 Conventions, Action on 111, 112, 114, 143, 196, 282, 548.
 Hours of Work
 Commercial Establishments 120.
 Industry 91.
 Housing 380, 386.
 Industrial Hygiene
 Mines 165.
 Native Labour 541.
 Protection of Children and Young Persons 216.
 Protection of Women 198.
 Economic 211.
 Night Work 203.
 Recommendations, Action on 143, 351, 549.
 Right of Combination in Trade Unions 402.
 Social Insurance 254, 285.
 Unemployment
 Employment Exchanges 326.
 Insurance and Relief 334.
 Public Works 317.
 Wages 289, 297.
 Family Allowances 306.
 Workers' Organisations 21.
- Nicaragua
 Hours of Work
 Industry 93.
- Nigeria
 Native Labour 525.
 Prevention of Industrial Accidents 184.
- Northern Rhodesia
 Native Labour 520.
 Prevention of Industrial Accidents 181.
- Norway
 Conventions, Action on 114, 128, 143, 218, 514, 515, 516, 548.
 Dismissal 446.
 Employment 309.
 Factory Inspection 220.
 Holidays with Pay 138.
 Hours of Work
 Commercial Establishments 121.
 Industry 93.
 Housing 380.
 Individual Contract of Service 435.
 Industrial Hygiene 162.
 Industrial Pathology 152.
 Medical Care 160.
 Medical Research 175.
 Prevention of Industrial Accidents 179.
 Production 309.
 Protection of Children and Young Persons 216.
 Protection of Women
 Childbirth 207.
 Economic 212.

- Norway (*continued*)
 Public Holidays 145.
 Recommendations, Action on 516.
 Rules of Employment 450.
 Social Insurance 256, 285.
 Unemployment
 Insurance and Relief 328.
 Vocational Training 358.
 Wages 289, 440.
 Weekly Rest 127.
 Women's Work 195.
 Workers' Organisations 11.
- Nutrition
 (*See Workers' Nutrition*)
- Nyasaland
 Native Labour 520.
- O**
- Occupational Diseases
 (*See Industrial Pathology or under names of diseases*)
 (*See also Compensation for Occupational Diseases*)
- P**
- Palestine
 Compensation for Occupational Diseases 170.
 Protection of Children and Young Persons 216.
 Social Insurance 257.
- Panama
 Social Insurance 257.
 Wages 298.
- Paraguay
 Industrial Hygiene 162.
 Protection of Women 198.
 Childbirth 207.
- Pathology, Industrial
 (*See Industrial Pathology*)
- Peru
 Administration of Labour Law 451.
 Compensation for Occupational Diseases 158.
 Conciliation and Arbitration 428.
 Conventions, Action on 110, 123, 128, 150, 167, 168, 196, 201, 202, 204, 218, 219, 279, 280, 349, 504, 514, 515.
 Factory Inspection 220.
 Holidays with Pay 139.
 Hours of Work
 Commercial Establishments 121.
 Industry 93.
 Housing 386.
 Individual Contract of Service 435.
 Industrial Hygiene 162, 164.
 Mines 165.
 Malaria 154.
 Medical Care 160.
- Peru (*continued*)
 Migration
 Immigration 348.
 Pneumoconiosis 157, 158.
 Prevention of Industrial Accidents 182.
 Prison Labour 552.
 Protection of Women
 Childbirth 207.
 Social Insurance 257, 283.
 Tuberculosis 153.
 Unemployment
 Public Works 317.
- Philippine Islands
 Prevention of Industrial Accidents 182.
- Physiology, Industrial
 (*See Industrial Physiology*)
- Poland
 Collective Agreements 419.
 Compensation for Occupational Diseases 174.
 Conciliation and Arbitration 429.
 Conventions, Action on 167, 219, 279.
 Cost of Living 51.
 Employers' Organisations 23.
 Finance 58.
 Hours of Work
 Commercial Establishments 211.
 Industry 94.
 Housing 380, 386.
 Industrial Hygiene 166.
 Ports 165.
 Industrial Medicine 176.
 Industrial Pathology 154.
 Lead Poisoning 151.
 Medical Inspection 175.
 Migration 345.
 Emigration 346.
 Prevention of Industrial Accidents 184.
 Prices 50.
 Prison Labour 552.
 Production
 Industrial 45.
 Professional Workers 478.
 Protection of Women 146.
 Social Insurance 259, 285.
 Unemployment
 Insurance and Relief 328, 334.
 Non-Manual Workers 338.
 Public Works 318, 341.
 Young People 341.
 Vocational Training 359.
 Wages 289.
 Women's Work 187.
 Workers' Spare Time 374.
- Portugal
 Compensation for Occupational Diseases 170.
 Conventions, Action on 114, 143, 548.

Portugal (*continued*)
 Hours of Work
 Commercial Establishments 121.
 Industry 95.
 Native Labour 541.
 Prevention of Industrial Accidents 180.
 Protection of Women 198.
 Childbirth 207.
 Recommendations, Action on 549.
 Right of Combination in Trade Unions 403.
 Social Insurance 260, 283.
 Vocational Training 359.
 Wages 299.
 Women's Work 192.

Portuguese Guinea
 Native Labour 544.

Portuguese Indies
 Native Labour 545.

Press and Public Opinion 39.

Prevention of Industrial Accidents 178.

Prices 46, 50, 53.

Prison Labour 549.

Production
 Consumption and Investment Goods 47.
 Industrial 44, 45, 48.
 World 43.

Professional Workers 475.

Protection of Children and Young Persons 212.

R

Ratifications 558.

Recommendations, Action of Governments
 No. 6: White Phosphorus 151.
 No. 22: Workmen's Compensation (Minimum Scale) 279.
 No. 23: Workmen's Compensation (Jurisdiction) 279.
 No. 31: Prevention of Industrial Accidents 185.
 No. 32: Power-Driven Machinery 186.
 No. 41: Minimum Age (Non-Industrial Employment) 219.
 No. 42: Employment Agencies 349.
 No. 43: Invalidity, Old-Age and Survivors' Insurance 280.
 No. 44: Unemployment Provision 350.
 No. 45: Unemployment (Young Persons) 351.
 No. 46: Elimination of Recruiting 548.
 No. 47: Holidays with Pay 143.
 No. 48: Seamen's Welfare in Ports 516.

Red International of Labour Unions 10.

Remuneration of Labour
 (*See* Wages)

Reunion
 Native Labour 536.
 Prevention of Industrial Accidents 179.

Right of Combination in Trade Unions 388.

Rumania
 Conventions, Action on 114, 143, 548.
 Hours of Work
 Commercial Establishments 121.
 Industrial Hygiene 162.
 National (Superior) Economic Council 457.
 Professional Workers 476.
 Recommendations, Action on 143, 186, 249, 249, 549.
 Social Insurance 260.
 Unemployment
 Non-Manual Workers 338.
 Vocational Training 359.

S

Safety
 (*See* Prevention of Industrial Accidents)

St. Christopher and Nevis
 Native Labour 528.

St. Pierre and Miquelon
 Prevention of Industrial Accidents 182.

Salaried Employees 465.

Salvador
 Agricultural Workers 499.
 Medical Care 160.

San Tomé and Príncipe
 Native Labour 545.

Sarawak
 Prevention of Industrial Accidents 178, 181.

Save the Children International Union 27.

Scientific Management 452.

Seamen 504.

Seychelles
 Native Labour 528.

Siam
 Conventions, Action on 111, 112, 114, 143, 196, 282, 548.
 Recommendations, Action on 143, 351, 549.

Sierra Leone
 Native Labour 525.

Silicosis
 (*See* Pneumoconiosis)

Social Insurance 222.
 Seamen 277.

South American Congress of the Evangelical Methodist Church 37.

- Southern Rhodesia
 Native Labour 519.
 Prevention of Industrial Accidents 181, 183.
- Spain
 Administration of Labour Law 451.
 Agricultural Workers 499, 503.
 Compensation for Occupational Diseases 170.
 Hours of Work
 Industry 95.
 Industrial Medicine 177.
 National Economic Council 458.
 Protection of Women
 Childbirth 207.
 Social Insurance 261.
 Unemployment
 Employment Exchanges 326.
 Insurance and Relief 328.
 Weekly Rest 127.
 Works Councils 411.
- Spare Time
 (See Workers' Spare Time)
- Stakhanov Movement 452.
- State Intervention 52.
 (See also Economic Planning)
- Straits Settlements
 Prevention of Industrial Accidents 183.
- Swaziland
 Native Labour 519.
- Sweden
 Agricultural Workers 500, 503.
 Compensation for Occupational Diseases 170, 174.
 Conciliation and Arbitration 429.
 Conventions, Action on 114, 143, 167, 168, 196, 548.
 Cost of Living 51.
 Employment 309.
 Finance 58.
 Holidays with Pay 139.
 Hours of Work
 Commercial Establishments 122.
 Housing 380, 386.
 Industrial Pathology 152.
 Migration
 Immigration 348.
 Pneumoconiosis 157.
 Prices 50.
 Production
 Industrial 45, 309.
 Professional Workers 477.
 Protection of Women 200.
 Childbirth 207.
 Economic 211.
 Recommendations, Action on 144, 549.
 Right of Combination in Trade Unions 403.
 Scientific Management 452.
 Social Insurance 261.
- Sweden (*continued*)
 Unemployment
 Insurance and Relief 328, 335.
 Public Works 318.
 Young People 342.
 Wages 289.
 Women's Work 193.
 Workers' Organisations 11.
 Workers' Spare Time 375.
- Switzerland
 Agricultural Workers 500.
 Collective Agreements 419.
 Compensation for Occupational Diseases 171, 174.
 Conciliation and Arbitration 430.
 Conventions, Action on 111, 112, 114, 196, 201, 202, 282.
 Finance 58.
 Holidays with Pay 139.
 Home Work 488.
 Hours of Work
 Industry 95.
 Housing 380.
 Lead Poisoning 151.
 Migration 345.
 Emigration 346.
 Prevention of Industrial Accidents 180, 182.
 Professional Workers 479.
 Protection of Children and Young Persons 216.
 Protection of Women
 Childbirth 207.
 Night Work 203.
 Recommendations, Action on 219, 280, 349, 350, 351.
 Social Insurance 262, 285.
 Unemployment
 Insurance and Relief 328, 335.
 Public Works 319.
 Non-Manual Workers 338.
 Young People 342.
 Vocational Training 360.
 Wages 289, 299, 441.
 Weekly Rest 127.
- Syria
 Prevention of Industrial Accidents 182.
 Protection of Women 198.
 Childbirth 206.
 Night Work 202.
- T
- Tanganyika
 Native Labour 522.
- Timor
 Native Labour 546.
- Tonga Islands
 Prevention of Industrial Accidents 182.

- Trade Unions
 (See Right of Combination in Trade Unions)
 (See Workers' Organisations)
- Trinidad and Tobago
 Native Labour 528.
 Prevention of Industrial Accidents 184.
- Tunisia
 Holidays with Pay 140.
 Native Labour 530.
 Prevention of Industrial Accidents 182.
- Turkey
 Conciliation and Arbitration 431.
 Conventions, Action on 111, 113, 114, 197, 282.
 Dismissal 447.
 Factory Inspection 220.
 Hours of Work
 Industry 96.
 Individual Contract of Service 435.
 Industrial Hygiene 162.
 Protection of Women 198.
 Childbirth 208.
 Night Work 203.
 Recommendations, Action on 352.
 Right of Combination in Trade Unions 404.
 Rules of Employment 450.
 Social Insurance 263, 285.
 Unemployment
 Employment Exchanges 326.
 Wages 299, 441.
- U**
- Uganda
 Industrial Hygiene
 Mines 164.
 Native Labour 524.
 Prevention of Industrial Accidents 181, 182.
 Protection of Women
 Night Work 203.
 Unemployment 44, 308.
- Union of South Africa
 Compensation for Occupational Diseases 158, 171.
 Conventions, Action on 111, 113, 114, 115, 143, 197, 282, 548.
 Employers' Organisations 26.
 Holidays with Pay 140.
 Hours of Work
 Industry 97.
 Housing 380, 386.
 Migration
 Immigration 26, 348.
 Native Labour 546.
 Pneumoconiosis 158.
 Prevention of Industrial Accidents 182.
- Union of South Africa (*continued*)
 Recommendations, Action on 144, 352, 549.
 Social Insurance 263, 285.
 Unemployment
 Public Works 319.
 Wages 289, 299.
- United Kingdom
 (See also British Empire)
 (See also Great Britain)
 Cost of Living 51.
 Finance 58.
 Prices 50.
 Production
 Industrial 45, 48, 309.
 Protection of Children and Young Persons 214.
- United States of America
 Accidents 159.
 Agricultural Workers 500, 504.
 Compensation for Occupational Diseases 158, 171, 174.
 Conciliation and Arbitration 432.
 Conventions, Action on 111, 113, 114, 197, 282.
 Co-operation 462.
 Cost of Living 51.
 Dismissal 448.
 Employers' Organisations 25.
 Factory Inspection 221.
 Finance 58.
 Holidays with Pay 141.
 Home Work 489.
 Hours of Work
 Commercial Establishments 122.
 Industry 97.
 Housing 380, 387.
 Industrial Hygiene 161, 162, 163, 164, 165.
 Industrial Medicine 176, 177.
 Industrial Pathology 152, 154.
 Industrial Physiology 150.
 Lead Poisoning 151.
 Medical Care 160.
 Medical Inspection 175.
 Medical Research 175.
 Mercury Poisoning 151.
 Migration
 Immigration 349.
 National Economic Council (Council for Industrial Progress) 459.
 Pneumoconiosis 155, 157, 158.
 Prevention of Industrial Accidents 179, 181, 183.
 Prices 50.
 Prison Labour 553.
 Production
 Consumption and Investment Goods 47.
 Industrial 45, 48.
 Professional Workers 487, 479.
 Protection of Children and Young Persons 216.

United States of America (*continued*)
 Protection of Women 198, 200.
 Economic 209.
 Night Work 203.
 Recommendations, Action on 352.
 Right of Combination in Trade Unions 405.
 Seamen 505.
 Social Insurance 264, 284.
 Unemployment
 Employment Exchanges 326.
 Insurance and Relief 328, 335.
 Public Works 319.
 Non-Manual Workers 338.
 Young People 342.
 Wages 289, 299, 441.
 Women's Work 188.
 Workers' Organisations 19.
 Workers' Spare Time 375.
 Universal Christian Council for Life and Work 35.
 Uruguay
 Holidays with Pay 141.
 Hours of Work
 Commercial Establishments 122.
 National Correspondent 2.
 Prevention of Industrial Accidents 183.
 Protection of Women 198.
 Social Insurance 266.
 Weekly Rest 127.
 U.S.S.R.
 Agricultural Workers 500.
 Conventions, Action on 110, 111, 113, 114, 123, 128, 130, 150, 167, 168, 185, 186, 197, 202, 204, 218, 219, 279, 280, 282, 302, 349, 350, 504, 514, 515, 548.
 Dismissal 449.
 Economic Planning 52.
 Factory Inspection 220, 221.
 Holidays with Pay 141.
 Hours of Work
 Industry 104.
 Industrial Pathology 154.
 Medical Care 160.
 National Economic Council (State Planning Commission) 460.
 Production
 Consumption and Investment Goods 47.
 Protection of Women 199.
 Childbirth 208.
 Public Holidays 145.
 Recommendations, Action on 151, 186, 219, 279, 281, 350, 351, 352.
 Right of Combination in Trade Unions 406.
 Scientific Management 452.
 Social Insurance 267.
 Unemployment 320.
 Young People 342.
 Vocational Training 360.

U.S.S.R. (*continued*)
 Wages 300.
 Women's Work 194.
 Workers' Nutrition 148.
 Workers' Organisations 19.
 Workers' Spare Time 377.

V

Venezuela
 Collective Agreements 420.
 Conciliation and Arbitration 433.
 Dismissal 449.
 Factory Inspection 220.
 Holidays with Pay 141.
 Hours of Work
 Commercial Establishments 123.
 Industry 104.
 Individual Contract of Service 435.
 Industrial Hygiene 162.
 Industrial Physiology 150.
 Lead Poisoning 150, 151.
 National Correspondent 2.
 Prevention of Industrial Accidents 179, 180.
 Profit-Sharing 407.
 Protection of Children and Young Persons 217.
 Protection of Women 146, 198.
 Childbirth 208.
 Economic 211.
 Night Work 204.
 Right of Combination in Trade Unions 406.
 Social Insurance 269, 285.
 Unemployment
 Employment Exchanges 327.
 Wages 301, 442.
 Women's Work 190.
 Vocational Training 353.

W

Wage Policy
 (See Wages)
 Wages 288.
 Family Allowances 302.
 Women's Work 186.
 Workers' Nutrition 147.
 Workers' Organisations
 International Organisations (*see also under titles*)
 National Organisations (*see also under countries*)
 (See also Right of Combination in Trade Unions)
 (See also Works Councils)
 International Federations of Trade Unions 568.
 National Trade Union Federations
 European Countries 574, 586.
 Extra-European Countries 581, 586.
 Workers' Spare Time 365.

Workmen's Compensation
 (See Compensation for Occupational
 Diseases)
 World Alliance of Young Men's Christ-
 ian Associations 38.
 World Alliance of Young Women's
 Christian Associations 38.
 World Congress of Jewish Physicians
 344.
 World Federation against Alcoholism
 28.
 World Youth Congress 27.

Y

Young Christian Workers' Organisation
 (See Jociste Movement)

Yugoslavia
 Collective Agreements 420.
 Conciliation and Arbitration 434.
 Conventions, Action on 110, 168,
 202, 280, 349, 350.
 Employers' Organisations 24.
 Factory Inspection 221.
 Night Work in Bakeries 130.
 Recommendations, Action on 281,
 350, 351.
 Rules of Employment 450.
 Social Insurance 269, 270.
 Unemployment
 Insurance and Relief 336.
 Non-Manual Workers 338.
 Vocational Training 361,
 Wages 24, 301.
 Workers' Spare Time 378.

